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Immersion versus Engagement Strategies: Examining the Effects on Conversational Competence amongst Korean Students in an Intensive English Program

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Abstract—This study seeks to examine the effect that immersion versus engagement strategies has on the language growth and efficacy of Korean EFL students learning to speak conversational English in an Intensive English Program (IEP) at an American university. This study utilized quantitative research techniques to answer the various questions that arise in regard to the effectiveness of immersion in an intensive English program. Eight Korean students were selected to partake in the research with four currently attending the IEP program and four having since graduated from the same IEP program. The study was conducted through interviews and questionnaires to examine the effectiveness of immersion strategies within the IEP program. The study found that although some engagement strategies remained somewhat effective for Koreans learning conversational English, the students preferred immersion. The Korean students noted that their interaction with native English speakers in environments where they were immersed in English such as in living situations or extracurricular programs increased their retention of English over activities done in the classroom.

Index Terms—immersion, intensive English, engagement strategies, Korean EFL

I. INTRODUCTION

Learning to speak English conversationally and academically has long been a goal for international students who enter intensive English programs, or IEP, within American colleges and universities (Ping, 2014). Many of these students, coming from countries where English remains an academic subject, do not have much of an outlet to practice and gain competence in English for use as a communicative tool. IEP programs therefore utilize various strategies to aid students in English language acquisition in these intensive environments. Many IEP programs utilize forms of engagement, such as technology or group activities, in their instructional strategies to help cultivate a positive learning environment to boost English language acquisition (Hur & Suh, 2010; Huang et al., 2017). These strategies are utilized with the hope that students who enter IEP programs with different English proficiencies will gain a mastery of all aspects of English, including using English as a communicative tool conversationally. For many students, especially those from Korea, the need to improve conversational as well as academic English leads many students to study abroad in American IEP programs.

In Korean society, English language success remains largely dictated by high-stakes testing and most often overlooks the importance of learning to speak English as a conversational tool. Several different research studies have been conducted to elaborate on the extensive need for Koreans to push past this negative washback from the intense testing philosophy held in Korea (Choi, 2008; Ostermiller, 2014; Whitehead, 2016). Most Korean students that come to IEP programs abroad are often in need of some form of basic English speaking instruction in order to boost their competence in conversational English. IEP programs, therefore, utilize activities that are specifically engineered to engage students in a manner that allows them to gain greater English competence, such as group work and technology usage, two effective engagement strategies for Koreans (Lim, 2012). However, how effective are these strategies and how do they compare to the effects of immersion? The research presented in this study considers the positive effect that immersion and engagement strategies can have on Korean students studying in intensive English programs within the United States at American colleges and universities. Such a finding could, in theory, allow IEP programs to adapt instruction or alter school activities to enhance Korean student speaking and listening language retention and production.

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

A Need for a New Approach

Researchers consistently agree that Koreans, whether through negative washback from high-stakes testing or personal doubts of English competence, have difficulty in English language production regardless of the time spent studying English (Gu & Reynolds, 2013; Kim, 2006; Peng, 2006). Choi (2008) argues in her research on the impact that high-stakes testing has on English as a Foreign Language (EFL) education that 47.5% of students who study English in...
Korea do so because their parents desire them to do well on standardized testing as opposed to learning English as a communicative tool. Indeed, Choi as well as other researchers have stated that the negative washback brought about by the highly competitive Korean educational system and the exam-heavy curriculum hinders significant English output among students (Choi, 2008; Gu & Reynolds, 2013; Kim, 2006; Munoz & Alvarez, 2010; Ostermiller, 2014; Whitehead, 2016). However, as Ostermiller (2014) states, a majority of the participants in his study on private EFL instructors in Korea stated that “a high level of communicative competence is certainly an expectation of their children’s English education” (p. 23).

Sarah Gu and Eric D. Reynolds (2013) in their study on extensive speaking for Korean EFL learners state that in Korea, there is a “substantial cognitive distance [that] exists between understanding a language and being able to produce it with fluency, accuracy, and complexity” (p. 87), noting that output is the key to closing this gap. Researchers have suggested that students are unhappy with the current English educational system (Kim, 2006; Ostermiller, 2014). Some researchers even assert that cultural factors may contribute to the lack of motivation to focus on the output of English, with Kim (2006) stating that anti-American and anti-English sentiment may be to blame for a lack of interest in learning English. Choi (2008), on the contrary, suggests that social pressure to pass examinations and an inability to challenge the status-quo leads students to focus purely on grammatical forms rather than social language production. Peng (2006) also agrees that motivation to study English is primarily brought about by a desire to succeed academically rather than to use English as a life-long communicative tool.

Although the debate about what the cause of such a lack of English communication skills remains open, the problem remains clearly defined: a gap exists between academic, grammatical understanding of English and the ability to use English as a social, communicative tool. Choi (2008) asserts that “the problem is that most of [Korean students] wind up getting disoriented in pursuing the true goal of learning English and keep only one goal in mind, i.e. obtaining as high an EFL test score as possible” (p. 58). Peng (2006), on the other hand, suggests that tapping into student motivation will inevitably help students to learn English with competence, saying that frequent communicative production is immensely helpful in the development of second language competence (p. 51). Many researchers claim that immersion and engagement strategies, such as task-based language teaching, to name one example, would boost not only their ability to produce English but also a student’s ability to function in a social, English environment (Jackson, 2004; Lo & Murphy, 2010; Ostermiller, 2014; Oxford & Crookall, 1989; Choi, 2008).

**Task-Based Language Teaching as a Form of Engagement and Immersion**

In response to the challenges that Koreans face when learning English as a foreign language in Korea and abroad, specific strategies are required. Some researchers have advocated the use of task-based language teaching to close the gap between academic understanding and social conversation skills in EFL classroom instruction (Benson, 2016; Guchte, Braaksma, Rijlaarsdam, & Bimmel, 2016; Nepravishta & Roseni, 2014; Ostermiller, 2014; Pourpore, 2013). Ostermiller (2014) concluded through his study of the private EFL sector of the South Korean educational system that teachers should take a more task-based approach to increase communicative competence: “This approach also has a strong emphasis on exposing students to authentic language use. Through my experience, many of the tasks that my students are required to complete are not communicative; they do not require interaction amongst participants” (p. 4).

Nepravishta and Emilda (2014) echoed this sentiment that a task-based approach can aid as an engagement strategy or a form of immersion by providing students with a venue to utilize their English as a communicative tool: “Task-based teaching (TBTL) in [English learning] environments provides learners with natural sources of meaningful material, various situations for communicative purposes, and supportive feedback for greater opportunities in using language” (p. 1). Benson (2016) further asserts that TBLT promotes learning by doing. Indeed, these researchers have promoted the usefulness of task-based language instruction as an engagement strategy to utilize.

Motivation remains central to the implementation of a task-based language approach to intensive English classrooms. Many Korean students feel unmotivated by seemingly meaningless tasks. Ostermiller (2014) also points out that American teachers often fail to recognize student motivation or goals when selecting tasks for language acquisition. Pourpore’s (2013) study similarly notes that socio-cultural factors combined within an EFL classroom have the potential to rob Korean students of their motivation to complete English-learning tasks. Pourpore’s (2013) study revealed that the number one reason for loss of motivation among Korean EFL students is a complicated, confusing, or difficult English task or prompt. Therefore, when teaching Korean students through the utilization of engagement strategies, it is paramount to take into account a student’s motivation levels and factors that affect said motivation. Long (2010) further points out that successful instruction through the venue of task-based language teaching is made possible by relevant instruction depending on the situation of the student. Long (2010) additionally states that “collaborative learning plays an important role” in task-based instruction (p. 2). This remains especially true with Korean students. Altogether, these researchers assert the importance of the task-based language teaching method amongst several different kinds of engagement techniques and immersion situations. Furthermore, these studies draw attention to the importance of including extracurricular tasks when engaging students with the content and the benefits that they can have on EFL instruction, especially in an intensive English setting (Benson, 2016; Ostermiller, 2014).

**Growing Understanding of Immersion**

The importance of immersion and engagement strategies in English classrooms has been a subject of debate in the United States since the late 1960s (Kim, Hutchison, & Winsler, 2015). Since then, educators and researchers have
sought to understand the impact that immersion-styled teaching and engagement strategies have had on English learners, specifically those from foreign countries. However, little research has been done to examine the effect that immersion in general has on the English conversational skills of foreign students in intensive English settings, especially abroad. Jackson (2004) conducted research on a group of Hong Kong students who traveled to England for an eighteen month English study. In her research, Jackson (2004) noted that the students first gravitated towards other Chinese students during the first half of the study-trip. Jackson noted of the students: “In the first half of the sojourn, in particular, most found it difficult to initiate and keep a conversation going with students from other parts of the world” (p. 268). Jackson (2004) also noted that cultural and social factors native to their home country also prevented the students from practicing their English, noting that elements such as peer pressure and unfamiliarity created hurdles for the students to utilize their English in an immersive environment.

Despite these hindrances to immersion instruction, another study conducted by researchers from the University of Oxford found that students who participate in an immersion program and are taught academic subjects in English are several times more likely to have higher vocabulary usage and have higher grades during English assessments (Lo & Murphy, 2009). More specifically, the study focused on two schools in which one school used English as the language of use in 70% of the instructional time while another school only taught English in the form of an English class. The students of the first school scored significantly higher on comprehension tests in nearly every category examined (Lo & Murphy, 2009). Indeed, researchers such as Lo and Murphy (2009) and others have made the case that being immersed in an English environment can greatly aid students in English development in various situations (Jackson, 2004; Oxford & Crookall, 1989).

III. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The purpose of this study is to examine the effect immersion and engagement strategies have on Korean students who are enrolled in an intensive English program at an American university to increase their competence in conversational English. Additionally, this study will evaluate student efficacy in their perspective of being prepared to be successful in the social English environment in an American university as well as the general American public. The following questions provided the basis for this study:

1. What effects do engagement strategies and immersion have on a Korean student’s perceived confidence to produce English conversationally?
2. To what extent do engagement strategies contribute to Korean students’ perceived communicative language development in intensive English classes in an English-speaking country?
3. To what extent does immersion contribute to Korean students’ perceived communicative language development in intensive English classes in an English speaking country?

IV. METHODOLOGY

This study utilized a quantitative data collection approach to reach its conclusions. The data was collected using surveys that utilized numerical categories in the form of Likert scales rather than open-ended questions, although open-ended questions were sometimes utilized to obtain biographical information and introductions.

Participants

After reviewing the educational history and competence of Korean students in an IEP program at an American university, a purposive sample of eight Korean students were voluntarily recruited to participate in the survey and interview process. All of the students that partook in the study were Korean and came to America to either study English in the IEP program or to study a degree within the academic life of the university but were first required to take IEP courses. The four Korean students who were currently attending the IEP program had graduated from a Korean high school and came directly to America to study English in a university setting. These students had little to no experience living in a foreign country within an IEP context and are all beginners to intermediate level English learners. Four additional Korean students had successfully graduated from the same IEP program having already graduated from Korean high schools and were then fully integrated into American social and academic life. All of the participants in the study were roughly the same age, consisting of individuals from eighteen to twenty-eight. Five males and three females participated in the study. All students were informed of the study and the anonymity of their identities and responses. Informed consent was, therefore, conveyed to the students.

Data Collection

Three areas of emphasis were analyzed in the data collection phase: 1) biographical information, 2) immersion’s and engagement strategies’ effect on English production confidence, and 3) the educational effectiveness of engagement strategies and immersion as a part of the IEP environment. In total, eight Korean students were interviewed and given questionnaires to complete about all three areas. All students were given informed consent before volunteering to partake in the study.

All eight Korean students underwent a preliminary open-ended questionnaire to determine their level of competence in speaking English conversationally, level of schooling in English, reasoning for coming to America to study English, and motivation levels for learning English. An open-ended questionnaire was selected for the beginning survey simply
because it allowed for freedom of expression and thought to give the researcher a sense of English proficiency and personal English confidence. The researcher then conducted a second questionnaire for both current IEP students and former IEP students to examine the effectiveness of the immersion and engagement strategies during their time studying in the IEP program. The first questionnaire was used to establish the participants’ level of personal English confidence as well as general demographic information. Its results had no bearing on the second questionnaire which had to do with engagement strategies and immersion factors.

To answer the research questions, the researcher utilized quantitative data methods. Using the second questionnaire which utilized Likert scales, the researcher met with Korean students both in and outside the IEP program to determine the data. The second questionnaire given to the students was answered in response to the experience that they had in the IEP program at their university. A Likert scale ranking system of 1 to 4 allowed the students to evaluate the perceived effectiveness of various engagement strategies and immersion factors (McCusker & Gunaydin, 2015). An even number Likert scale was utilized to avoid the exploitation of neutral answers among participants. The questions focused on the effectiveness that immersion and engagement strategies had on the motivation and learning of a student in the IEP program and asked students to rank effectiveness using a numerical scale (Goertzen, 2017). By utilizing current and post-IEP groups of students, the researcher was able to examine the perceived effectiveness of either engagement strategies or immersion factors from students in the IEP and from students who have graduated from the IEP program. Furthermore, questions within the survey were intended to cover all aspects of the IEP process in regard to immersion and engagement strategies that are utilized in different settings throughout the program. After completing the questionnaire, the students participated in one-on-one interviews to review the students’ response to immersion and engagement strategies in their efforts to learn conversational English. The subject of the questions remained the same for all students. For example, one student currently in the IEP was asked to further explain their feelings towards living with international roommates and how that has allowed them to learn English conversationally. The same question was asked of a post-IEP student but was rewritten to reflect the past rather than the present.

Data Analysis

The data analysis of the Likert scale data collected was analyzed by utilizing independent samples T testing (Dörnyei, 2007). The data analysis began with the compilation of the data into a collective pool segregated by IEP status as either current or post-IEP. Utilizing the data gained from the Likert scale samples, the data was combined within their categories to produce averages in regard to both the question asked and the classification of student (Treiman, 2009). Therefore, in regard to the averages produced from the Likert scale samples, the researcher was able to garner a single quantifiable numeral to place under the category of classification of student and/or the immersion or engagement strategy that corresponded with the answers of the students.

Following this initial step, the researcher utilized the SPSS statistical software program to determine if a significant difference exists between the categories examined. By determining if the data contains differences that are significant, the researcher was able to pinpoint areas of statistical significance to examine (Treiman, 2009). The trends that emerged was one of preference.

In order to determine a preference for engagement strategies or immersion factors, the research split up IEP and post-IEP responses into two tables. Then, the researcher compared the responses of each group individually against their engagement strategies answers and their immersion answers. The researcher then calculated the percentage value towards a preference of engagement or immersion with engagement represented by a negative percentage and immersion represented by a positive percentage. A “1” from the Likert scale represented a 0% preference for a position, whereas a “4” on the scale represented a 100% preference. The researcher first took the average Likert scale number per question and converted it to a percentage. After subtracting two comparing percentages, the researcher was able to quantify a percentage preference towards question over another.

The open-ended responses collected from the students were left in their original and raw state to showcase the English competency of the students. The grammatical errors and syntax structures are transferred verbatim from how they were originally written down on the survey. This was done to preserve the students’ responses and eliminate researcher bias.

V. INTERPRETATION

Many similarities and contrasts were found to exist between the four Korean students that are currently attending IEP classes and the four Korean students who have previously graduated from the IEP to attend academic classes in the same American university. Furthermore, all individuals marked English language skills as highly important to their future careers. In addition, seven out of eight of the participants stated that they desire to learn English because it is the global language used to interact between cultures. Moreover, all participants said that learning English is personally very important while five out of eight stated that their parents held English education as highly important.

When it came to identifying the problems of learning to speak and eventually speaking English conversationally, all of the participants were in general agreement. When asked how the participants viewed their own ability to speak English, the participants currently in the IEP were generally negative of their own abilities, with some attributing it to their inability to formulate perfect sentences. The students who graduated from the IEP tended to have remarks that
eluded to a higher level of confidence. Below are the students’ responses to the question: “How would you describe your English speaking abilities:”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IEP Student</th>
<th>After I studied in IEP, I am improving my speaking English. But, I still have nervous when I talk to American. Because American speak so smoothly and fast.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>IEP Student 2</td>
<td>I’m bad.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IEP Student 3</td>
<td>So bad. Speaking and writing are harder than reading.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IEP Student 4</td>
<td>I want to say much. My brain get confusion. My mouth hesitates so much. I say just Yes and No Lol.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-IEP Student 1</td>
<td>Depend on topic or context. But mostly I feel I am lack of vocab.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-IEP Student 2</td>
<td>Well… pretty good! I have no problems to communicate with other people.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-IEP Student 3</td>
<td>It’s getting better.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-IEP Student 4</td>
<td>I feel like I do not have problem with listening classes and lectures.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The data shows that the Korean students not only feel a lack of confidence in speaking English but also feel that they are less willing to speak if the sentence that they want to say is not perfect upon conception. Quantitative data gathered showed that students who have graduated from the IEP program were more likely to have a boosted level of self-confidence in speaking English. The data shows that although the Likert scale findings were significantly different from each other, the p value of .058 suggests that the difference is due to chance, as shown in Table 2.

| (1 – strongly disagree, 2 – disagree, 3 – agree, 4 – strongly agree) |
|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|
| Mean Current IEP Student Score | Mean Post-IEP Student Score | t   | df | Sig. | Mean Difference |
| 2                           | 2.75                       | -3.000 | 3   | .058 | -.75000         |

According to the data above, there does appear to be a significant difference between students who current attend IEP who feel comfortable speaking with Americans (M=2, SD=0) and students who graduated from IEP (M=2.75, SD=.5); t(3)=-3, p=.06, although this finding may be more due to statistical chance than a conclusive finding.

The second portion of the study attempted to delve into how immersion and engagement strategies potentially boost the perceived competence of Korean students to speak English conversationally. Using quantitative data, the students responded to statements made by circling four numbers with “1” representing “strongly disagree,” “2” representing “disagree,” “3” representing “agree,” and “4” representing “strongly agree.” In this portion of the study, it was found that students who have graduated from the IEP program and have utilized its immersion and/or engagement strategies in their language study felt more comfortable to speak English to non-native speakers. Table 3 demonstrates the results of the study below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>IEP Student Averages</th>
<th>Post-IEP Student Averages</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Mean Diff.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I feel comfortable speaking English in my IEP classes.</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>-522</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>.620</td>
<td>-.25000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If I feel that I cannot say an English sentence correctly, I would rather not speak.</td>
<td>2.75</td>
<td>2.25</td>
<td>1.414</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>.207</td>
<td>.50000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My classmates make me feel comfortable to speak English.</td>
<td>2.75</td>
<td>3.75</td>
<td>-2.828</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>.030</td>
<td>-1.00000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The data set suggests that out of the three questions to survey confidence levels for Korean students, only the third question in regard to speaking around classmates appeared to be significantly different. Students currently in the IEP program (M=2.75, SD=.5) and students who have graduated from the IEP (M=3.75, SD=.5) displayed greater perceived competence in speaking around classmates in English; t(6)=-2.83, p=0.03.

The evidence suggests that by the time students come out of the IEP program, they are much more willing to engage others in English and social interaction, even if personal confidence levels are unaffected. In fact, when the participants were asked what the hardest aspect of English language learning was to them, none of the post-IEP students answered “speaking” as one of their options.

The third section of the research conducted with the IEP and post-IEP students had to do more directly with the immersion and engagement strategies in and out of the classroom and how they affect the learning of conversational
English. All of the data collected in this portion of the research was quantitative. The table below compares questions asked of the students with a reference to an engagement strategy employed in the classroom. The other question used in the comparison is one that refers to a factor of immersion comparable to the adjacent engagement strategy question. The individual responses were compared using their percentage values of “1” equaling 0% and “4” equaling 100% preference for a particular engagement activity or immersion factor. The results were compared between current IEP students, as in Table 4, and post-IEP students, as in Table 5. The results for current IEP students can be seen in Table 4:

### Table 4: Effectiveness of Engagement Strategies versus Immersion in Current IEP Students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question in regard to Engagement Strategies</th>
<th>Average Score</th>
<th>Question in regard to Immersion</th>
<th>Average Score</th>
<th>Percentage Preference (Positive percentages being a preference towards immersion and negative towards engagement strategies)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. It helps me to learn to speak English the most when I study English from a textbook or lecture in groups.</td>
<td>2.25</td>
<td>1. It helps me to learn to speak English the most when I talk with native English speakers in English.</td>
<td>3.75</td>
<td>49.95%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. It helps me to learn to speak English the most when I participate in group activities in class with other international students.</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2. It helps me to learn to speak English the most when I live with Americans.</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>33.33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. It helps me to learn to speak English the most when I go somewhere outside of school on an organized tour (i.e. museum, IEP student social event).</td>
<td>2.75</td>
<td>3. It helps me to learn to speak English the most when I go somewhere outside of school and interact with native speakers and American culture (i.e. market).</td>
<td>3.75</td>
<td>33.33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Speaking English is easiest when I am inside the classroom during English class.</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>4. Speaking English is easiest when I am outside of class interacting with people outside of the IEP program.</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Listening to recordings of English speakers speaking helps me to speak English better.</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5. Learning English by listening to native speakers speak English helped me feel prepared to speak English.</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>8.33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Learning English by using technology in the classroom has helped me feel prepared to speak English.</td>
<td>2.25</td>
<td>6. Interacting with American culture outside the classroom has allowed me to learn to speak English quickly.</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>33.33%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

One can note that there are no negative percentages indicating that for at least five out of the six questions, immersion factors were chosen as being more effective than engagement strategies. Only question four remained neutral with a percentage of 0%. For five out of six of the questions, current IEP students maintained that immersion fostered greater English conversational competence than engagement strategies. Identical questions were asked of post-IEP students, as seen in Table 5 below:
language or living with American students allowed for the Korean students to experiment with their English proficiency and talking with native speakers over participating in classroom engagement strategies. Consequently, the engagement strategies that were practiced inside the classroom, such as practicing conversation with other international students and going on field trips twice a semester, were ranked lower than a comparable immersion factor when asked if it helped the students to learn English conversationally.

Throughout the data collection phase of the research, the Korean students noted that interaction with native English speakers whether in the classroom or outside the classroom helped to improve their ability to speak English conversationally over traditional engagement strategies utilized in the classroom. Worth noting, however, is question four which, while addressing engagement strategies and immersion, dealt with the ease of learning English conversationally. Although the students marked immersion as a more effective manner of language acquisition, they found it to be no easier a manner as were engagement strategies. However, the data suggests that students currently in the IEP program prefer living with Americans over participating in group work in class by 33.3%. Similarly, post-IEP students shared the same sentiment also by 33.3%. In five out of six questions for both the current and post-IEP students, the data suggests that students currently in the IEP program was effective at learning conversational English, the Korean participants noted that it allowed for a clear preference for immersion factors over engagement strategies. The one question in both groups that did not indicate a preference remained neutral because the difference between the two averages was nonexistent.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question in regard to Engagement Strategies</th>
<th>Average Score</th>
<th>Question in regard to Immersion</th>
<th>Average Score</th>
<th>Percentage Preference (Positive percentages being a preference towards immersion and negative towards engagement strategies)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. It helps me to learn to speak English the most when I study English from a textbook or lecture in groups.</td>
<td>2.25</td>
<td>1. It helps me to learn to speak English the most when I talk with native English speakers in English.</td>
<td>3.75</td>
<td>49.95%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. It helps me to learn to speak English the most when I participate in group activities in class with other international students.</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2. It helps me to learn to speak English the most when I live with Americans.</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>33.33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. It helps me to learn to speak English the most when I go somewhere outside of school on an organized tour (i.e. museum, IEP student social event).</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>3. It helps me to learn to speak English the most when I go somewhere outside of school and interact with native speakers and American culture (i.e. market).</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>49.95%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Speaking English is easiest when I am inside the classroom during English class.</td>
<td>2.25</td>
<td>4. Speaking English is easiest when I am outside of class interacting with people outside of the IEP program.</td>
<td>2.75</td>
<td>16.65%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Listening to recordings of English speakers speaking helps me to speak English better.</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5. Learning English by listening to native speakers speak English helped me feel prepared to speak English.</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Learning English by using technology in the classroom has helped me feel prepared to speak English.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6. Interacting with American culture outside the classroom has allowed me to learn to speak English quickly.</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>41.63%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The data displayed in Table 5 suggests that, as with the current IEP students, post-IEP students found immersion to be superior to engagement strategies in becoming competent in conversational English. Again, there were no negative percentages, indicating a preference towards immersion factors over engagement strategies with one question remaining neutral.

Noteworthy is the numerical difference between how the Korean students viewed the effectiveness of engagement strategies and immersion in the IEP program. When asked about different types of engagement strategies and immersion, the students consistently marked immersion as a more effective method of learning conversational English. The reason, as revealed through interviews, was that these preplanned IEP trips, although being an engagement strategy, did not challenge the students to move outside of their comfort zone to interact with native speakers. This is in contrast to trips to the market to buy food where a Korean student is forced out of necessity to speak with native speakers. During the interview, it was also revealed that during class or field trips, students were often afraid to genuinely interact and thus retreat to familiar ethnic lines. All of the students currently attending IEP stated this as being a factor.

Out of the questions given to the students in the IEP and outside the IEP, speaking to and living with native English speakers appeared to be the most helpful immersion activity for Korean students to learn to speak English. All eight Korean students answered “strongly agree” to immersion question number two. Both sets of students preferred living and talking with native speakers over participating in classroom engagement strategies. Consequently, the engagement strategies that were practiced inside the classroom, such as practicing conversation with other international students and going on field trips twice a semester, were ranked lower than a comparable immersion factor when asked if it helped students to learn English conversationally.

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skills out of necessity. The Korean students made it clear that living with foreigners forced them to communicate in English at least on a basic level and, therefore, allowed them to progress in their ability to communicate on a conversational level. Eight out of eight of the students noted living and interacting with foreigners as the best way that they learn or learned to speak English. This would suggest that natural immersion with foreigners on a daily basis allows the students to practice what they have learned in their English courses at their university IEP program. This surpasses the effectiveness of engagement strategies used inside of the classroom such as practicing predetermined conversations or going on field trips, an activity that could open up the possibility for Koreans and other international students to disengage from their surroundings and retreat to comfort zones. This is not to say, however, that immersion by itself would be effective without quality instruction within the IEP program. The immersion allows for students to utilize the knowledge being gained through strategies and instruction from the IEP program.

Indeed, the data suggests that the Korean students found the immersion that they have experienced as a part of the IEP program not only to be more effective for their conversational English acquisition, but also to boost their efficacy at production. In immersion contexts, the students perceived there to be some positive correlation between immersion and improved efficacy for conversational English.

VI. DISCUSSION

Although the students who took part in the research generally had a good understanding of the English language as an academic subject, the students, especially those currently in the IEP program, felt that their communicative competence was lacking. This is in line with the findings of Choi (2008) and Ostermiller (2014). Furthermore, it would seem that the educational system of Korea is not preparing Korean students well to use English outside of reading and writing, an element of negative washback previously discussed (Kim, 2006; Whitehead, 2016). The evidence does suggest, however, that the element that is most benefiting Korean students in this particular American IEP program is the immersion that they experience and not so much the engaged instruction that they receive in the classroom or through the curriculum.

When regarding the data, it remains evident that the Korean students preferred immersion over engagement strategies. In order to better reach out to Korean students in IEP programs or even those still studying in Korea, it is vital to consider what strategies best persuade students to take on English not just as an academic subject but rather as a communicative tool that furthers the life goals and plans of said students. The evidence suggests that immersion remains an effective tool to utilize in this manner. Perhaps the use of technology in the classroom to link students of different classrooms around the world can aid Korean students studying in Korea who, in reality, have very little ability to experience immersion in the same manner that Korans studying abroad do. As noted by Lo and Murphy (2010), this will also allow students to achieve higher scores on exams, something that remains valuable in the minds of Koreans under the Korean educational system (Whitehead, 2016).

Additionally, the Korean participants noted that partaking in the weekly Conversation Partners program, where Americans come every Friday to the IEP program and spend an hour talking about any subject with international students, helped them to utilize their English-speaking skills. The evidence suggests that this form of instruction, being a task-based strategy championed by Ostermiller (2014) in his research, is producing fruit. This also supports the findings of other researchers (Benson, 2016; Guchte, Braaksma, Rijlaarsdam, & Bimmel, 2016; Nerpravishta & Roseni, 2014; Poupopore, 2013). In order to aid Korean students in the development of their English conversation skills, it would seem that implementing more strategies such as these would help bring immersion into the classroom.

However, the research suggests that even good engagement strategies for Koreans, such as those laid about by Lim (2012) as being group work and technology usage, seem to have limited effect when compared to immersion factors. As Ostermiller (2014) stated, a task-based approach could remain a viable alternative in cases abroad where immersion is not an option. The research showed that students perceived authentic interactions outside the classroom using English to be most effective in developing conversation. Could task-based instruction, therefore, be utilized to enhance instruction to somehow mimic the factors of immersion that make IEP programs successful?

In order to maximize the effect that IEP programs can have on incoming international students and specifically Koreans, programs need to further expand opportunities for authentic immersion in American society. Such activities that allow for students to move outside of their comfort groups and intermingle with Americans is supported by the data to appear to be helpful in conversational language growth. Additionally, students must be allowed to move outside comfort zones during such experiences for these immersion strategies to fully take effect, as supported by the research of Jackson (2004). Practices, such as excluding international students to international housing with members of the same nationality, would, based on the findings, be unhelpful to conversational language development.

By placing students in situations where immersion remains a primary vehicle for language growth, Korean students tend to be more motivated to try to use English, if not internally motivated, then externally motivated by the situation around them. Peng’s (2006) suggestion that motivation remains an important factor in raising a student’s L2 competency is supported by the data collected in the research. Students may not have found it any easier to study English in immersion settings, as the research did not explore the ease of study, but students most certainly had a motivation for using English in immersive settings and found that it increased their efficacy to do so. Additionally, researchers such as Choi (2008) and Gu and Reynolds (2013) have raised concerns in their research that there remains a
significant gap between comprehension and production amongst Korean EFL students. The data suggests that immersion can theoretically help to close this gap by not only helping students to further understand the English language but to produce it out of necessity.

However, this research found that although immersion can help the perceived improvement of English conversationally with Korean EFL students, time spent in immersive IEP programs does not boost their confidence levels significantly. This is perhaps due to the concept of ongoing language development and one’s never-ending quest of language mastery. The Korean students that participated in this research noted that they still had some anxiety about speaking with native speakers, even though they could sense improvement in their ability to speak through the immersive factors of the program.

The data shows that although engagement strategies within in the classroom do tend to help in the learning process for speaking English, they are not perceived to be the most helpful by Korean students. In light of the data collected throughout the surveys and the interviews, it can be theorized that interaction with native speakers significantly aids in the development of conversational English. For the participants in this study, immersion surpasses engagement strategies amongst Korean students in its ability to increase the effectiveness of English conversation competence. The data also showed that confidence to speak English also increased.

VII. CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

After extensive study of Korean learning habits in regard to conversational English, it can be theorized that English in an IEP setting is best learned through immersion outside the classroom. However, even inside the classroom, evidence suggests that interaction with native speakers is beneficial. Korean students who have graduated from the IEP program have, through the evidence that was gained through the quantitative data, improved in many areas of speaking English. However, more can be done. Based on this research, the IEP program at this university should expand the Conversation Partners program to include American students going on the IEP field trips as well. This will allow for the students to break out of the cultural and ethnic boundaries that prevent them from using English on a regular basis on these frequent field trips. Furthermore, the IEP program should instigate more in-class interaction with native speakers to include more immersion in the classroom rather than just having it exist outside the classroom. These additional steps will help to strengthen and develop a deeper competency for conversational English among Korean students.

The research conducted does raise the need for additional research. One question that arose from the results of this study concerns the actual effectiveness of incorporating native speakers, other than the teacher, into the classroom. How much do the native English speakers really affect the students and their learning within a classroom context? This study focused more on the Korean students’ perception of effectiveness. It did not, however, observe real-time classroom instruction or data from school grading systems. More research needs to be done to fully understand how this specific strategy can positively affect the conversational English competence in Koreans towards real-time academic success.

In conclusion, the results from the research implied the benefits of immersion towards developing English conversational competence in Korean EFL students. Although engagement strategies can be powerful, especially if they are contextually appropriate, immersion remains the most effective way to learn English conversationally based on the data. Academic English, however, remains another matter entirely. Whether immersion has any effect over academic English would need to be answered in further research. However, in light of the findings from this research, it would seem appropriate for instructors and schools to import elements of immersion in English in whatever ways they can to better cultivate English learning in the classroom and outside, as well. Technology opens up a wide variety of options for instructors to choose from that could be used to connect and immerse students in English, even if those classrooms are located in a non-English speaking country. Even if immersion may be difficult to incorporate in the classroom, this research suggests that even immersion in tiny amounts can be constructive to a student’s English conversational development and perceived increase in competence to utilize English.

REFERENCES


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Prof. Jones is a member of KOTESOL, where he actively lectures on engagement strategies for Korean students. He is also involved in lecturing all around Korea at conferences and sessions focused on preparing ESL teachers to actively engage Korean students in a culturally sensitive manner.
Semantic-related Word Root Sets: To Work, or Not to Work

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Abstract—The study investigates whether semantic-related word root sets, such as -graph- & -scrib-, meaning to write, assist learning and analysis of morphological complex academic words in the EFL middle high setting. Two intact classes of 88 EFL learners (L1: Mandarin) were treated with two varied word lists grouped under semantic-related word root sets vs. alphabetical-ordered ones individually. Learning gains were measured on two levels of sensitivity, including two form recognition tests (target words and new words) and one form recall test. Although the effect of semantic-related word root sets seems negative on the form recall test, semantic-related word root sets may assist learners with the form recognition of new words. The study provides specific information to researchers, education practitioners and publishers fascinated with form-focused morphological awareness vocabulary instruction.

Index Terms—semantic sets, morphological awareness, morphological analysis, English word roots

I. INTRODUCTION

Presenting vocabulary based on the interrelated semantic networks of associations in the mental lexicon is under considerable debate due to the interference and competition that might occur in the learning process (e.g., Gairns & Redman, 1986; Laufer, 1990) while using instruction on morpheme analysis to assist learners to reflect on and manipulate morphological structure of complex words has proven to be one of the most efficient ways of vocabulary learning (e.g., Hashemi & Aziznezhad, 2011; McCutchen & Logan, 2011; Nagy & Anderson, 1984; Scott & Nagy, 1997; Zhang & Koda, 2012). The inquiry comes up as to whether presenting morphological complex academic words using semantic word root sets such as -graph- & -scrib-, meaning to write can assist the learning and analysis of morphological complex academic words. In particular, the focus is on EFL learners’ initial instruction on analyses of morphemes.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Lexicon Development

The process that children develop L1 word meanings differs greatly from that of adults acquiring L2 word meanings (Aitchison, 1994; Bousfield, 1953). A child acquires an L1 word meaning through cognitive mature biologically, undergoing three stages: labeling, packaging and network building (Aitchison, 1994, pp. 170-180). Through these stages, children associate a word form with a particular real world object or event, look for clusters of properties under a word, and then fit the word into an interrelated network of associations comprising numerous nodes and links. Each node represents a lexical item with a set of lexical information to distinguish it from or associate it with other nodes around a number of meaning areas. The size of the networks increases as a number of nodes are linked in meaningful ways (Gairns & Redman, 1986; Ma, 2009; Stevick, 1976).

Yet, the way adults/ESL/EFL acquire a L2 word meaning is a reconstruction process of their L1 conceptual system through three tasks, including “lexical association”, “L1 lemma mediation stage”, and “the integration stage”, where a L2 word form is connected with an existing meaning in the mind, normally a L1 translation, then registered in the lexical entry through sufficient retrievals, and finally integrated all the lemma and the lexeme information into the lexical entry for retrieving automatically (Jiang, 2000, pp. 51-53). Apparently, the whole process is no easy task and suggests a long time and great effort when acquiring a new language.

B. Semantic Sets

Based on the processes of lexicon development mentioned above, our L1 mental lexicon is highly organized and efficient (Gairns & Redman, 1986). The organized nature of vocabulary in the mind seems to allow language learners to facilitate and speed up the learning process by grouping and presenting vocabulary in semantic sets and clusters (Gairns & Redman, 1986; Laufer, 1990; Rumelhart, 1984; Seal, 1991). However, for L2 and ESL/EFL learners, presenting semantic-related words may take a risk of confusing learners with the similarity among words, especially at the initial stage of word learning in formal educational settings, where authentic L2 exposure is limited, let alone the building of the interrelated lexical networks for new L2 lexical items to attach and retrieve autonomously (Al-Jabri, 2005).

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Hence, the effectiveness of semantic sets and associations on vocabulary acquisition is under consistent debate. Several theories were in justification of facilitating vocabulary acquisition using semantic sets, including Field theory (Lehrer, 1974), further divided into 12 types of semantic relations such as topics, activities, similar meaning, and word families (Gairns & Redman, 1986), the semantic fields, also known as lexical sets (Stevick, 1976), schema theory (Rumelhart, 1984), and clustering model (Solso, 1998). These theories explain the process of how new words are best learned through their associations with known words due to the human nature that tends to add and adjust new information to the existing interrelated network of associations, known as conceptual fields and schemata.

In sharp contrast, the Interference Theory (McGeoch, 1942), explaining why people remember or forget information, contended that presenting vocabulary items grouped in semantic clusters may create two-way competition among words within the same category, called retroactive interference and proactive interference. Retroactive interference occurs when newly-learned information inhibits previously-learned information, while proactive interference appears when previously-learned information disrupts the learning or the recall of subsequent information. In like manner, the Distinctiveness Hypothesis (Waring, 1997) proposed that unique and distinct information is easier to remember or retrieve than non-distinct one. Moreover, a number of recent experimental research have also suggested the negative effect on presenting and learning words semantically grouped, especially in the initial stage of word learning (e.g., Bolger & Zapata, 2011; Erten & Tekin, 2008; Finkbeiner & Nicol, 2003; Higa, 1963; Khoi & Shariffiar, 2013; Nation, 1990, 2000 & 2001).

Consequently, the study assumes that, based on previous year-long English learning experience, largely starting from age 9 or even younger, Taiwanese middle high school EFLs may have built the interrelated lexicon networks of English language in the mind, where a number of words are linked in meaningful ways. Thus, presenting morphological complex academic English words organized under semantic-related word root sets may help anchor those words to the existing organized mental lexicon, where words can be memorized and retrieved with more ease and efficiency. However, it is also likely that the similarity among those morphological complex academic words, carrying semantic-related word root sets, would cause competition and interference and confuse the majority of the EFLs.

Additionally, concerning the competition and interference among words, the present study, expanding current two ways of interference, known as proactive and retroactive interferences (McGeoch, 1942), suggested a new type of interference called coactive interference by the researcher herself to emphasize and explain the type of interference that occurs when all newly-learned words competes and interferes simultaneously with one another to cause competition and confusion, leading to a detrimental effect on the learners’ ways of absorbing and retaining new words.

C. Lexical Inferencing Ability and Morphological Awareness Instruction

The term lexical inferencing refers to the use both morphological and contextual clues available in words to unlock and infer the meaning of unknown words (Haasstrup, 1991; Wysocki & Jenkins, 1987; Zhang & Koda, 2012). Morphological clues focus on analyzing the parts of the target word such as roots and affixes to derive the meanings of unknown words, while contextual clues refer to guess the meaning of unknown words according to its surrounding co-text (Haasstrup, 1991; Wysocki & Jenkins, 1987). According to Eskey (1988), using morphological clues by analyzing roots and affixes to derive the meanings of unknown words can better provide learners of varied English proficiency with a certain degree of help, especially less proficient ones, while context clues may be of help for more skillful readers who have become automatic at word decoding.

Studies on monolingual native speakers in late elementary and middle school grades have suggested morpheme analysis instruction as a useful and systematic way to expand learners’ vocabulary size for school success (e.g., Anglin et al., 1993; Hashemi & Aziznezhad, 2011; McCutchen & Logan, 2011; Nagy & Anderson, 1984; Zhang & Koda, 2012). A number of morphological awareness instruction have been developed considering learners’ need, and the instructional potential (e.g., frequency, appropriateness and utility) for native English learners to cope with the increasing load of new words in the school curriculum (Blachowicz et al., 2006; Helman, 2009; Nagy & Anderson, 1984; Nation & Webb, 2011; Rasinski et al., 2007), since around 60% of novel words they encounter carry transparent structures of familiar morphemes that allow them to make reasonable guesses for the word meaning. A more recent study (McCutchen & Logan, 2011), examining 162 native English children’s lexical inferencing ability using a cross-sectional design, including two grade levels (grades five and eight) and two reading skill levels (more and less skilled), suggested that morphological awareness not only directly contribute to older learners’ vocabulary growth but also indirectly support their reading comprehension. Although such contributions are not clear for younger learners, the learning of morphological constituents for lexical inference in the regular classroom to contribute to the automatic analyses of morphological structure for future vocabulary learning was highly recommended.

In the EFL context, specific factors that may affect learners’ ability to recognize English morphemes, such as learners’ native language, L2 language proficiency level, and cognitive maturity, have been examined (Hancin-Bhatt & Nagy, 1994; Jiménez et al., 1996; Nagy et al., 1993; Zhang & Koda, 2013). More recently, some positive relations were found between morphological awareness training and learners’ lexical inferencing ability. Zhang and Koda (2012) suggest a better word-root identification and lexical meaning inferencing ability through advanced learners’ insights into morphological structure. Another study (Prior et al., 2014) also finds basic word decoding skills as the predictor of learners’ ability at inferring the meaning of novel words embedded in text.

With the mindset to explore more of the potential of semantic sets in assisting the learning and analysis of
morphological complex words in the EFL middle high setting, the research question was generated as follows: *Does the use of semantic-related word root sets create statistically significant differences comparing with that of alphabetic-ordered word root sets among EFL middle high school learners in varied morphological awareness related vocabulary learning tasks?*

III. Method

A. Design and Participants

The present research is a quasi-experimental study. The experimental variable is specifically designed instructional materials assigned to two treatment groups. The dependent variables are three criterion tests, including the word root knowledge test, the word spelling test, and the lexical inferencing ability test.

Two intact classes of 88 Chinese-speaking eleventh graders from a typical vocational high school in southern Taiwan participated in the experiment for one semester. One of the classes employed the instructional material organized in alphabetical-ordered word-root sets (AG) (N = 39) while the other used the one grouped in semantically-related word-root sets (SG) (N = 49). The design of randomly selecting participants from a typical school allows the induction of the findings. Threats to validity due to the lack of random assignment were reduced by administering SPSS to adjust the results of the criterion measures showing non-significant statistic differences in the dependent variable of interest (Shadish et al., 2002). All participants are with a range of relevant factors, including age, gender, major (International Trade), background knowledge, English proficiency, and motivation of English learning for pursuing higher education.

The content of the concepts taught to both of the treatment groups was also the same since they all involve in the same English course hours, use the same English text edition and are instructed by the same instructor, the researcher herself.

B. Instruments

Two types of instruments are utilized in the present study: The instructional materials and three criterion tests, including the word-root knowledge test, the word spelling test, and the lexical inferencing ability test.

The instructional materials

When it comes to the teaching of semantic sets, the most difficult part of the instruction is developing the semantic sets of word list (Marzano & Marzano, 1988; Rasinski et al., 2007). In the present study, two word lists were constructed as the instructional materials employed to set learning goals and guide the design of all the tests to evaluate the effect of two types of inputs – the target academic words organized under both semantically-related and alphabetically-ordered word-root sets (Appendix). Both of the inputs included exactly the same content and number of words. The only difference was the way of grouping the words. All the target words selected were under strict verification to ensure the etymology of words by consulting several etymology dictionaries (Ayto, 1990; Harper, 2001; Shipley, 1969) and numerous resources.

Although several previous studies (Bolger & Zapata, 2011; Finkbeiner & Nicol, 2003; Tinkham, 1993, 1997; Waring, 1997) suggested non-existent words to rigorously control over the meaningfulness of the word forms to increase the internal validity, it is, as Helman (2009) mentioned, difficult to generalize the findings to real languages since non-existent words differ from those in natural languages. Furthermore, according to Nation and Webb (2011), the higher frequency the words are, the better chance the words will be met with, and the time involved in learning high-frequency words will get better repaid. For Taiwanese middle high EFLs, who learn English mostly for the preparation for the college entrance exam, the words to be learned in the present study were built by counting the frequency of various words appearing in English subject in the Joint Technological College Entrance Exam (JTCEE) (2002-2012), which is the most crucial exam that every vocational high student in Taiwan must take to apply for higher education.

The three criterion tests

1. The word root knowledge test (RT)

In the present study, the word root knowledge test (Cronbach’s alpha = .848) was served as the pretest and the immediate posttest, conducted in the week before and right after the treatments to determine what had been gained from the treatments. The format of the test is a researcher-designed multiple-choice test consisting of 24 items with five options each. The design was based on previous studies, suggesting that the decontextualized receptive test may be better to test the students who have not yet had much exposure to the new language (Kirby et al., 2012; Read, 2004; Schmitt, 1994). The total number of the items tested was decided based on the total number of the target word roots in the instructional materials. Each tested item was composed of a single target word without context, simply requiring testees to choose the most appropriate Chinese definition from the five options and write down the word root of the target word tested. Moreover, Chinese test instructions were used to minimize the potential confound of students’ decoding ability on their performance (Nation & Webb, 2011). Additionally, the 24 items in the word root knowledge test were arranged according to their level of difficulty to assist the testees to complete the test with more confidence. Furthermore, the five options were designed in a quasi-random order, with the equal frequency of the correct answer in the first four positions over the whole test, and a “I don’t know the answer” option always appeared in the fifth option to discourage a wild guess. Lastly, to avoid giving clues to the right answer, the Chinese definitions for both the correct answer and distracters were all selected from the word list.

The reliability of the test was established by inviting 42 twelfth graders from an intact class to review and complete
the questions. The results were then calculated item by item. Accordingly, all 24 selected items were vetted and judged as being appropriate and effective to be included in the test. Finally, several follow-up interviews were done for minor modification of the test.

2. The word spelling test (ST)

Each week, by the end of the treatments, both groups of participants studying their word lists were tested with 12 productive word spelling tests exactly following the instructional material, included 10 target words per unit. The test was administered along the training process during the normal class hours in the regular classroom.

In each test, the teacher, firstly, provides the Chinese definition of the 10 target words taught in the previous unit one by one randomly and asks the participants to spell the whole words, and then underline the target word root within each word spelt. The estimated time for each test is around 5-8 minutes at the very first beginning of the very first course hour. The number of the target words being correctly spelt and the target word roots being correctly underlined were scored independently to provide detailed information in explicating the learning outcomes.

3. The lexical inferencing ability test (LT)

In the study, the primary concern of the lexical inferencing ability is on how learners use morphological clues to refer the meaning of unknown words. The participants’ lexical inferencing ability was examined by asking them to break a novel word down into its root and affixes, analyze the novel word for word root and affixes recognized, and finally infer the meaning of the novel word based on the word root and affixes recognized (Haastrup, 1991; Wysocki & Jenkins, 1987).

The reliability of the novel word test was built by consulting several dictionaries of the word origin and three veteran teachers, who major in English learning and teaching, to control over the meaningfulness of the word forms to make sure that the participants would have the least knowledge about the novel words selected. Then 68 twelfth graders from two intact classes were invited to review the novel words selected. Each reviewer was asked to write down the Chinese definition for each novel word. The results were then calculated word by word (Cronbach’s alpha = .124).

Each week, the participants were tested with 12 lexical inferencing ability tests, involving two novel multimorpheme complex words in each test. Totally 24 multimorpheme complex novel words were included in the test. The test was administered right after the word spelling test (ST) mentioned above. The estimated time for this test is around 2 minutes. In each test, the teacher provides two multimorpheme complex novel words, carrying the weekly target word roots taught in the previous unit, and then asks the participants to underline the target word root within each novel word and write down the Chinese definition of the two novel words tested. For the scores of the test, the target word roots being correctly underlined and the meaning of the novel words being correctly inferred were scored independently.

C. Treatments

After the researcher got permission from the participants and their guardians, the treatments for both groups were incorporated into the normal English class practice with a fixed format: Introduction to the weekly set of the two target word roots, explicit morphemic analysis of the 10 target words chosen, the spelling test of the target words taught in the previous unit, and the lexical inferencing ability test for 2 unknown words, carrying the target word roots taught in the previous unit. Nevertheless, the participants were not informed that it was a part of an experiment but simply a regular classroom activity for vocabulary learning to reduce the “Hawthorne effect” (Landsberger, 1955), according to which learners may vary their behavior after noticing they are part of an experiment.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. Descriptive Statistics

Name of all tests used in this study, their full scores, means, and standard deviations in the proportion of correct response of items are presented in Table 4.1. In viewing descriptive statistics of the test battery, the average mean score of word root knowledge test (RT) increases drastically in the immediate posttest (IPT) and the target word root identification (IPT/RI) for both groups. In IPT, M of SG raised from 6.55 to 15.65 and M of AG from 8.36 to 18.85. In IPT/RI, M of SG raised from 0.4 to 17.88 and M of AG raised from 0.31 to 21.18. The data indicate the benefit of direct explicit instruction to morphological awareness and academic vocabulary learning in EFL high school setting. The results comply with a good deal of previous L1 and EFL/ESL research, suggesting that appropriate regular morphological awareness instruction may foster morphological consciousness for learners of various English proficiency levels (Blachowicz & Fisher, 2000; Carlisle, 2010; Flanigan et al., 2012; Jeon, 2011; Hashemi & Aziznezhad, 2011; Kieffer & Box, 2013; Kieffer & Lesaux, 2010; Newton & Newton, 2005; Stahl, 1999; Zhang & Koda, 2013).

However, the participants’ performance on inferring the correct meaning of the novel words (LT/WM) is far behind satisfactory, with a mean of .55 (SG) and .64 (AG) out of 24. Clearly, the data indicate that lexical inferencing for the meaning of novel words requires more complex actions than the conscious awareness of the morphemic structure of words (Baddeley, 1986; Carlisle, 1995; Clarke & Nation, 1980; Ku & Anderson, 2003).
B. The Research Question

Does the use of semantic-related word root sets create statistically significant differences comparing with that of alphabetic-ordered word root sets among EFL middle high learners in varied morphological awareness related vocabulary learning tasks?

Regarding the research question, first of all, the overall performance of SG and AG of varied treatments in the word root knowledge test is examined. Table 4.2 shows that the adjusted mean score of AG is higher than that of SG in both word root knowledge immediate posttest (IPT) (18.058 > 16.281) and the target word root identification (IPT/RI) (20.510 > 18.411). The adjusted means made by SG and AG are further analyzed by repeated measure analysis to determine which group has reached the threshold of statistical significance (Table 4.3).

### Table 4.1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Test Name</th>
<th>RT (PT)</th>
<th>RT (PT/RI)</th>
<th>RT (IPT)</th>
<th>RT (IPT/RI)</th>
<th>ST (RI)</th>
<th>ST (WS)</th>
<th>LT (RI)</th>
<th>LT (WM)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Full Score</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SG</td>
<td>6.55</td>
<td>.4</td>
<td>15.65</td>
<td>17.88</td>
<td>92.33</td>
<td>83.00</td>
<td>15.53</td>
<td>.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AG</td>
<td>(3.398)</td>
<td>(0.200)</td>
<td>(4.136)</td>
<td>(4.772)</td>
<td>(19.986)</td>
<td>(21.278)</td>
<td>(5.709)</td>
<td>(.792)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total SD</td>
<td>8.36</td>
<td>.31</td>
<td>18.85</td>
<td>21.18</td>
<td>103.90</td>
<td>99.31</td>
<td>12.49</td>
<td>.64</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note:
RT (PT) = the word root knowledge pretest
RT (PT/RI) = the word root knowledge pretest for the target word root identification
RT (IPT) = the word root knowledge immediate posttest
RT (IPT/RI) = the word root knowledge immediate posttest for the target word root identification
ST (RI) = the word spelling test for the target word root identification
ST (WS) = the word spelling test for the target word spelling
LT (RI) = the lexical inferencing ability test for the word root identification of the novel words
LT (WM) = the lexical inferencing ability test for the meaning of the novel words

### Table 4.2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Deviation</th>
<th>Adjusted Mean</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>RT(IPT)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SG</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>15.65</td>
<td>4.136</td>
<td>16.281</td>
<td>.528</td>
<td>[19.231,17.330]</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RT(IPT/RI)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SG</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>17.88</td>
<td>4.777</td>
<td>18.411</td>
<td>.620</td>
<td>[17.178,19.644]</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: the total score of RT (PT) = 7.35.

**Note:**
RT (PT) = the word root knowledge immediate posttest
RT (PT/RI) = the word root knowledge immediate posttest for the target word root identification

### Table 4.3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>p</th>
<th>η²</th>
<th>Post Hoc Comparison</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>RT(IPT) (ANCOVA)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RT(PT)</td>
<td>539.260</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>539.260</td>
<td>40.892***</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.325</td>
<td>AG &gt; SG</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>1120.919</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>13.187</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>27518.000</td>
<td>86</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RT(IPT/RI) (ANCOVA)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RT(PT/RI)</td>
<td>207.742</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>207.742</td>
<td>11.762**</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.122</td>
<td>AG &gt; SG</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group</td>
<td>83.112</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>83.112</td>
<td>4.706*</td>
<td>.033</td>
<td>.052</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>1501.267</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>17.662</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>34864.000</td>
<td>86</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

n.s. p > .05  *p < .05  **p < .01  ***p < .001

**Note:**
RT (PT) = the word root knowledge pretest
RT (PT/RI) = the word root knowledge immediate posttest
RT (PT/RI) = the word root knowledge immediate posttest for the target word root identification

The data in Table 4.3 suggest that after varied treatments, the AG participants score higher than SG participants in the word root knowledge immediate posttest and the target word root identification (F = 4.812, p = .031 < .05, η² = .054 and F = 4.706, p = .033 < .05, η² = .052, respectively). The data indicate that presenting a list of morphological complex academic words categorized under semantic-related word root sets may impede rather than facilitate word root and morphological complex academic word learning. In other words, the performances of SG and AG reported by repeated measure analysis suggest that grouping and presenting morphological complex academic words carrying word root sets with synonyms and similar meaning may lead to a detrimental effect on learning.

The outcomes contradict the organized nature of the mental lexicon, Semantic Field Theory, Schema Theory and...
**Clustering Model**, suggesting that words in the mind are highly organized and efficient with interrelated networks of lexical nodes, where semantically related items are stored and recalled together. Thus, grouping vocabulary in semantic sets allows language learners and users to facilitate learning process with the help of the highly organized mental lexicon (Brown & Perry, 1991; Channell, 1981; Craik & Lockhart, 1972; Freedman & Loftus, 1971; Gairns & Redman, 1986; Laufer, 1990; Lehrer, 1974; Levelt, 1993; Lyons, 1977; Ma, 2009; Miller & Fellbaum, 1991; Nattinger, 1988; Rumelhart, 1984; Schmitt, 2000; Seal, 1991; Solso, 1998; Stevick, 1976; Tulving, 1962). Nevertheless, the results echo the **Interference Theory**, the **Distinctiveness Hypothesis** and a growing body of latest research, contending that when it comes to the presentation of new words, it seems unwise and ineffective to present a set of new words semantically related, since the learners need to simultaneously learn and avoid the interference caused by the similarity among those items (Bolger & Zapata, 2011; Erten & Tekin, 2008; Finkbeiner & Nicol, 2003; Henning, 1973; Higa, 1963; Khoii & Sharififar, 2013; McGeoch, 1942; Nation, 1990, 2000 & 2001; Tinkham, 1993; Waring, 1997).

The possible explanations might be, first of all, learning the word list grouped under semantically-related word root sets may require the participants with more attention and engagement and, thus, increase the burden in the mnemonic process, especially in the initial stage of word learning (Bolger & Zapata, 2011; Erten & Tekin, 2008; Finkbeiner & Nicol, 2003; Higa, 1963; Nation, 1990, 2000, 2001; Tinkham, 1993, 1997; Waring, 1997). Moreover, according to Khoii and Sharififar (2013) and Tyler et al. (1979), learners who devoted more to the learning material would lead to better learning outcomes. In the present study, the participants’ performance in the word spelling test (ST) provides deeper insights into the participants’ engagement in the instructional material (Table 4.4), since ST is a productive test that conducts along the treatments to require the participants to not only underline the target word roots but spell the whole target words accurately which, according to Schmitt (1994), demands more control over the language.

### Table 4.4

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>p</th>
<th>$\omega^2$</th>
<th>Observed Power</th>
<th>Post Hoc Comparison</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ST (RI) (ANOVA)</td>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>2907.453</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2907.453</td>
<td>7.310**</td>
<td>.008</td>
<td>.068</td>
<td>.726</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>34204.365</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>397.725</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>37111.818</td>
<td>87</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ST (WS) (ANOVA)</td>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>5775.147</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5775.147</td>
<td>12.690**</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.118</td>
<td>.941</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>39138.308</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>455.097</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>44913.455</td>
<td>87</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LT (RI) (ANOVA)</td>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>201.143</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>201.143</td>
<td>4.029*</td>
<td>.048</td>
<td>.034</td>
<td>.510</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>4293.948</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>49.930</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>4495.091</td>
<td>87</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LT (WM) (ANOVA)</td>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>.176</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.176</td>
<td>.225 n.s.</td>
<td>.636</td>
<td>.009</td>
<td>.076</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>67.097</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>.780</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>67.273</td>
<td>87</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* n.s. $p > .05$  *p < .05  **p < .01  ***p < .001

**Note:**
- ST (RI) = the word spelling test for the target word root identification
- ST (WS) = the word spelling test for the target word spelling
- LT (RI) = the lexical inferencing ability test for the word root identification of the novel words
- LT (WM) = the lexical inferencing ability test for the meaning of the novel words

Based on the data in Table 4.4, the AG participants score significantly higher than the SG participants in both ST (RI) ($F = 7.310, p = .008 < .01$) and ST (WS) ($F = 12.690, p = .001 < .01$), which indicates that the AG participants devoted more to the learning of the instructional material than the SG participants did and thus yielded better learning results. In addition, according to Laufer and Shmueli (1997), learners who work hard also tend to employ various mnemonic techniques on their own to reinforce their learning process when facing memorization tasks, which may also contribute to better learning outcomes.

Interestingly, however, the result in the lexical inferencing ability test for the word root identification of the novel words (LT/RI) overturns the results of all the other criterion tests in the study, showing that the SG participants outperformed the AG participants ($F = 4.029, p = .048 < .05$) (Table 4.4). It suggests that grouping and presenting morphological complex academic words with semantic-related word root sets can help middle/high EFLs be more consciously aware of the morphemic structure of words and better identify the word roots within novel words.

### V. Conclusions

Although the data suggest negative effects on semantic-related word root sets for morphological related vocabulary
learning tasks in the present study, positive statistical results for explicit morphological awareness instruction were found among middle high EFL learners in word root awareness and morphological complex academic vocabulary learning. Moreover, it is worth mentioning that grouping and presenting morphological complex academic words with semantic-related word root sets helps middle high EFLs better identify the target word roots within novel words. Furthermore, the study expands two-way interference (McGeoch, 1942), known as retroactive and proactive interferences, by proposing a new type of interference, named coactive interference, to refer to the type of interference that occurs when all newly-learned information competes and interferes simultaneously with one another, leading to detrimental effects on the learning process. Additionally, the study provides deeper insights into the degree of learners’ active involvement in the learning process by collecting the data of the participants’ weekly performance to get detailed information in explicating the results.

VI. IMPLICATIONS AND LIMITATIONS

As the first of its kind, the current study opens a new area for researchers who show interest in the inquiry into morphological awareness instruction and semantic associates for vocabulary development. The present study would call for EFL teachers around the world to start with a list of carefully selected words of high frequency carrying grade-level appropriate word roots as a useful strategy for learners’ vocabulary development. Introducing and analyzing core word roots intentionally and consistently as part of regular classroom instruction may assist language learners in figuring out how words in English were formed and how the meaning of those words can be connected and raise their interest in word learning. Furthermore, the results advise that participants’ active involvement would greatly affect the learning results and deserve a primary consideration. Additionally, the findings provide information for textbook compilers and publishers regarding morphological analysis and vocabulary development. Still, some issues that are not yet dealt with in the study might warrant further inquiry.

First of all, a larger sample size would be desirable to get unbiased estimates of parameters for future research. Second, EFL young adults with varied English proficiency levels and across age groups could be recognized as a gap for further studies. Third, the study used English word root sets, carrying synonyms (Higa, 1963) and similar meaning (Gairns & Redman, 1986) types of relations. Various semantic associates, such as antonyms and coordinates (Higa, 1963) and topics and activities (Gairns & Redman, 1986), may well deserve for further studies. Lastly, the word root knowledge test and lexical inferencing ability measure in the present study did not show adequate reliability with the sample. More reliable measures would allow more confidence in the conclusions.

APPENDIX

The alphabetic-ordered word root list (excerpt)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Treatment 1 (Week 2)</th>
<th>Treatment 1 (Week 2)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>act. ag = to do &quot;做&quot;</td>
<td>cogn. gno(r) = to know &quot;知&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>actually adv. 實際上地;真實地</td>
<td>diagnosis n. 診斷</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>agency n. 代理處</td>
<td>ignore v. 忽視;不理睬</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>exactly adv. 精確地</td>
<td>ignorance n. 無知;愚昧</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>inactive adj. 不活躍的;無生气的</td>
<td>recognize v. 認出</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>react v. 反應</td>
<td>recognizable adj. 可辨認的</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cap, ceive, cept = to take, to hold &quot;拿，接&quot;</td>
<td>sci = to know &quot;知&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>capable adj. 有能力的</td>
<td>conscious adj. 有意識的;自覺的</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>capacity n. 容量;才能</td>
<td>unconscious adj. 失去意識的</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>capture v. 逮捕;捕獲</td>
<td>science n. 科學</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>concept n. 觀念;概念</td>
<td>scientific adj. 科學的;合乎科學的</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>receive v. 收到</td>
<td>scientist n. 科學家</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The semantic-related word root list (excerpt)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Treatment 2 (Week 3)</th>
<th>Treatment 2 (Week 3)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>seed, cess = to walk &quot;行走&quot;</td>
<td>spec(t) = to look, to see &quot;看&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>access n. 入口</td>
<td>respect v/n. 尊敬</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ancestor n. 祖先</td>
<td>special adj. 特別的</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>process v. 加工處理 n. 過程</td>
<td>specialize v. 使專門化;使特殊化</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>recession n. 萧條;萎縮</td>
<td>species n. 種類;物種</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>succeed v. 成功</td>
<td>unexpectedly adv. 令人驚訝地</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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### References


Li Min Chen was born in Taiwan, Kaoshiung in 1969. She received her Ph.D. degree from National Kaoshiung Normal University in 2015. She is currently a lecturer in San-Min Vocational High School. She has been working on morphological awareness instruction and English teaching method.
Can the Reading Construct Be Examined outside the Reading Context? An Investigation of the Construct Validity of an English as a Foreign Language Reading Test

Godefroid B. Katalayi
Institut Supérieur Pédagogique de Kananga, DR Congo

Abstract—This paper examines the construct validity of a multiple-choice reading test from the epistemological stance that supports a close relationship between test construct and test context. It aims to evaluate the extent to which the test tasks not only target the reading construct, but also come to grip with the specific test context (Katalayi & Sivasubramaniam, 2013). Fifty (50) multiple-choice items taken from the 2017 English state examination (ESE) were administered to 496 Grade 12 secondary school students and a concurrent strategies questionnaire was used to elicit information on participants’ use of strategies during test writing (Katalayi & Sivasubramaniam, 2014). The findings indicate that, although the fifty item questions cover the whole range of reading construct by targeting all the processing levels; there is, however, a predominance of items that require text processing at higher level than those items that require text processing at lower level. This is to suggest that since the ESE includes higher level test items it does not reflect the context of the ESE; and therefore, it is untenable in the educational practices of language teaching and testing.

Index Terms—construct validity, reading construct, reading context, processing levels, social context, tasks complexity

I. PREAMBLE

In conceptualizing reading as a process, many reading models consider text comprehension as a multi-componential process where a reader must attempt and activate various cognitive processes in order to successfully comprehend a text (Katalayi & Sivasubramaniam, 2014; Embretson & Wetzel, 1987; Gao & Rodgers, 2007; Field, 2004; Wagenmakers, Steyvers, Raaijmakers, Shiffrin, van Rijn, H, & Zeelenberg, 2000; Perfetti, 1997; van Gompel, 2007). These processing models have generally investigated the construct validity of a reading test in terms of the different levels of structure by associating the specific cognitive processes with each level (Katalayi & Sivasubramaniam, 2014). Although research indicates some variations in the number of levels (see Gao & Rodgers, 2007; Grabe, 2009), six processing levels are generally recognized. The first level, called lexical encoding, relates to the reader’s capacity to encode words (Field, 2004; Wagenmakers et al., 2000). The second level, termed syntactic parsing, relates to the reader’s capacity to analyze a sentence or phrase in terms of the grammatical constituents by identifying the different syntactic relations (van Gompel, 2007). The third level, termed propositional meaning, deals with how a reader interprets clauses semantically, how he/she integrates the information in the sentence as a whole, and how he/she abstracts the sentence gist (Haberlandt & Graesser, 1985). The fourth level, called inferencing, relates to a reader’s capacity to integrate the information provided in the text with the information that he/she already knows (Kintsch & van Dijk, 1978). The fifth level, called building a mental model, relates to the reader’s capacity to identify main ideas, to relate them to previous ideas, to distinguish between macro-propositions and micro-propositions and to impose some hierarchical structure of the information in the text (Kintsch & van Dijk, 1978; van Dijk & Kintsch, 1983). The last and sixth level, called ‘creating text level macrostructure’, relates to reader’s capacity to recognize the hierarchical structure of the whole text and to determine which information is central to the meaning of the text (Weir & Khalifa, 2008a).

Katalayi and Sivasubramaniam (2013) argue that studies that have adopted this hierarchical-level taxonomy to validate the reading construct (see van Steensel, Oostdam & van Gelderen, 2012; Weir & Khalifa, 2008b) have generally suggested that test items that require examinees to process the text at a higher level (text level) are more cognitively demanding than those that require examinees to process the text at a lower level (sentence/paragraph level). More specifically, these studies have reported that lower level test questions are generally easy as they require examinees to read at sentence and/or paragraph level by quickly searching for text information at the level of text micro-propositions. On the contrary, higher level test questions are generally difficult as they require examinees to read at text level by focusing on text macro-propositions and by attempting to generate more connections between their knowledge and text information.
This way of viewing the process of reading and its assessment from a purely cognitive perspective appears to emphasize a reductionist view of reading. Yet, research suggests that reading is not only a cognitive process; but it is also a social process where a reader interacts with a text to construct meaning (Bloome, 1985; Green & Meyer, 1991; Katalayi, 2014). As a social process, reading is a situated activity that takes place in a specific context with specific task demands (Katalayi & Sivasubramaniam, 2014; Bloome, 1985; Knoester, 2010). Such a social perspective to reading premises that the social context within which students read influences their reading behaviours. This is to suggest that the social context determines how students engage with reading tasks and the cognitive processes they internalize from and for reading (Bloome, 1985; Katalayi, 2014).

In the context of reading in a second/foreign language, one route taken by the studies that have adopted a social activity stance to reading has been the understanding of the socio-contextual variables that influence reading activity; and therefore impact on reading performance (Katalayi & Sivasubramaniam, 2014). Some of these studies have specifically investigated the impact of the students’ characteristics on reading performance by arguing that students’ capacity to deploy appropriate strategies to read the text and complete the test tasks also depends on the extent to which the test tasks are appropriate to their individual characteristics; including their skills to comprehend the text (Neiles, 2012; Katalayi & Sivasubramaniam, 2014), their motivation for reading (Mucherah & Yoder, 2008; Tabauda, Tonks, Wiogfield, & Guthrie, 2009; Katalayi, 2014; Katalayi & Sivasubramaniam, 2014), their attitudes towards the test (Katalayi & Sivasubramaniam, 2014; Murray, Riazi & Cross, 2012; Rasti, 2009) and their experience with the test (Reeve, Heggestad, & Liewens, 2009; Katalayi, 2014). Other studies have addressed the issue of the impact of the socio-contextual factors on reading performance in terms of the impact of the organizational characteristics of the school under which the students read; including the policies adopted by the school in terms of discipline (Lee & Shute, 2010), the collaboration between teachers (Lee & Shute, 2010), and the demographics of the class size (Lee & Shute, 2010; Katalayi, 2014). Further to this, other studies have addressed the issue of the availability, quality and relevance of reading resources and their impact on reading performance (Katalayi, 2014; Bukenya, 2005; Kalibala, 1999). Still, some other studies have addressed the issue of teacher’s qualification and experience (Lee & Shute, 2010), his/her motivation and commitment for teaching (Bishay, 1996), the kind of support system provided to him/her (Jahangir, Saheen & Kazmi, 2012; Katalayi, 2014) and these studies have attempted to correlate these characteristics to student’s reading performance. In sum and spirit, the socio-contextual perspective on reading activity premises that the whole range of aforementioned factors can function as predisposing conditions affecting what one reads, why he/she reads, and how well he/she reads. Therefore, this perspective on reading can be useful to the reading assessment researcher by helping him/her understand the many specific reading behaviors that can further explicate the nature of reading activity and reading performance (Katalayi & Sivasubramaniam, 2014).

Is the social dimension of reading reflected in current assessment processing models to examining the reading construct?

Many current processing models to examining the reading construct appear to be strongly influenced by the union of cognitive psychology and assessment (Embretson & Wetzel, 1987; Cohen & Upton, 2006, 2007; Gao & Rodgers, 2007). These models generally support that reading is a complex and multidimensional process and the best way to assess the reading process is to describe the subskills that underlie it (Song, 2008). Therefore, this can be made possible by gathering information regarding examinees’ knowledge structure, skills and strategies while completing test tasks (Cohen & Upton, 2006, 2007; Gao & Rodgers, 2007). This way of examining the reading construct suggests that it is possible to link particular reading items to specific sub-skills that they are said to tap into (Alderson, 2000; Katalayi & Sivasubramaniam, 2014; Song, 2008). Therefore, one way to achieve this goal has usually been to model item statistic properties in terms of the cognitive demands required by test tasks (Embretson & Wetzel, 1987; Gao & Rodgers, 2007). Katalayi and Sivasubramaniam (2014) argue that although validity studies that have adopted these models have incorporated current cognitive theories in examining the reading construct; thus providing useful information on examinees’ performance on the reading test, they nevertheless appear to have ignored to link the critical features of these cognitive theories to the specific testing context so as to reveal the meaningful cognitive processes in a particular test context. Methodologically, these models have used some current methods that help to understand how examinees complete test tasks such as protocol analysis and task analysis. However, these models appear to rely heavily on factorial analyses and linear regression methodologies. Results from factor analysis methodologies tell whether or not the different reading items included in the test load on the same factor (Guthrie & Kirsch, 1987; Young, 2008). On the other hand, results from linear regression methodologies indicate a number of text and item variables and the effect of these variables on item statistics (Freedle & Kostin, 1999) and/or the particular variables that significantly account for the variance in item difficulty (Kasai, 1997). As Katalayi and Sivasubramaniam (2014) argue, since these two methodologies are psychometrically driven, results from the studies that use these methodologies hardly reveal the interaction between the different processes that are actually involved in answering the individual test items and the actual context of reading that is expected to clarify the particular test domain. Therefore, I believe that in examining the reading construct of an ESL/EFL test, there is an inevitable need to use a model that signposts and signifies the actual context of reading activity.

II. AIM AND SIGNIFICANCE
This paper examines the construct validity of the DR Congo English state examination, a multiple-choice reading test administered to final year secondary school students as a subtest of the national test for certification (Katalayi & Sivasubramaniam, 2014). The paper aims to evaluate the construct validity of this test within the epistemological stance that supports a strong relationship between test construct and test context. More specifically, the paper aims to evaluate the extent to which the test tasks not only target the reading construct as it appears to be actually conceptualized in literature but also come to grip with the specific test context.

In order to achieve this aim, I hypothesize that since cognitive processing always occurs within and is significantly affected by the reading context, examinees’ use of strategies to comprehend the text and complete test tasks depends not only on their individual processing skills, but also on the knowledge domain and the test tasks. In light of this hypothesis, I suggest that the test tasks be evaluated in terms of two dimensions: first, the cognitive processes examinees deploy while completing the test tasks, and then the extent to which the cognitive demands required to complete the test tasks are proportional to the examinees’ characteristics and actual conditions under which reading instruction occurs.

By examining the reading construct within this suggested larger context of reading activity, I hope, together with Katalayi and Sivasubramaniam (2014) that the insights generated by this study can help reading researchers and ESL/EFL teachers view reading construct as one concept that is difficult to understand if it is explained and/or investigated outside the specific context of reading activity. Furthermore, these insights can be gainfully deployed in the educational practice of reading assessment, and they can be used by reading assessment researchers to inform their validation studies. The study is particularly important in the Congolese context where literature points to inadequate and deficient descriptions of reading assessment practices (Katalayi & Sivasubramaniam, 2014; Katalayi, 2012; 2014). Therefore, the findings are meant to serve English state examination (ESE) developers to design a test that includes tasks that are adjusted to the actual context of reading activity. This actual context is characterized by a complex quadriglossic linguistic structure that positions English as a fourth language that is learnt as a school subject from grade 9 to grade 12 (Katalayi & Sivasubramaniam, 2014; Katalayi, 2012, 2014) while French is the official language that is used in administration and education; whereas the four national languages (Ciluba, Kikongo, Kiswahili, and Lingala) serve inter-group communication in their areas of influence; and an estimated more than 200 ‘vernaculars’ serve intra-group communication (Katalayi & Sivasubramaniam, 2013; Kasanga, 2010; Kasanga 2012). In such a French-dominated linguistic landscape with an infinitesimal presence of English in intra-national transactions and in public display (Kasanga, 2012), a relevant way to investigate the construct validity of the ESE would be to adopt an approach that helps to understand students’ reading behaviours by considering the specific situations in which reading occurs as well as the reading tasks that readers confront. Therefore, while validating the ESE, the test tasks need to be described in terms of cognitive processes and socio-contextual parameters.

III. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

To examine the construct validity of the DR Congo ESE from a conceptual stance that supports a relationship between reading construct and reading context, I propose and address the following two questions:

• What are the processing levels targeted by the ESE items?

• To what extent the ESE tasks are appropriate to the actual ESE context?

The answer to the first question is meant to determine the processing levels that are targeted by the ESE items and to determine the extent to which the ESE includes tasks that target the whole range of the reading construct; one main criterion of its construct-validity. On the other hand, the answer to the second question is expected to determine the extent to which the degree of complexity of ESE tasks is proportional to the actual test context; a condition that aligns with the epistemological stance that considers test context as relevant to test construct.

IV. METHOD

A process-oriented approach to examining the reading construct needs a method that encourages informal comments on the actual reading process (Katalayi & Sivasubramaniam, 2013; Katalayi & Sivasubramaniam, 2014). Hence, protocol analysis can provide an understanding of the processes examinees engage to comprehend the text and complete test tasks. Protocol analysis is a methodology that uncovers the cognitive processes a person goes through while performing a task (Katalayi & Sivasubramaniam, 2013; Ericsson & Simon, 1993). It premises that, since people have “privileged access to their experiences” (Katalayi & Sivasubramaniam, 2013; Ericsson & Simon, 1993: xii), and that the information in their verbal reports is trustworthy (Park, 2009), it is possible to verbalize their thoughts in a way that does not alter the sequence of thought that mediate the completion of the task (Ericsson & Simon, 1993). Protocol analysis methodology has gained a strong ground in validating reading tests (see Rupp, Ferne, & Choi, 2006; Yamashita, 2003; Katalayi & Sivasubramaniam, 2013; Katalayi & Sivasubramaniam, 2014). Protocol analysis in this study, the underlying assumption is that the way participants search for text information, evaluate item alternatives, and choose the best option can be registered through their verbalizations and this can be analyzed to determine their response decision processes (Katalayi & Sivasubramaniam, 2013). This is why
in this study the data were collected during the task completion process in order to ensure a close connection between thinking and verbal reports (Ericsson & Simon, 1993).

Furthermore, in order to address the social context of reading practices in the DR Congo, the paper builds upon the results from a mixed-methods study that has comprehensively described the context of the English state examination (Katalayi & Sivasubramaniam, 2014). This study was conducted in the same setting (Kananga, DR Congo) with participants sharing the same characteristics to those included in this study. Katalayi and Sivasubramaniam (2014) used a contextual questionnaire that he respectively administered to 793 student-participants, and a contextual questionnaire that he administered to twenty-seven (27) Grade 12 English language teachers. The contextual questionnaire administered to student-participants included questions relating to their proficiency level in English language, their experience with the ESE, their motivation for reading, their attitudes towards the ESE, their reading frequency at school and at home, the reading resources used in classroom and at home, their frequency of attendance in reading classes, their preferences for the number of hours to learn English, their preferences for the number of hours to write the ESE, their preferences for the number of questions to be included in the ESE, their preferences for the number of alternatives to be included in the ESE, and their preferences for the number of parallel forms to be used in the ESE. On the other hand, the contextual questionnaire administered to the 27 teacher-participants included questions that related to their qualification and experience, their motivation for teaching, their involvement in in-service training programs, their use of assessment methods, the reading resources they use and the frequency of use of these resources. The two questionnaires were both close and open in that each statement was followed by a number of suggestions the participants had to choose from and an empty box where they had to provide an explanation/reason of their choices (Katalayi & Sivasubramaniam, 2014). The data from these two questionnaires were analyzed both quantitatively and qualitatively. The quantitative analysis aimed to provide a picture of the frequency of occurrence of different observations while the qualitative analysis aimed to provide deeper insights necessary for grasping the reasons of the participants’ choices. The findings relating to the description of the DR English state examination context as reported by Katalayi and Sivasubramaniam (2014) can be summarized as follow:

1. Students’ abilities in English language in general, and in reading in English in particular, are poor as they hardly cope with basic language skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing); they have problems to match the English spelling and pronunciation; and they believe that English is a difficult language one cannot easily learn;

2. Students have low motivation for reading and this is reflected in a low reading amount at school and at home and low attendance to English classes;

3. Some students have negative attitudes towards the ESE as they believe that they must not write the ESE since they perceive this test to be a way of failing them on the national test. They also believe that the ESE is not a fair test since it is based only on text passage comprehension and neglects other language skills. Furthermore, students seem to prefer an extended time to write the ESE, a reduced number of test questions, a reduced number of item alternatives and a reduced number of alternate forms;

4. Students have less experience with the ESE because the multiple-choice technique is almost not used by the teachers as the classroom assessment method on the ground that it is difficult to construct, and it cannot properly evaluate the students’ language abilities;

5. Reading instruction is severely hampered by an abject paucity of reading materials for reading at school and at home as well as by the use reading materials of poor quality;

6. The English curriculum is old-fashioned; and some teachers do not have this document as part of their teaching documents. Therefore, they do not use this document in the design and planning of reading course;

7. There is a total absence of in-service training as well as continuous training for English teachers. Consequently, teachers are not able to keep abreast of new developments in teaching. Besides, there is a substantial degree of confusion in their use of teaching methods.

Sample, instrument and materials
The participants were 496 Grade 12 secondary school students who were in the final year of secondary school and who were preparing for the national test in order to get a national certificate (Katalayi & Sivasubramaniam, 2013).

As instrument, I used a concurrent strategies questionnaire adapted from Weir and Khalifa (2008a) and Katalayi and Sivasubramaniam, 2013) in order to elicit information on participants’ use of strategies during test writing. In this questionnaire (see Appendix), I instructed the participants to select from a list of strategies, individual strategies they had used to answer each test question immediately after they had answered that individual test question.

The test material consisted of 50 multiple-choice reading test items taken from the 2017 edition test and that was administered to the participants under normal testing conditions (Katalayi & Sivasubramaniam, 2013).

Procedure
Following the procedure suggested by Katalayi and Sivasubramaniam (2013), the participants were told that the test was accompanied with a questionnaire that was to be completed while taking the test. They were instructed to fill out the questionnaire each time immediately after answering an individual test question. They were reminded that they had to carefully go through the list of suggested strategies in the questionnaire and check all the strategies they remembered they had actually used to find the answer to each individual test question.

Analysis
The processing levels targeted by individual test items were determined through an examination of strategies the participants used to answer individual test questions (see Appendix for strategies coding). Therefore, questions that requested lower level processing were classified in levels 1, 2 and 3. Level 1 (lexical encoding) included all test questions that required participants’ skill to understand vocabulary, level 2 (syntactic parsing) included the questions that required participants’ skill to understand grammar, while all test questions that required participants to add any external knowledge to the text in order to understand the actual meaning of individual propositions were classified in level 3 (propositional meaning). On the other hand, questions that requested higher level processing were classified in levels 4, 5 and 6. Level 4 (inferencing) included those questions that required participants to link information necessary to answer the test question to information not explicitly stated in the text. Level 5 (building a mental model) encompassed all test questions that required participants’ ability to establish accurate comprehension of explicitly stated main ideas and supporting details across sentences; while level 6 (creating text level structure) included all test questions that required participants to read the whole text in order to construct its macro-structure.

In order to examine the occurrence of strategies the participants had used, the frequency of strategies was computed and percentages were calculated. Percentages closer to 100.0% indicated that the majority of participants used the strategy in answering individual test questions while percentages closer to 0.0% indicated that few participants used the strategy to answer individual test questions.

In order to establish the complexity of test tasks, the mean item difficulty (mean ID) of test items included in each processing level was computed. Item difficulty is a straightforward statistics that consists in taking the number of candidates who got an item right and divide this number by the total number of candidates who answered that item. From the results of item difficulty per individual item, the mean item difficulty was computed for different test items included in each of the six processing levels. Values closer to 1 suggest that the item is easy; values closer to .0 suggest that the item is difficult whereas values that cluster around .5 suggest that the item is of moderate difficulty.

V. RESULTS

The processing levels targeted by the test items

Table 1 on the following page presents information on the different processing levels targeted by the 50 test items. The data suggest that the 50 test items included in the sample targeted all the six levels in different proportions. In descending order, we have (1) inferencing level (14 items; 28%), (2) syntactic parsing (11 items; 22%), (3) creating text level structure (10 items; 20%), (4) lexical encoding (8 items; 16%), (5) building a mental model (5 items; 10%) and (6) propositional meaning (2 items; 4%).

Level 1: Lexical encoding items

The information presented in Table 1 indicates that the participants used five (5) reading strategies and four (4) test taking strategies in order to answer the eight (8) test questions that required their skills to identify or/ and understand some words used in the text.

As regards the use of reading strategies, the data indicate that all the participants had to read the specific sentence where the vocabulary item was located (S9=100%) first, and the majority of them had to use of their knowledge of vocabulary (S6=73%). However, nearly a third of participants had to also carefully read a portion of the paragraph (S3=29%) in order to grasp the context in which individual words were used so as to use context clues to figure out the word meanings (S7=27%). On the other hand, only very few participants had also to resort to their knowledge of grammar (S5=10%) in order to answer vocabulary items.

As regards the use of test taking strategies, the majority of participants considered the five options and immediately focused on the “correct” answer (S11=70%). However, few participants could show uncertainty by first considering the five options and then delaying to decide which option was the correct answer (S10=23%) before they could finally select their answers either through elimination of other options (S14=15.0%) or through guessing (S15=8.0%). The mean item difficulty index (.71) suggests that these test questions were generally easy.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Processing levels</th>
<th>N=50 %</th>
<th>Mean ID</th>
<th>Strategies used</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Level 1: Lexical encoding</td>
<td>8 16</td>
<td>.71</td>
<td>Reading S9 [100%]; S6 [73%]; S3 [29%]; S7 [27%]; S5 [10%]. Test taking S11 [70%]; S10 [23%]; S14 [15%]; S15 [8%].</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level 2: Syntactic parsing</td>
<td>11 22</td>
<td>.73</td>
<td>Reading S9 [100%]; S5 [79%]; S3 [21%]; S6 [6%]. Test taking S11 [61%]; S12 [28%]; S10 [11%]; S14 [8%]; S15 [3%].</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level 3: Propositional meaning</td>
<td>2 4</td>
<td>.56</td>
<td>Reading S5 [73%]; S6 [48%]; S3 [24%]; S7 [14%]. Test taking S10 [80%]; S11 [55%]; S14 [45%].</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level 4: Inferencing</td>
<td>14 28</td>
<td>.41</td>
<td>Reading S8 [80%]; S1 [73%]; S2 [59%]; S3 [49%]. Test taking S10 [100%]; S13 [50%]; S14 [32%]; S15 [18%].</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level 5: Building a mental model</td>
<td>5 10</td>
<td>.43</td>
<td>Reading S3 [100%]; S2 [40%]; S8 [10%]. Test taking S10 [90%]; S14 [76%]; S15 [14%]; S11 [10%].</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level 6: Creating a text level representation</td>
<td>10 20</td>
<td>.38</td>
<td>Reading S1 [100%]; S2 [78%]; S3 [56%]; S4 [42%]. Test taking S10 [82%]; S14 [50%]; S15 [32%]; S11 [18%].</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(ID=Item difficulty; S1=Strategy #1, S2=Strategy #2, S3=Strategy #3, S4=Strategy #4, etc.)
Level 2: Syntactic parsing items

The data presented in Table 1 indicate that participants used four (4) reading strategies and five (5) test taking strategies in order to answer the fifteen (15) test questions that required their skills to understand syntax.

As regards the use of reading strategies, all the participants had to read the specific sentence where the grammar structure was located (S9=100%) before they could use their knowledge of grammar (S5=79%) in order to correctly parse the sentence. However, for some questions, the participants had also to carefully read the entire portion of the paragraph where the grammar structure was located (S3=21%) in order to understand the actual use of the structure. In rare cases, participants had also to resort to their knowledge of vocabulary in order to answer grammar items (S6=6%).

Regarding the use of test taking strategies, the majority of participants, on the basis of their knowledge of grammar, considered the five options and immediately focused on the option they perceived was the “correct” answer (S11=61%) although some participants produced their own answers immediately after they had read the item question, and then could finally look at the five options to confirm their answers (S12=28%). However, few participants could ponder the five options but postponed their selection of the ‘correct’ answer until further consideration (S10=11%) before they could make their final choice either through elimination of other options (S14=8%) or simply through blind guessing (S15=3%). The mean item difficulty index (.73) suggests that these test questions were easy.

Level 3: Propositional meaning items

The findings presented in Table 1 suggest that the participants used four (4) reading strategies and three (3) test taking strategies in order to answer the two (2) test questions that required their skill to establish propositional meaning.

Considering the use of reading strategies, the majority of participants used their knowledge of grammar (S5=73%) and/or their knowledge of vocabulary (S6=48%). However, few participants had to read a portion of the text carefully (S3=24%) before they used their knowledge of grammar and/or vocabulary. Furthermore, a minority of participants used context clues to figure out the meaning of difficult words in the proposition (S7=14%).

As regards test taking strategies, the majority of participants considered the five options, but postponed consideration of the ‘correct’ option (S10=80%) before they could either focus on the familiar option (S11=55%) or select the ‘correct’ option through elimination of other options (S14=45%). The mean item difficulty (.56) suggests that these test questions were of moderate difficulty.

Level 4: Inferencing items

The data presented in Table 1 suggest that participants used four (4) reading strategies and four (4) test taking strategies in order to provide answers to the fourteen (14) inferencing test questions.

As regards reading strategies, the main strategy used was a careful reading of the whole text (S1=73%). Some examinees either preceded or followed this careful reading with quick reading/rereading (S2=59%). On the other hand, for some other items, the participants had to carefully read a specific paragraph (S3=49%) before they could draw some conclusions based on what the text/paragraph implied (S8=80%).

As regards test taking strategies, all the participants considered the five options and then postponed to choose the “correct” option (S10=100%) until they could finally make their choice either through text/paragraph global comprehension (S13=50%) or through elimination of other options (S14=32%) or again simply through blind guessing (S15=18%). The item difficulty index (.41) suggests that these test questions were difficult.

Level 5: Building a mental model items

The participants used three (3) reading strategies and four (4) test taking strategies in order to answers the five (5) items that requested their skills to establish accurate comprehension of explicitly stated main ideas and supporting details across sentences.

With regard to the reading strategies, all the participants read the target paragraph carefully (S3=100%) with the aim to comprehend all supporting details as elaborated across different sentences. However, some participants had to read first the whole text rapidly (S2=40%) in order to construct its representation before they focused on the target paragraph and read it carefully. Few participants augmented their careful reading of the paragraph by trying to draw conclusions on what the paragraph implied (S8=10%).

Concerning the use of test taking strategies, most participants first considered the five options and then postponed consideration of the “correct” option (S10=90%) before they finally made their choice either through text/paragraph global comprehension (S13=76%) or through guessing (S15=14%). However, few participants considered the five options and then immediately focused on the option they considered to be the “correct” one (S11=10%). The mean item difficulty index (.43) suggests that these questions were difficult.

Level 6: Creating text level structure items

The participants used four (4) reading strategies and four (4) test taking strategies in order to answer the ten (10) test questions included in this level. As to reading strategies, all the participants had to carefully read the whole text (S1=100%) in order to construct its macro-structure. In order to locate the pieces of information scattered throughout the text, the majority of participants read the whole text expeditiously (S2=78%). However, since in many cases the pieces of information necessary for answering individual test questions were located in specific paragraphs, participants had to read those specific paragraphs first carefully (S3=56%) in order to build the paragraph gist, and then sometimes expeditiously (S4=42%) in order to search for specific information.
Concerning the use of the test taking strategies, most participants considered the five options and then postponed consideration of what could appear to them as the best option (S10=82%) before selecting their answers either through elimination of other alternatives (S14=50%) or through guessing (S15=32%). However, only few participants could consider the five options and immediately select the option that appeared familiar to them (S11=18%). The mean item difficulty index (.41) suggests that these test questions were difficult.

**ESE focus: Lower level processing or higher level processing?**

The findings provided in Table 2 suggest that of the 50 test items included in the sample, 21 items (42%) requested participants to process the text at lower level while 29 items (58%) requested them to process the text at higher level.

As far as task complexity is concerned, the data in the same table indicate that the mean item difficulty for the 21 items that required lower level processing was .67, suggesting that the participants perceived these items to be of moderate difficulty. On the other hand, the mean item difficulty for the 29 items that required higher level processing was .41, suggesting that the participants perceived these items to be difficult.

### Table 2: Lower level processing versus higher level processing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Processing levels</th>
<th>N=50</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Mean ID</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Lower level</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Lexical encoding</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Syntactic parsing</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Establishing propositional meaning</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total lower level processing item questions</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Higher level</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Inferencing</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Building a text mental model</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Creating a text level representation</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total higher level processing items</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>.41</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**VI. Discussion, Implications, Conclusion**

The ESE tasks appear to cover the whole range of reading construct by targeting all the six processing levels. However, there is a predominance of test questions that require higher level processing than those that require lower level processing. As my theoretical stance supports a strong relationship between test construct and test context, this predominance of higher level test items does not appear to reflect the context of the ESE and therefore, it is untenable in the educational practices of language teaching and testing. This finding therefore raises the issue of the ESE construct validity on the ground that the ESE construct validity depends, not only on the extent to which the test includes tasks that target the whole range of reading construct, but also on the extent to which the test tasks are appropriate to the test context (Katalayi, 2014).

The study results have revealed that higher level questions were more difficult for examinees than lower level questions; a result that appears to concur with findings reported by Weir and Khalifa (2008b), van Steensel, Oostdam and van Gelderen (2012) and Rouet et al., (2001). While lower level questions mainly required examinees to read at sentence and/or paragraph level and recourse to their knowledge of grammar and/or vocabulary, higher level questions mainly required them to read at text level by attempting to generate more connections between their knowledge and text information. Furthermore, in order to answer lower level questions, examinees generally considered the five options and focused on the familiar option, or they produced their own answers after reading the questions and then looked at the five options to confirm their choices. On the other hand, in order to answer higher level questions, examinees usually had to recourse to elimination of options and guessing strategies. Yet, evidence suggests that elimination of options and guessing are two test wiseness strategies examinees use as a short-cut to arriving at answers (Cohen & Upton, 2006, 2007; Rupp, Ferne & Choi, 2006). Therefore, the use of these two strategies in the context of this study appears to suggest that the process of answering higher level questions may have been a problem-solving process instead of being a reading process where examinees actually engage with the reading test tasks by actively working to understand the text, to understand the expectations of the questions, to understand the meanings and implications of the different item alternatives and to select or discard alternatives based on the way they understand the text.

Since the focus on higher level questions does not appear to reflect the actual ESE context described previously, we are inclined to conclude that the ESE fails to take account of the actual characteristics of the students and the actual conditions under which reading instruction occurs. Consistent with this conclusion, the ESE appears to be construct-irrelevant as it includes tasks that are less appropriate to the test context. This conclusion appears to concur with the conceptualisation of validity as the relevance of inferences made on the basis of test scores (Messick, 1989, Kane, 2011). Therefore, in order to be construct-valid, the ESE test scores need to closely reflect the actual reading context by including more tasks that require examinees to read at sentence and/or paragraph level as such tasks appear to be less cognitively demanding than those that require them to read at text level. Since examinees’ performance on test tasks appears to be influenced by the context of reading practice, it can be suggested that by including more tasks that require examinees to read at sentence level and paragraph level, the ESE would closely reflect the actual context of English/reading instruction characterized by students’ low skills in English, in general and in reading, in particular; the low motivation for reading, some negative attitudes towards the ESE, less experience with the ESE, limited reading at
school and at home due to an abject paucity of reading materials, poor teacher quality and lack of commitment of their English teachers.

This insight is worth considering in conducting validation studies. It suggests that a test item can be valid when the information required answering this items taps into the target construct; but still it can be inappropriate to the specific context of the test. In order to further our knowledge of the construct validity of reading tests, we need to agree that the development of valid reading tests can be possible if we first examine as extensively as possible the nature of reading activities and different response processes examinees engage during test taking. This entails eliciting the cognitive processing involved in not only the text and test tasks, but also in contexts beyond the test itself, that is, in those contexts involved in performing reading tasks in classroom and real life (Katalayi, 2014). By ignoring this route, reading appears to be an activity that occurs in a vacuum; therefore, the results generated by psychometrically-driven studies that ignore the actual reading context tend to miss the salient aspects of the reading construct as we hardly understand the actual reading behaviours. Further to this, examinees’ completion of test tasks can become more of a problem-solving activity rather than a reading activity. Therefore, reading construct cannot be examined outside the appropriate context of reading activity.

APPENDIX. STRATEGIES QUESTIONNAIRE

Instructions:
- You will have 2 hours to do the test and fill out the questionnaire.
- Read the text and provide answers to questions based on the text.
- After answering each test question, please fill out the questionnaire for that question. To fill out the questionnaire, you will have to identify and list in order ALL the strategies you remember ed you have used to answer that individual question. The list of strategies and their code are present in the table below.
- For example, if to question 1 you first read the text carefully, and then reread it rapidly and finally look at the question options and produce your own answer after reading the question, you must write: S1; S4; S11.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Strategy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>S1</td>
<td>read the whole text carefully</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S2</td>
<td>read the whole text rapidly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S3</td>
<td>read a portion of the text carefully</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S4</td>
<td>read a portion of the text rapidly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S5</td>
<td>use my knowledge of grammar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S6</td>
<td>use my knowledge of vocabulary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S7</td>
<td>Use context clues to figure out the meaning of difficult words</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S8</td>
<td>draw conclusion based on what the text implies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S9</td>
<td>search for the sentence where the vocabulary item or grammar structure is located</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S10</td>
<td>consider the options and postpone consideration of the ‘correct’ option</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S11</td>
<td>consider the options and focus on a familiar option</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S12</td>
<td>produce my own answer after reading the question, then look at the options</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S13</td>
<td>Select option through paragraph/passage overall comprehension</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S14</td>
<td>select option through elimination of other options</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S15</td>
<td>select option through guessing</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

REFERENCES


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Cognitive Levels in Saudi EFL Teachers’ and Textbook Questions

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Abstract—This study aimed to investigate the thinking levels of questions asked by EFL instructors for first year English Department students at Al-Imam Mohammad Ibn Saud Islamic University (IMSIIU). The study also aimed to analyze the cognitive levels of the comprehension questions demonstrated by the reading and writing textbook (Unlock, Reading and Writing 1) taught for first year English Department students at IMSIIU. In addition, the study examined the extent to which the instructors’ questions and the book they taught differ in the proportions of lower- and higher- thinking level questions. The sample of the study consisted of 15 reading and writing classes taught by EFL instructors. Furthermore, all of the questions in the textbook (Unlock, Reading and Writing 1) were classified according to the Revised Bloom’s taxonomy (Anderson et al., 2001). Descriptive and inferential analysis was used to analyze the data. Furthermore, Chi χ2 cross tabulation was used to show the differences among the levels of thinking in the two textbooks. The findings showed that the majority of the first year teachers’ questions are lower-cognitive levels (knowledge, comprehension and application). Furthermore, the results of the textbook analysis also showed that there was a tendency towards lower-level cognitive skills in the two textbooks under the study.

Index Terms—cognitive level, teacher questioning, textbook questions

I. INTRODUCTION

Traditionally, teachers tended to dominate the interaction and speak most of the time because they thought they were able to have a control over the classroom interaction and their students’ responses as well, and this would help them to achieve their instructional goals and to avoid any unpredictable behavior. Nowadays, the new generation demands instructors to bring new methods of teaching that enhance and stimulate students’ learning such as questioning. The art of questioning is considered as one of the most effective and motivating tools for the teacher. Good questions are educative and they serve as means of organizing knowledge. One way for enhancing the quality of classroom questions was identifying the intellectual level of teacher questions. Questions were classified into two cognitive categories: lower order and higher order. Therefore, this study explored textbook and teachers’ questions in light of Bloom’s Taxonomy.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

It is important to find ways to challenge students’ thinking. Beyer (1997) stated that asking higher-level questions is one of the most common practices and best techniques that teachers can use to stimulate students’ thinking. Questioning is an intellectual experience that calls for a response, including both problems and projects, as stated by Sanders (cited in Newton, 1978). Teachers can use questioning strategies to foster deeper thinking in their students. These questions should be clear, accurate, relevant, and logical (Paul & Elder, 2001). Dewey (1933) stated that asking effective questions lies at the heart of successfully teaching thinking skills.

The analysis of classroom interaction shows that teacher’s questions are evaluative and supportive in that they raise students’ deeper thinking. Moreover, it also engages students in higher-level roles. As Chin (2006, p. 1336) highlights, teachers’ questions evoke students to “formulate hypotheses, predict outcomes, brainstorm ideas, generate explanations, make inferences and conclusions, as well as to self-evaluate and reflect on their own thinking.” By questioning, the teacher provides conceptual and linguistic scaffolding.

Teachers’ questions can also be considered a major tool for formative assessment. Black and Harrison (2001) state that as teachers’ questions affect students’ thinking and brainstorm their ideas, both the content of the questions and feedback, become important. Therefore, teachers need to think about how questions can be constructed and used to develop students’ learning.

III. EFFECTS OF HIGHER-LOWER COGNITIVE LEVELS

Questioning is a techniques of thinking instruction but not all questions can be counted as thinking questions (McTighe, 1985). Swartz and Perkins (1989) claim that asking higher level questions will promote thinking skills rather than asking for simple recall. However, if students are expected to analyze or evaluate information, then they must be engaged in higher-level questioning (Humkins, 1995). Therefore, the types of questions used in the classroom depend on the purpose of the lesson. Gall (1984) also synthesized the research on teachers’ questioning and found that the factual
questions are more effective for young students’ achievement whereas the higher level questions are more effective for older students or students of high ability. Therefore, teachers who use factual questions with young students should also include some higher cognitive questions to foster advanced thinking (Elijah & Legenza, 1978).

Some studies (Al-Kaleefah, 1996; Wilen, 1991) have indicated that most teachers spend most of their time asking low level questions which concentrate on factual information. It is assumed that such questions limit learners’ critical thinking and deep understanding of the material. On the other hand, Bruardi (1998) suggested that high level cognitive questions which require students to employ higher thinking skills enable teachers to make sure whether a student has truly internalized a concept.

Costa and Lowery (1989) suggested that when teachers use terms such as “predict,” “compare,” “conclude,” and “hypothesize” in their questions, these may also encourage students’ thinking skills. Chin (2004) found that teachers believed that they had to focus on asking open-ended questions in order to give students opportunities to develop their thinking skills. But open-ended questions were not the most frequently asked questions during classroom discourse. The researcher also suggested that asking more questions does not necessarily guarantee higher level thinking; rather, the types of questions asked were the most important factor in influencing the level of thinking operations attained by students.

Several studies that dealt with analysis of teachers’ questions via Bloom’s taxonomy show that there is a lack of higher-level questions inside classrooms. All studies reviewed by the researcher showed the predominance of lower level questions in the teachers’ questioning studies (Tan, 2007; Khan and Inamullah, 2011; Sardareh and Saad, 2013). Furthermore, studies that dealt with analysis of questions in textbooks via Bloom’s taxonomy show that there is a lack of high-level questions and prevalence of low-level questions in the majority of textbooks. The predominance of lower-level questions in textbooks appears to be a worldwide problem. The list of studies that follows all agreed on the fact that all books they analyzed showed predominance of lower-level questions (Alul, 2005; Khan & Inamullah, 2011; Al-Khataybeh & Al-Ja’freh, 2012; Shen, 2012; Sardareh & Saad, 2013; Toni & Parse, 2013.)

The results of these studies indicated that most questions emphasized the knowledge or the comprehension levels. The results also indicated that possibly it is easier for teachers and authors to write lower cognitive level questions than questions on higher level. It seems that the authors who write textbook questions do not pay attention to develop the students’ thinking and they found it easier to write lower level questions than higher level. Possibly, the learners for whom the questions were directed to were unable to deal with higher-level demands.

IV. The Problem

The researcher noticed that the students’ responses to the teachers’ questions are limited because of some teachers’ traditional teaching method of asking questions. The researcher also noticed that some of these questions are considered unclear and irrelevant questions which affect the students’ learning process. Moreover, the researcher noticed that a lot of the university instructors ask questions that are factual and procedural which do not help students increase autonomy. The researcher feels that there might be a mismatch between the questions of the textbook and the questions asked by their teachers. Therefore, the researcher analyzed the questions asked by EFL teachers according to the thinking levels. Furthermore, this also evoked the researcher to analyze first year reading and writing textbook at IMSIU, and to investigate the degree to which the book helps the teacher improve students’ thinking, and the degree to which it enhances students to use the different levels of intellectual processes for developing suitable thinking skills.

V. Purpose of the Study

This study aimed to investigate the levels of questions asked by EFL teachers for first year students in the English department at IMSIU. The study also aimed to classify the comprehension questions, in Unlock 1, in light of their level of thinking according to the revised Bloom’s taxonomy (Anderson et al., 2001). Moreover, the study aimed to examine the extent to which the textbook (Unlock Reading and Writing 1) and the teachers’ questions differ in the proportions of lower- and higher-level questions. In other words, the study aimed at answering the following research questions:

1. What proportions of the Level one, male EFL instructors’ questions in the English department at IMSIU are at lower and higher levels of thinking according to Bloom’s Taxonomy?
2. What proportions of the questions in the textbook Unlock Reading and Writing 1 taught for level 1 students in the English Language department at IMSIU, are at lower levels and higher levels of thinking according to Bloom’s Taxonomy?
3. Do the questions in the textbook Unlock 1 taught for level 1 student in the English language department at IMSIU and the male EFL instructors’ questions for level 1 students differ in the proportions of lower- and higher-level thinking levels?

VI. Significance of the Study

This study intended to investigate classroom interactions in terms of questions asked by the teacher. It also investigated the consistency between teachers’ questions and the questions in the book they taught. The current study presents with important recommendations for teachers, teacher trainers and all of those who are indulged EFL teaching
in Saudi Arabia. Moreover, the findings from this study help educators become more aware of Saudi University Freshman English language textbook selection criteria and the rationales underlying these criteria. Overall, the study serve to better enable educators to make decisions about curriculum in light of their educational purposes and goals. The results of research about levels of thinking in textbook questions can be an important factor used by textbook selection committees. Finally, as long as the researcher is concerned, the current study is the first to explore the target issue at the college level in Saudi Arabia.

VII. METHOD

A. Design of the Study

This study is based on a descriptive research, where the researcher intended to investigated a specific phenomenon. The study used content analysis to investigate the proportions of the reading comprehension questions in the textbook Unlock, reading and Writing 1 and in 15 teachers’ class questions according to Bloom’s Taxonomy cognitive levels.

B. Sample of the Study

The population of the study consisted of 15 classes for different teachers who were teaching first year students English in the Department of English Language and Literature at IMSIU, during the second semester of the academic year 2016-2017.

C. Selection of the Questions

The textbook under study was: Unlock, Reading and Writing 1. The textbook was taught for first year students at the English Language and literature department at IMSIU in the second semester of the academic year 2016-2017. All of the questions in Unlock 1were incorporated. The total number of questions obtained from the book and from the teachers classes were 481 questions, which is considered a reasonable and manageable number. To avoid the confusion in the process of classification, questions in the textbook and those elicited from the attended sessions were numbered in a serial manner. For instance, teachers’ questions were numbered from 1 to 294. This serial number was employed in the question analysis sheets. In addition, questions in (Unlock 1) were numbered in separate sheets from 1 to 187. Furthermore, The researcher attended English language classes only in level one at the English Language and literature department IMSIU in the second semester of the academic year 2016-2017. All Teachers’ questions were recorded and then analyzed. The researcher classified Teachers’ questions by using Bloom's Taxonomy. The total number of questions was 294 questions, which is considered a reasonable and manageable number. The number of questions was determined according to the cognitive domains of Bloom’s Taxonomy.

D. Instruments

The researcher used two observational instruments to collect teachers’ questions at Imam University, a recorder (Audio-taping), it helped the researcher to record teachers’ questions in order to be transcribed later on. The other instrument was note-taking, which served as a tool to help the researcher to divide teachers’ questions according to Blooms' Taxonomy.

E. Content Analysis

The researcher classified and evaluated Teachers' questions and the questions obtained from Unlock reading and Writing 1 by using Bloom's Taxonomy. Bloom's definitions of different levels were carefully studied. Bloom's taxonomy includes the six levels from the knowledge to synthesis and evaluation. Bloom's taxonomy was labeled as: knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis and evaluation. An observation sheet was developed by the researcher for the study and used for encoding the data. The transcribed questions were then analyzed in light of question levels of thinking according to Bloom’s Taxonomy. The researcher observed 15 classes of both native and non-native teachers, and analyzed their questions according to the types and levels of Bloom’s Taxonomy.

F. Validity of the Analysis

To create the validity of analysis, the researcher defined concepts operationally and formatted the criteria for analyzing teachers' and textbook questions. The researcher consulted a jury of language professors and they all agreed on the validity of the procedure.

G. Reliability of the Content Analysis

Two procedures were used to determine the reliability of the content analysis. The first procedure was concerned with selecting the adequate raters for questions analysis. The second procedure was the inter- and intra-rater agreement which was employed to determine the degree of agreement among the three raters. Prior to the actual classification of data, a group of 25 questions was selected randomly and classified by the two raters including the researcher. Each rater was required to read teachers’ questions and then categorize each question in one of the subcategories of the six cognitive levels. Furthermore, the raters this time were encouraged to make use of the materials they had received in the classification process. After independent classification was made, the three raters compared the results and debated the rationale for each classification and they all agreed on twenty one of twenty five categorizations 84% agreement. An
inter-rater reliability of 80% or above was required of the raters before they became involved in analyzing the actual data. Based on the obtained agreement ratio, there was no need for additional training sessions to raise the level of inter-rater reliability, and hence the researcher considered the procedure of this study reliable.

H. Data Analysis

After collecting the data from the source textbook and from the classroom observations, the researcher listened to the recorded lectures, classified the questions that are related to the classroom content and were asked by the teachers. An analysis sheet was developed by the researcher for the study and used for encoding the data. The transcribed questions were then analyzed in light of question levels of thinking according to Bloom’s Taxonomy. The same questions were then grouped into higher-level questions or lower level ones. After confirming the level of the questions, questioning data were recorded onto a questioning chart regarding question types (higher-order or lower-order); Levels of Higher-lower Cognitive levels from the chart were summed. After each level was calculated, the total number of question levels (i.e., Knowledge-Comprehension-Application-Analysis-Synthesis-Evaluation) was divided by the number of questions the teacher or the textbook asked. This information provided a percentage in order to present a holistic view of what types of questions the teacher asked.

VIII. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The major purpose of this study was to analyze and compare the cognitive levels of Unlock Reading and Writing 1 and teachers’ questions found in the first year of the English language and Literature Department at IMSIU. Results from the data were subjected to descriptive analyses. The descriptive analyses included the classification of teachers’ questions across the cognitive levels of Bloom's Taxonomy. These data were presented in tabular forms and plotted on bar graphs.

A. Results Related to the First Question

The first research question was ”What proportions of the comprehension questions in Unlock Reading and Writing 1 and in male EFL instructors’ questions in the English department at IMSIU are at lower levels and higher levels of thinking according to Bloom’s Taxonomy?” To answer this question, the researcher analyzed 294 questions in Unlock Reading and Writing 1 according to the Bloom’s Taxonomy of educational objectives (cognitive domain). The researcher also analyzed 294 questions recorded in 15 English classes for the instructors on Level one classes in the English Department at IMSIU. The textbook under and the teachers showed varied numbers of questions as follows: Textbook questions One included 294 questions, Teachers’ questions included 187 questions. 481 questions were obtained from the two textbooks. Table (1) presents the data.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Statistic</th>
<th>Textbook Questions</th>
<th>Teachers’ Questions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>20.08%</td>
<td>3.74%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comprehension</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>179</td>
<td>119</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>60.88%</td>
<td>63.63%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Application</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>6.46%</td>
<td>2.67%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Analysis</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>3.40%</td>
<td>7.48%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Synthesis</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0.53%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evaluation</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>9.18%</td>
<td>21.95%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>294</td>
<td>481</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The analysis of the cognitive levels of the comprehension questions shows a significant relation between the textbook and teachers’ questions as shown in table (1). It is noticed that the majority of the questions in the two sources with percentages (60.88% and 63.63%) respectively. An important result was that no question was categorized under the level “synthesis”. Similarly, only one question appeared under the level synthesis in Unlock 1 (.53%).

Table (1) also indicates that the questions were presented in the following order according to their inclusion in Unlock 1: (Comprehension, knowledge, evaluation, application, analysis, and synthesis), whereas in teachers’ questions the order was (Comprehension, Evaluation, analysis, knowledge, application, and synthesis). It can also be noticed from the data shown in table (1) that the majority of the questions in the two textbooks appeared under the level “comprehension”, whereas the level “synthesis” was almost neglected in teachers’ questions and completely neglected in Unlock One.

B. Results Related to the Second Question
The second research question was "Do teachers’ questions and questions in Unlock Reading and Writing 1 differ in the proportions of lower- and higher-level questions?"

Frequencies of the questions included in the two sources under the study were calculated according to Bloom’s Taxonomy Thinking Levels (low-level questions and high-level questions). The percentages of the questions among the two levels in each source were calculated. The data are presented in table (2).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Thinking Level</th>
<th>Statistic</th>
<th>Low</th>
<th>High</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teachers’ Questions</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>257</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>294</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>87.42%</td>
<td>12.59%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unlock 1 Reading and Writing</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>187</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>70.06%</td>
<td>29.94%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table (2) shows that there is a tendency towards lower-level cognitive skills in the two sources under study. When moving from teachers’ questions to textbook questions an incline is noticed in the percentage of the lower-level questions and an increase is noticed in the percentage of the higher-level questions. Table (2) also shows that low level questions are dominant in the two sources with percentages of 87.42% for teachers’ questions, and 70.06% for textbook questions. On the contrary, higher-level questions appeared in a relatively lower percentage in the two sources (Teachers’ questions: 12.59%; Unlock Reading and Writing 1: 29.94%). Moreover, the statistical procedure of Chi Square ($\chi^2$) cross tabulation was used to determine whether the questions in the two sources under study differ in the proportions of lower-and higher-level questions. Table (3) presents the data.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)</th>
<th>Exact Sig. (2-sided)</th>
<th>Exact Sig. (1-sided)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Chi-Square</td>
<td>22.090a</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Continuity Correction</td>
<td>20.991</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Likelihood Ratio</td>
<td>21.575</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fisher’s Exact Test</td>
<td>481</td>
<td></td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table (3) indicates that Chi Square computed value was 22.090 with a freedom degree of 1. The significance value was 0.000 which is less than 0.05 and less than 0.01. Since the significance value is less below 0.05, this means that it is statistically significant value. Thus the statistical answer for the second research question is: Yes, Teachers’ Questions and Questions in Unlock 1 differ in light of the percentages of the high- and low-level questions. Although the answer for the question seems clear without the need for Chi Square formula, it is more accurate when significance differences are statistically and numerically stated.

IX. DISCUSSION

As the two research questions are interrelated and their findings support one another, the discussion will combine the findings of the two questions. An overall conclusion can be drawn from the results of this analysis that is the two sources under study had a dominant emphasis on the lower-level questions. To clarify whether the two sources under study led equally to the foregoing result, each source was examined by itself.

A. Teachers’ Questions

The analysis revealed that questions asked by teachers included a greater proportion of lower level cognitive questions than those found in Unlock Reading and Writing 1. A percentage of 87.42% was found as lower-level questions and 12.59% was found as higher-level questions. Teachers’ questions showed an unbalanced distribution of lower- and higher-level questions. The focus of the questions of the teachers is found mainly under the levels of comprehension and knowledge. Synthesis was completely ignored and the level analysis appeared only in ten questions. The order of the thinking levels was as follows: comprehension, knowledge, evaluation, application, and analysis, with synthesis excluded.

B. Second: Unlock Reading and Writing 1

The analysis revealed that Unlock Reading and Writing showed a greater percentage of higher-level questions than teachers’ questions did. A percentage of 29.94% was noticed as higher-level questions and 70.06% was categorized as lower-level questions. Opposite to the expectation, the focus was also on the comprehension level on the expense of other levels. Synthesis appeared only in one question of the whole textbook. The convincing thing is that there is much
focus on the evaluation level. The order of the inclusion of the questions in the six levels was the following: comprehension, evaluation, analysis, knowledge, application, and synthesis.

A comparison of the questioning levels in the two sources reveals significant outcomes. The results show that when moving from teachers’ questions to the textbook they teach, a drop is noticed in knowledge and application levels, and a rise is seen in the levels of comprehension, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation. It is also noticed that there is a general increase in the percentage of the higher-level questions and a decrease on the parentage of the lower-level questions which sound logical. Hence, the progression of the cognitive level questions among the two sources seems logical.

On the other hand, the predominance of the lower-level thinking questions, and the scarcity of higher-level questions show that the two sources could not provide enough higher-level questions at this level, taking into consideration that the two sources were taught for first English Language year university students. This stage requires higher levels of thinking than in previous stages. This also indicates that there was a tendency in this case to include questions prepared to help students learn facts rather than to teach them thinking. Thus it can be concluded that the main objectives of the textbook they teachers who teach them were the development of lower-order cognitive skills. Similar to earlier studies (Alul, 2005; Ewies, 2010; Igbaria, 2013; Khosand, 2009; Rawadieh, 1998; Riazi and Mosalanejad, 2010; Sunggingwati, 2003), the current study found that the examined textbooks emphasized lower-level thinking questions.

One reason which could play a part here is that the textbooks studied in the schools had an emphasis on the acquisition of knowledge through memorization rather than creativity of cognitive skills. Furthermore, the secondary examination system in Saudi schools exerts a negative backwash effect where the learners are desired to learn exactly what is included in the textbooks mostly without any changes on the part of the learner. This way, learners are required to memorize the materials and rewrite them on exam sheets.

For this reason, learners are not exposed to analyze, synthesize or evaluate the reading material. Teachers and instructors feel there is no need for going through higher-level skills and they prefer teaching their students lower-level skills. It is likely that textbook developers have also been affected by this phenomenon and have worked in favor of this objective.

X. Conclusion

Textbook questions and teachers’ questioning are regarded as one of the most important activities in EFL classroom. Based on the theory of the cognitive domain, the most important thing is that higher-cognitive levels can promote students’ higher-order thinking, because higher-level questions can require students to engage in independent thinking such as problem solving, analyzing and evaluating information. The basic purpose of this study was to analyze teachers’ and textbook questions in light of Bloom’s Taxonomy (1956), then, these questions were categorized into lower- and higher-levels.

The findings showed that teachers’ questions had a high percentage of lower-level questions than higher-level questions. Likewise, the findings showed that Questions in Unlock Reading and Writing 1 had a high percentage of lower-level questions than higher-level questions. An overall conclusion can be drawn from the results of this analysis, that is the majority of teachers’ questions in the first year are of the lower-cognitive levels (knowledge, comprehension, and application) as they are considered as lower order under bloom’s cognitive domain.

XI. Pedagogical Implications

This study investigated the levels of questions in the first year of the English Language Department at IMSIU. Therefore, many pedagogical implications can be applied driven from the present study:

1) EFL instructors should consider the need for higher-level questions in planning their lessons by emphasizing this type of questions through discussions, activities and evaluation procedures.
2) EFL instructors in general and those who teach first year at AL-Imam Mohammad Ibn Saud Islamic University in particular should not depend solely on the textbooks as a main source for questions.
3) EFL instructors AL-Imam Mohammad Ibn Saud Islamic University should be familiar with different types of questions in addition to the research findings in order to use higher level questions.
4) It would be useful for teachers and textbooks authors to have training courses on various types and levels of questions and the construction of higher level questions in particular.

XII. Suggestions for Further Research

The literature reviewed in this study illustrated that questions plays a crucial role in the teaching-learning process. Nevertheless, the investigation revealed that further research needs to be conducted related to questioning. Therefore, the current research attempted to suggest six recommendations for future research:

1- Since this study revealed a deficiency of higher level questions, it is recommended that future research be investigating the cognitive levels in teachers’ questions in order to develop their own questioning skills.
2- Future research is needed to discover the relationship between the questions levels and students’ response levels.
3- Further research is needed to investigate the impacts of higher level questions on students learning, attitude and achievement.
REFERENCES


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The Phonological Influence of Ethnic Community Languages in Learning Kiswahili, a Case of Kinyakyusa in Mbeya, Tanzania

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Abstract—It is noted that one language may have an influence in learning the other language. This influence may be vividly seen in different aspects such as phonology, morphosyntax as well as lexis. This paper focuses on investigating how the Ethnic Community Languages, henceforth ECLs, can phonologically influence the learning process of Kiswahili language. Kinyakyusa was taken as a sample to represent other ECLs in Tanzania to see its phonological influence in Learning Kiswahili. The study employed word lists, in depth interview and observations as data collection techniques. The findings revealed that, phonologically, speech sounds that are similar in Kinyakyusa and Kiswahili as a second language such as /p/, /t/, /k/, /f/, /s/ were easily learned. Learners were faced with some difficulties in pronouncing some utterances that are not found in Kinyakyusa but exist in Kiswahili. For instance, voiced alveolar trill sound /r/ was pronounced as voiced alveolar lateral sound /l/, voiceless dental fricative sound /θ/ was pronounced as voiceless alveolar fricative sound /s/.

Index Terms—phonology, Kiswahili, Kinyakyusa, Ethnic Community Language (ECL), Tanzania

I. INTRODUCTION

A. Background to the Problem

It has been found that some researchers on linguistics show the great role played by first language in the process of learning a second language. It is argued that with the first language (herein L1) and second language (herein L2) that have some similar structures and patterns, learners of L2 will not face great difficulties different from where L1 and L2 are completely different from each other. This is because the presence of some similarities in terms of structures and language patterns in L1 and L2, learners of L2 will be transferring experienced knowledge from L1.

If children do not fully acquire their first language, they may have difficulty in becoming fully literate and academically proficient in the second language (Collier, 1992, 1995). Thierry (2010), found that the Chinese – English bilinguals’ adults who are fluent in English whose first language is Chinese retrieve their native language when reading in English.

There are many studies on the role of first language in learning second language. Bada (2001), investigated Japanese learners who were learning to pronounce English sounds. His findings revealed that the phoneme /d/ replaced with /t/ in word final. Prince (1996), used 48 French University students with English as their L2. His study revealed that half of the group had to learn L2 words with their L1 equivalent translation condition. Lotto and Groot (1998), compared the L1→L2 word learning strategy with picture →L2 word learning to Dutch University (non-language) Italy was L1 and Dutch as L2. It was found that students were able to recall the Italian words faster if they used L1→L2 word learning strategy than if they used the picture →L2 word learning strategy.

In spite of many studies on the influence of L1 in learning L2, it has been found that many of these have been done to European languages and to the learners of higher learning level. With evidence from the existing literature, few studies have been done on Bantu languages and specifically on Kinyakyusa in learning Kiswahili as an L2.

B. Statement of the Problem

Observation that has been done reveals that there are similarities of some lexical items and word order between Kinyakyusa and Kiswahili as a second language. However, there are errors in use of some vocabulary and pronunciations of speech sounds that come from Kinyakyusa during the process of learning Kiswahili as a second language. For example, some Nyakyusa people fail to pronounce correctly the voiced bilabial fricative sound /v/ instead pronounce it as voiceless bilabial-dental fricative sound /f/ in words like ‘vitu’ ‘things’ it is pronounced as ‘fitu’, vaa ‘wear’ pronounced as faa ‘reasonable’. Also the voiceless palatoalveolar affricative sound /θ/ is pronounced as /ky/ in words like chai ‘tea’ which is pronounced as kyai.
This kind of study on the influence of first language in learning second language has been studied by many scholars in European languages like Dutch, Spanish, Bengali, French and English. However few scholars like Zabron (2012) investigated the challenges experienced by foreigners in learning Kiswahili in higher learning institutions. Zabron (2012) found that Spanish learners face difficulties in the area of pronunciation of some sounds and in forming plural form in Kiswahili words.

Hence, because of the relationship between Kinyakyusa and Kiswahili and other studies on the influence of first language in learning second language as mentioned above, for the best knowledge of the researcher no study has been done on the role of Kinyakyusa as a first language in learning Kiswahili as a second language. The study was based on the influence of Kinyakyusa in terms of phonology, morpho-syntactic and lexicon in the process of learning Kiswahili as a second language.

C. Objectives of the Study

Generally, this research has examined the role of Kinyakyusa as a first language in learning Kiswahili as a second language. The study is guided by the following specific objective:

(i) To investigate the phonological influence of Kinyakyusa in learning Kiswahili as a second language.

D. Research Question

The research was guided by the following questions:-

(i) What are the phonological influences of Kinyakyusa as the first language in learning Kiswahili as a second language?

E. Significance of the Study

The findings from this research will help teachers of second language consider the influences of first language in the process of learning second language. Thus, teachers should be able to assist learners when the knowledge of the first language hinders efficiency in learning the second language.

Also the researcher will gain knowledge and experience on the relationship between Kinyakyusa and Kiswahili language. Moreover, the researcher will gain skills in the general realm of research.

Furthermore, the findings from this study will be helpful to scholars and researchers as will be used as a reference while investigating the related problems in linguistic field and further research.

F. Scope of the Study

The study is on the role of Kinyakyusa as a first language in the process of learning Kiswahili as a second language. The study was conducted in Rungwe district in Kiwira and Nkunga wards. It involved Nyakyusa informants in Mbeya region.

G. Languages of the Study

This section provides a historical background and linguistic features of Kinyakyusa and Kiswahili respectively.

H. Historical Background of Kinyakyusa

Kinyakyusa is a Bantu language which is classified as M.31 (Guthrie, 1948; Maho, 2003). Kinyakyusa is mainly spoken in three districts of Kyela and Rungwe in Tanzania and Karonga in Malawi where it is called Konde. The native Nyakyusa people live in permanent villages which are politically recognized areas with administratively known borders or just an area for personal identification.

I. The Major Dialects of Kinyakyusa

Johnston (1919) identified two dialects of Kinyakyusa, namely kinyi-kiusa spoken by Nyakyusa people (Awanyakiusa) inhabiting the lake Nyasa plains and Mwamba or Iki-kukwe spoken by people inhabiting the hills (Abamwamba or Abakukwe). Wilson (1963) presents two distinct Kinyakyusa speaking people, namely Aba-Ngonde (people of the lake plains) and Aba-Mwamba (People of the hills).

J. Nyakyusa Language Phonology

Phonology is a very large and active pattern of a language. It relates to the phonetic events of speech to grammatical units operating at the morphological, lexical, syntactic and semantic levels of language. Consonants or vowels in the phonology of a given language can occur in different locations depending on the syllable structures and different environmental contexts. For any given consonant or vowel, the range of possible locations is constrained by the phonology of the language. For example, *zloty* cannot be a native word in English, because the sequence /zl/ breaks the rules about contextual occurrences in syllable initial structural position of the /z/ and /l/ consonants (Laver, 1995:38).

**Kinyakyusa Vowels**

Vowels are sonorous, syllabic sounds made with the vocal tract more open than it is for consonant and glide articulations (O’Grady, 1997). Vowels are sounds produced with less restriction of air from the lungs. Vowels are normally described with reference to four criteria as suggested by Crystal (1997: 155):

1) The part of the tongue that is raised-front, center, or back.
ii) The extent to which the tongue rises in the direction of the palate. Normally, three or four degrees are recognized: high, mid and low. Alternatively, tongue height can be described as close, mid-close, mid-open and open.

iii) The position of the soft palate - raised for oral vowels, and lowered for vowels which have been nasalized.

iv) The kind of opening made at the lips - resulting into various degrees of lip rounding or spreading.

The figure 1 below shows 7 Kinyakyusa vowel phonemes.

![Figure 1: Kinyakyusa Vowel Phonemes](image)

Examples of Kinyakyusa vowels

2. High front vowel /I/ - *-ikikota* 'chair'
   *Ikigulilo* 'lock'

Mid high front vowel /e/- *egana* 'match, resemble'
   *Embeesya* 'take or show around'

Open front vowel /a/- *amasisimbi* 'cocoyam'

High back vowel /u/- *ubukuje* 'hurry'
   /ʊ/- *ubukabi* 'richness'

Mid open back vowel /ɔ/- *mooki* 'in where'

Open back vowel /ɒ/- *onga* 'suck'

Kinyakyusa consonants

Consonants are sounds produced with restriction of air passage. Crystal (1997: 157) argues that consonants are described with reference to six criteria. These are as follows:

i) The source of the air stream - whether from the lungs (pulmonic) or from some other source (non-pulmonic)

ii) The direction of the air stream – whether moving outwards (egressive) or inwards (ingressive).

iii) The state of vibration of the vocal folds - whether vibrating (voiced) or not (voiceless).

iv) The position of the soft palate – whether raised (oral) or lowered (nasal)

v) The place of articulation in the vocal tract.

vi) The manner of articulation.

The following table 1 shows place and manner of articulation of the 15 Nyakyusa consonant sounds.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Manner of Articulation</th>
<th>Place of Articulation</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Plosives/ Stops</td>
<td>Bilabial</td>
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<td>Bilabial-dental</td>
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<td>Affricates</td>
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<td>Nasals</td>
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<td>Liquids</td>
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<td>Trill</td>
<td>W</td>
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<tr>
<td>Approximants</td>
<td>J</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Method Samwel (2008)

Nyakyusa language consonant phonemes can be exemplified as follows:

3. (a) Plosives

   Bilabial /p/ *panja* 'outside' *pakina* 'on Thursday'
   Alveolar /t/ *tuusya* 'rest'
   Velar /k/ *kasya* 'encourage'

(b) Fricatives

   *Kinda* 'pass'
   *Kupusya* 'over turn'
K. Kiswahili Phonological Inventory

Standard Kiswahili phonology is divided into two branches, namely:
(i) Segmental phonology, which deals with sounds (phonemes) and allophones, and
(ii) Suprasegmental phonology, which deals with features like intonation, syllable, tone, rhythm, and stress (Mgullu, 1999:48). Phonological inventory in Kiswahili includes segmental phonology (phonemes) which is divided into two groups, namely vowel and consonant phonemes.

Vowel Phonemes

Vowels are sounds produced without a complete closure in the mouth. Vowels are usually voiced, i.e when they are articulated, the vocal cords tend to vibrate. Thus, vowels are those units of sound which function between syllables. There are five cardinal vowels in Kiswahili: /a/, /e/, /i/, /o/, and /u/. Hyman (2003) comments that Bantu languages have canonically 7 or 5 term vowel system; Kiswahili has a 5 term vowel system. These five vowel are the ones which are taught for the students who are learning Kiswahili and standard Kiswahili in many countries which are using this language and for the students who are learning the language as a L2/FL. Figure 2 below illustrates a summary of 5 vowels in Kiswahili.

Consonant Phonemes

These are sounds produced by closure or narrowing of the vocal tract so that the air flow either is completely blocked out or restricted to produce an audible friction. Kiswahili has 26 consonant phonemes which are categorized using two principles:

Consonant Phonemes

These are sounds produced by closure or narrowing of the vocal tract so that the air flow either is completely blocked out or restricted to produce an audible friction. Kiswahili has 26 consonant phonemes which are categorized using two principles:

i) Place of articulation
ii) Manner of articulation

Table 3 below shows place and manner of Kiswahili consonant sounds

Examples,

5. i) Mid-low vowel /a/ example; ana ‘have/has’
   ii) Front, mid-low vowel /i/ example; embwe ‘kind of glue’
   iii) Front, high vowel /ɿ/ example; itika ‘respond’
   iv) Back, mid-low vowel /ɜ/ example; ona ‘see’
   v) Back, high vowel /u/ example; uma ‘bite’
TABLE 2: 
STANDARD KISWAHILI CONSONANT PHONEMES

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Manner of Articulation</th>
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<td>Plosives/Stops</td>
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<td>Dorsal Affricates</td>
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<td>Lateral</td>
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<td>Approximants</td>
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</table>

Source: Mgullu (1999:69)

These consonant phonemes can be exemplified as follows:

(a) Plosives/Stops
   a) Bilabial plosives/stops /p, b/ example; panda 'plant', biki 'pen'
   b) Alveolar plosives/stops /t, d/ example; taka 'need', dawa 'medicine'
   c) Velar plosives/stops /k, g/ example; katta 'cut', ganda 'freeze'

(b) Fricatives
   a) Bilabial fricative sound /ɱ/ example; mto 'river'
   b) Bilabial-dental fricative sounds /f, v/ example; faida 'interest', vita 'war'
   c) Dental fricative sounds /θ, ŋ/ example; thawabu 'gift', dhana 'concept'
   d) Alveolar fricative sounds /s, z/ example; samani 'furniture', zana 'apparatus'
   e) Palatal fricative sound /ʃ/ example; shati 'shirt'
   f) Velar fricative sounds /γ/ example; khaa 'expression of anger', ghala 'storehouse'
   g) Glottal fricative sound /h/ example; haya 'shame'

(c) Affricates
   Palatal affricates /ʧ, ʤ/ example; chano 'comb', jaza 'fill'

(d) Nasals
   a) Bilabial nasal sound /m/ example; majira 'season'
   b) Alveolar nasal sound /n/ example; nabii 'prophet'
   c) Palatal nasal sound /ɲ/ example; nyanya 'tomatoes'
   d) Velar nasal sound /ŋ/ example; ng'ombe 'cow'

(e) Lateral
   Alveolar lateral sound /l/ example; laza 'lay'

(f) Trill
   Alveolar trill /r/ example; ramani 'map'

(g) Approximants
   a) Bilabial approximants sound /w/ example; weka, 'put'
   b) Palatal approximants /j/ example; yatima 'orphan'

L. Theoretical Framework

The current study of the role of Kinyakyusa as a first language in learning Kiswahili as a second language is based on the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis. Contrastive Analysis is a way of comparing and contrasting various linguistic features of two languages. For example sound systems, grammatical structures, vocabulary systems, writing systems and above all cultural aspects of two languages. The basic assumption of Contrastive Analysis in learning an L2, involves transferring the linguistic forms and meanings of the L1 to an L2 by learning a set of habits. Contrastive Analysts like Lado (1957) and Selinker (1992) argue that some languages are easier to learn than others because of similarity of some language patterns in both languages as the learner transfers experienced knowledge from first language to second language. Also where languages differ greatly in structure the learner will face some difficulties in the process of learning the second language as her/his former knowledge from L1 language may hinder learning L2 (Lado 1957). Thus, Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis is based on three main theoretical claims which are:

i) The learner expects to find equivalence between the L1 and L2.
ii) Learning the L2 requires the learner to learn something which is different from the L1.
iii) The learner finds it difficult to learn the new language when structures and patterns in the two languages differ (Selinker, 1992).

II. LITERATURE REVIEW
This is an account of what has been done or published on a problem area by scholars and researchers. This part includes motivation for language learning, the concept of language competence, phonological, morpho-syntactic and lexical influences of first native languages in learning second/foreign languages.

A. Motivation for Language Learning

In real life, there are several reasons for a person to learn something. For example, language learners learn a language because they want to acquire, use, and communicate with those who speak the target language. Also, perhaps they learn a given language because they want to know their culture and learn about the country where the language is spoken (Nakanishi, 2002).

Motivation determines the extent of effort one exerts to fit into second or foreign language learning. The more motivation one has, the more effort one tends to put into learning the language. Thus, motivation leads to success in learning of any kind.

Gardner & Lambert (1972) proposed that motivation is influenced by two orientations to language learning. An integrative orientation is typical of someone who identifies with and values the target language and community, and who approaches language study with the intention of joining that community. Such an individual is thought to have an internal, more enduring motivation for language study. Instrumentally, motivated learners on the other hand, are more likely to see language learning as enabling them to do other useful things, rather than having no special significance in it. Such learners will be motivated if they see language learning as having beneficial career prospects or something that will enable them to use transactional language with speakers of the second or foreign language (as cited in Nakanishi, 2002). Gardner and Lambert (1972) suggested that individuals with an integrative orientation would demonstrate greater motivational effect in learning L2, and thus achieve greater L2 competence.

B. The Concept of Language Competence

Valdes and Figueroa (1994) posit that knowing a language and knowing how to use it involves a mastery and control of a large number of interdependent components and elements that interact with one another and that are affected by the nature of the situation in which communication takes place. These components are manifest at different levels such as communicative competence level as well as grammatical/linguistic competence level.

C. Phonological Influence of First Language in Learning Second Language

Phonological awareness plays a major role in learning to read words, sentences or paragraphs in a particular language. It refers to the sounds of one’s language in the processing of writing and speaking. So, it is the awareness of and access to the phonology of one’s language. Successful acquisition of phonological representations needs accurate perception of phonemic intricacies. It is proved empirically that phonological awareness helps in the development of fine reading (Avanika, 2009).

Phonetics and phonology are the main parts of direct L1 influence on the pronunciation of second language learning (target language). In languages (L1 and L2) that are in the same family, there are articulatory similarities and differences in the utterance. For instance, Islam (2004) found similarities of some English and Bengali sounds but some particular sounds were different from the target language sounds in a very small but critical way in terms of articulation. The nearer these articulatory organs are to each, the more replacement of the L2 sounds occurs with L1 sounds. This replacement of L2 sounds with L1 endows the utterances with particular characteristics. Through this understanding, that is why one can identify Indian English, Chinese English or African English. The same applies to Tanzania where we can identify the speakers of Kiswahili either coming from Mtwaru, Mbeya, Mwanza or Zanzibar relying to pronunciation of words as are influenced by their first languages. However, learners of higher proficiency may often eradicate this L1 influence if they are more attentive to production of particular sound. Mostly if they are more exposed to the native target language speech.

There are some sounds in English which are more similar to some sounds in Bengali but which involve different articulatory organs. For example, English has labial dental fricative sounds like /θ/ and /ñ/ where as Bengali has bilabial stops /pʰ/ and /bʰ/. It happens that in pronouncing those two English sounds, Bengali speakers use both their lips instead of using the upper teeth and the lower lip. Hence, all the words with these sounds are heard as aspirated bilabial plosives rather than voiceless bilabial dental fricative sound /θ/ or voiced bilabial dental fricative sound /ñ/. Example of words that be can given from the conversation are like fine, very, fish, etc. However native English speaker may confuse these words as aspirated /pʰ/ and /bʰ/ (Islam, 2004).

The English sounds like voiced alveolar fricative sound /ɹ/, voiced palatoalveolar affricate sound /ʤʃ/ and voiced palatoalveolar fricate sound /ʃ/ are similar to two types of /ɹ/ and /ʤʃ / sounds in Bengali. But a sound like /ʃ/ often creates problems to all types of learners at the initial level. They cannot often produce the actual /ʃ/ sound in the word like ‘closure’. Instead they produce this sound either as /ʤʃ / or akin to voiceless palatoalveolar fricative sound /ʃ/. Here confusion may also arise to the listener due to this mispronunciation (Islam, 2004).

Lexical judgment tests using Japanese Kana (a syllabic script consisting of Hiragana and Katakana) were given to native English and native Chinese learners of Japanese. The visual familiarity and length in test words were controlled to examine the involvement of phonological or visual coding in word recognition strategies. The responses of the English and Chinese subjects were compared on the basis of observed reaction time. The results indicated that (a)
Chinese subjects relied more on visual information in L2 Japanese kana words than did English subjects and (b) English subjects utilized the phonological information in Japanese kana words more than did Chinese subjects. Accordingly, these findings demonstrated that native speakers of English and Chinese utilized different word recognition strategies due to L1 orthographic characteristics, and such L1 word recognition strategies were transferred into L2 Japanese kana word recognition (Chikamstu, 1996).

Transfer from the L1 to the L2 involves both use and acquisition i.e. it may affect both the processes of speaking in the short term and the processes of learning over a period of time. The influence of the L1 on the L2 is obvious from our everyday experience. For example, most native speakers of English can tell whether an L2 user comes from Japan, German, France, or Spain (Cook, 2008).

Bebout, (1985) found that writing system of Spanish adult learners of English as L2 has L1 influence as they transfer spelling. Adult Spanish learners of English show characteristic Spanish transfer mistakes involving the double letters <rr> and <ll> and transpositions involving <d> and <r>. Some 38.5 percent of English spelling mistakes were made by 10-year-old Welsh, whether from phonological interference in the L2 pronunciation, orthographic interference from Welsh sound/ letter rules, or transfer of cognate words (James 1998). Different L1s produce characteristic spelling mistakes in English; For instance; Japanese learners of English frequently confuse <s> and <z> as in walmer, grobal and sarary (Cook, 2001), perhaps because of their well-known pronunciation difficulties with the sounds /h/ and /r/, perhaps partly because of the way that English loan words are spelled in the kana syllabic system in Japanese.

Research into phonological transfer has also progressed from list of phonemes to more general aspects. In the acquisition of English stress assignment by speakers of Polish and Hungarian, 95 percent of the mistakes consisted of transfer of L1 metrical settings (Archibald, 1993). English syllables were made to conform to the structure of the L1 by adding epenthetic syllables- [filoor] (Egyptian floor) [piliz] (Hindi please) and [iskul] (Bengali school) (Broselow, 1992) as cited in (Cook, 2008).

Bada (2001:8-9), investigated Japanese learners who were learning to pronounce English sounds. He observed that the Japanese found it difficult to pronounce English sounds. The results were as follows; the phoneme [d] was observed to have been replaced with /h/ in word-final position only. This phoneme in both word-initial and word-medial positions does not pose any problem to Japanese learners in pronunciation because both the /d/ and /h/ phonemes appear in these two positions.

It has been observed that learner’s speech is one of the most recognizable features of a L2 learner as it bears a certain resemblance to L1. It shows that some learners whose L1 is French for example, are likely to sound different from those whose L1 is German when they both speak English. For example,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English target</th>
<th>French speaker</th>
<th>German speaker</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>have /haev/</td>
<td>[av]</td>
<td>[h æf ]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the above example, the French speakers show that French lacks the phoneme /h/ while the German pronunciation can be traced to the fact that German learner transfers feature or rule from her/his L1 to the L2 grammar as examples show in table 5 below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>L1</th>
<th>L2</th>
<th>Example</th>
<th>Comment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Spanish</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>I speak English</td>
<td>Spanish does not allow addition of s consonant sequences word-initially.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>French</td>
<td>[tʃ] (you)→[tm]</td>
<td>English does not have the front, rounded vowel [y]. The English speaker substitutes the [tʃ] sound.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quebec French</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>Over dere</td>
<td>The [ ʌ ] sound is replaced by [ d ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>European French</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>Over zere</td>
<td>The [ z ] sound is replaced by [ z ]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Language old Source: O’Grady (1997 :504-505)

Zabron (2012) investigated the challenges that face Finnish people in learning Kiswahili. His findings revealed that foreigners experience some phonological difficulties in the area of pronunciation. Some of sounds like /z/, /ʃ/, /ŋ/, /w/, /θ/, /ð/, and non-syllabic of /lm/ and /ln/ were very difficult for the Finnish students to pronounce.

D. Existing Gap

Despite the fact that studies have been conducted on the role of first language in learning second language, these studies seem to have been done in different countries mostly in European countries. Majority of the researchers used informants of first languages who were in higher learning institutions. That is, where the second languages are not used in the daily life environment. According to the existing literature, not much has been done on Bantu languages within the Tanzania context specifically to Kinyakyusa as L1. Therefore, this study intended to fill the gap left by previous studies by investigating the phonological influence of Kinyakyusa as L1 in learning Kiswahili as L2; where both Kinyakyusa and Kiswahili are Bantu languages. Also Kiswahili is a medium of instruction in primary schools and it is the national language in Tanzania whereas Kinyakyusa is among the Tanzanian community ethnic languages. The researcher has used informants from primary and secondary schools of lower class in remote rural areas.

III. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY
A. Research Design

The research design used in this study is qualitative since the researcher investigated the influence of first language in learning the second language involving learners in their natural environment. Qualitative analysis helped the researcher to study individual performance closely. The researcher examined the presence or absence of phonological influence of Kinyakyusa as a first language in the process of learning Kiswahili as a second language.

The researcher conducted a pilot study before the main study was carried out. This helped the researcher in testing the variables, instruments of data collection, informants and selected methods of data collection with prepared questions intended to reveal the desired information.

The researcher collected information from the informants who are Nyakyusa in Rungwe district in Kiwira and Nkunga wards. Word lists and observations were used in collecting relevant information. In-depth interview with open ended questions were administered to the purposely selected informants. The collected information was summarized, described in detailed and tables were used in presenting findings.

B. Area of the Study

The area of the study was in Mbeya region, Rungwe district at Kiwira and Nkunga wards. Primary and secondary schools were selected purposely in the study taking into consideration those areas where Kinyakyusa is mostly spoken, that is, rural areas which include, Ibagha and Ibula primary schools with Kiwira secondary school in Kiwira ward. Likewise, Nkunga ward, Matweli and Lupepo with Nkunga secondary schools were involved. This is because these places are in remote areas where Nyakyusa are dominant and familiar to the researcher. Also, due to limited resources which include time, area for the study could not go beyond two wards.

Kiwira and Nkunga are administrative wards in Rungwe district of the Mbeya region south of Tanzania. According to the 2002 census, Kiwira ward had a total population of 20,119 and Nkunga 14,685. Kiwira coordinates 9° 10'S 33° 32'E.

C. Sample Size and Sampling Techniques

The study involved a sample of twenty four pupils of primary schools and eight students of secondary schools in lower classes who were selected randomly. Also a sample of eight teachers from four primary schools and two teachers from two secondary schools were selected deliberately. Thus seventeen informants from each ward that is Kiwira and Nkunga wards were selected to represent others. The researcher asked the informants from standard two, three, four and to count number one to twenty four. Then those who counted even numbers were selected to represent others.

That is, from each class two pupils were involved. The same in secondary schools four students form one students conversant with Kinyakyusa and Kiswahili were selected randomly. Six teachers teaching Kiswahili as a subject in both primary and secondary schools were selected. That is, in each primary school two teachers teaching Kiswahili as subject in lower classes were selected. Like wise in each secondary school one teacher teaching Kiswahili as subject in form one was selected for the study.

D. Data Collection Techniques

Four research techniques were used by the researcher in collecting information. These are questionnaires, word lists, interviews and observations.

Word lists

The researcher presented an oral reading and asked the informants to read it loudly. A total of 20 Kiswahili words were used. These words had hypothesized sounds that Nyakyusa speakers would face some difficulties in pronouncing them properly since Kinyakyusa phonology inventory does not have them.

Also some words with sounds that are found in both Kinyakyusa and Kiswahili were presented. The informants were asked to read those words loudly with the researcher listening carefully at the same time writing in the note book and recording them. This task was used for testing pronunciation so as to detect any phonological influence of the first language in learning second language.

Interviews

In this study, interviews were conducted to six informants, that is Nyakyusa primary school and secondary teachers in Kiwira and Nkunga wards respectively. The researcher asked the informants some questions about the study of which they replied while the researcher listened carefully and noted in the notebook.

Observations

The researcher collected descriptive data by observing learners engaged in the second language learning in their daily life. For example, the way they pronounced words, used lexical items and their formulation of grammatical sentences. The researcher was involved in different conversations through different contexts such as at home, at school when teachers were teaching as well as political, religious and community development meetings. Through this way, the researcher noted in the notebook the information related to the study.

E. Data Analysis Procedure

The raw data from informants were textual. They were processed into useful information. The researcher derived a set of categories in the data obtained from word lists, interviews and observations. The Data were categorized by
looking for commonalities, regularities/patterns across the data variations. These categories were then investigated by cross-referencing to see whether there were relationships that would assist in understanding the phonological influence of the first language in learning the second language.

Finally, these data were presented descriptively and in terms of tables.

F. Reliability and Validity of the Research Study

Researchers used triangulation in the process of collecting and analyzing data. Careful listening and note taking during interview and reading word lists assisted the researcher by referring to them during data analysis. The data collected were analyzed the same day after the interview so as to keep memory. Triangulation has been found an important methodology in naturalistic and qualitative approaches to evaluation. This is because it helped the researcher in controlling bias and establishing valid propositions.

Generally, researchers adhered to the three basic ethical principles which are respect for persons, beneficence and justice as suggested by Krysik (2007: 32).

IV. DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

A. Phonological Influences of Kinyakyusa in Learning Kiswahili as a Second Language

Generally, phonology involves two studies. It includes the study of production, transmission and reception of speech sounds (phonetics) and the study of the sounds and sound patterns of a specific language (phonemics). Human beings are capable of producing an infinite number of sounds but no language uses more than a small proportion of this infinite set and no two human languages make use of exactly the same set of sounds. It has been observed that when we speak, there is continuous movement of such organs as the tongue, the velum (soft palate), the lips and the lungs. Human beings put spaces between individual words in the written medium but there are no similar spaces in speech (Todd, 1987).

Phonological influence of L1 in learning L2 can be revealed in phonemic differences, segmental errors (i.e. errors concerning vowel and consonant), supra-segmental errors regarding stress, tone rhythm and other factors. In case of pronunciation stress is essential for listeners to recognize a word class because it may affect syllables and the segments that constitute certain nouns and verbs such as between COMbine and comBINE (Odlin, 1989: 116). Odlin also mentions Bansal’s (1976) opinion about English in India where unintelligibility and misidentification mostly arises due to errors in the stress patterns in the pronunciation in English.

Kinyakyusa language as one among the Bantu languages has some sounds that are similar to Kiswahili. These similarities of such sounds between two languages play a great role in the process of learning a second language. As normal, children in rural areas acquire their native languages before L2 the process that simplifies the learning of second language.

For the sake of specificity, this study is based only on sounds (phonemes) leaving out the other aspects of prosodic features which are intonation, pitch, syllable, tone, rhythm, accent, and stress. The researcher concentrated on sounds since the speaking skill which is basic in learning language involves sounds.

The word lists comprised of Kiswahili words with phonemes that were hypothesized that Nyakyusa people face some difficulties in pronouncing them. Skutnabb-Kangas (1981) cited by Orekan (2011) found that first language is the language that one thinks, dreams and counts in. The similarities of sounds enable the learner to transfer the same sounds features which are intonation, pitch, syllable, tone, rhythm, accent, and stress. The researcher concentrated on sounds since the speaking skill which is basic in learning language involves sounds.

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The data from table 6 above show that there are sounds from Kinyakyusa that are similar to Kiswahili, for instance: (a) /p/ in word like pijia (L1) pika (L2) “cook”

Table 4: The Similar Sounds from Kinyakyusa to Kiswahili Language

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Kinyakyusa</th>
<th>Twvani</th>
<th>Kinyakyusa Examples</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>P</td>
<td>/p/</td>
<td>p/</td>
<td>poka</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>t</td>
<td>/t/</td>
<td>t/</td>
<td>tamya</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>k</td>
<td>/k/</td>
<td>k/</td>
<td>kaabila</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>l</td>
<td>/l/</td>
<td>l/</td>
<td>lila</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>m</td>
<td>/m/</td>
<td>m/</td>
<td>mpiki</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n</td>
<td>/n/</td>
<td>n/</td>
<td>nkati</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ng'</td>
<td>/ŋ/</td>
<td>ng'/</td>
<td>ng'ombe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>w</td>
<td>/w/</td>
<td>w/</td>
<td>bwima</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>j</td>
<td>/j/</td>
<td>j/</td>
<td>jeela</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ny</td>
<td>/ŋ/</td>
<td>ny/</td>
<td>nyegeyesya</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field data (2013)
(b) /l/ in word like tuula (L1) tua (L2) ‘help’
(c) /k/ in word kosomola (L1) kohoa (L2) ‘cough’
(d) /f/ in word fumbula (L1) fumba (L2) ‘reveal’
(e) /s/ in word sipuka (L1) sinzia (L2) ‘doze’
(f) /h/ in word hangajika (L1) hangaika (L2) ‘be worried’
(g) /l/ in word lisya (L1) liza (L2) ‘cause somebody to cry’

From the above, it is true that Kinyakyusa has sounds that are similar to Kiswahili language. Since children in rural areas do acquire Kinyakyusa first then later Kiswahili, there is high possibility for the learner to transfer knowledge from L1 to L2. Sarig (1988) investigated the relative contribution of L1 reading strategies and L2 proficiency to L2 reading to female students aged 17 who had Hebrew as L1 and English as L2. She found that the identification of the main idea of a text was achieved in the same way in L2 as in L1.

Through the word lists that were prepared by the researcher as was predicted that there were Kiswahili phonemes that Nyakyusa speakers face difficulties in pronouncing, it was found that some informants especially of primary schools in standard two to four in rural areas pronounce Kiswahili words incorrectly. This is because they are affected by Kinyakyusa is used in the society more than Kiswahili. The words that were heard with incorrect pronunciation were as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Correct Pronunciation</th>
<th>Incorrect Pronunciation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Zamani</td>
<td>/saman/</td>
<td>/samani/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zaa</td>
<td>/saa/</td>
<td>/saa/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zote</td>
<td>/sote/</td>
<td>/sote/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zizi</td>
<td>/sisi/</td>
<td>/sisi/</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is shown in the data 23 above that the informants’ errors in pronunciation resulted into change of the intended meaning especially when they were pronounced singly, that is out of the context. For instance zamani which means long time ago was pronounced as samani which means furniture, zaa which means give birth or produce was pronounced as ssa which means a watch/ a clock. Thus these words when they were pronounced out of context brought irrelevant meanings but when used in the context it was easier to understand them. For example:

Zamani watu walikuwa wachache ukinganganisha na sasa /saman/ watu walikuwa wachache ukinganganisha na sasa/

‘In past there were few people compared to the present’

Although there are errors in pronouncing zamani and samani being used in the context it became easier to detect error and know such an utterance meant.

The problem is not only limited to the above sounds that the lay Nyakyusa speaker faces difficulties in pronouncing standard Kiswahili words, but also there are others like voiceless palatal alveolar affricate sound /h/ which was almost always pronounced as ky. For example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Correct Pronunciation</th>
<th>Incorrect Pronunciation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Changu</td>
<td>/kyangu/</td>
<td>/kyangu/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chai</td>
<td>/kyai/</td>
<td>/kyai/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chama</td>
<td>/kyama/</td>
<td>/kyama/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chuma</td>
<td>/kyuma/</td>
<td>/kyuma/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chura</td>
<td>/kyula/</td>
<td>/kyula/</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This kind of errors is the result of phonological process known as palatalization. Palatalization is the process of consonant assimilation. It is when a non-palatal consonant acquires some palatal characteristics in its articulation due to the following glide or vowel. For instance the word

chai its internal morphology is ki + ai

From the word chai the glide process takes place as follows:

ki→
i→+y/ + I

kyai
From the above example, high front vowel i changes into glide y where there is a sound vowel which follows after morpheme boundary. The palatalization process is similar in Nupe, a West African language where consonants are palatalized before front vowels. For instance,

eg  +  i  _______  egyi  ‘child’
eg  +  e  _______  egye  ‘beer’


Also the voiceless dental fricative sound /θ/ was pronounced as voiceless alveolar fricative sound /s/ as shown below:

the latini  /θelastini/  ‘thirty’
themani  /θemanini/  ‘eighty’
thamani  /θamanini/  ‘value’

This kind of influence of the first language in learning the second language is supported by Laver (1995:79), who argued that, the deviations in performance of a foreign language by a speaker from native-speaker-like norms of pronunciation are almost all directly attributable to the influence of differences between the phonetic and phonological patterns of the foreign language and the speaker’s own native language. For example, Received Pronunciation (herein RP) distinguishes two phonemes voiceless dental fricative sound /θ/ and voiced the voiced alveolar fricative sound /z/, that French speakers who use only the voiced alveolar fricative sound /z/, Similarly where the RP vowel system distinguishes between /i/ and /ɪ/ (as in híd/hɪd/) and heed /hɪd/ respectively法国 uses only /ɪ/.

Another sound that Nyakyusa learners of Kiswahili face some difficulties in pronouncing correctly is voiceless labiodental fricative sound /ʃ/ which almost always was pronounced as /f/ as data below show in example 28:

fany /fany/  ‘do’
fagia /fagia/  ‘sweep’
faulu /fauulu/  ‘pass’
fahamu /fahamu/  ‘understand’

The findings of the data 28 above show errors in pronunciation. This is because, in Kinyakyusa, some sounds are pronounced differently from their orthography.

When the researcher was analyzing the recorded sounds, it was found that sound /y/ was always almost pronounced as /i/ as in the following words:

yohana /yohana/  ‘John’
yule /yule/  ‘that’
yeremia /yeremia/  ‘Yeremia’
yote /yote/  ‘all’

The palatal glide sound /j/ was pronounced as /i/ similar to English palatal glide. This is because there are some Nyakyusa sounds that are pronounced differently from their orthography.

In addition, there was the voiced bilabial plosive sound /b/ that was pronounced as /β/ different from native speaker of Kiswahili. This is because there is no plosive voiced sound /b/ in Kinyakyusa. For example,

30. baha /bhabha/  ‘father’
bara /bhala/  ‘court’
bandari /bhandari/  ‘harbour’
bendera /bhendela/  ‘flag’

In general, the data show Kinyakyusa phonological influences permeate in Kiswahili as learners transfer some sounds from their first language when learning second language. This is supported by Flege (1999), that the initial point for L2 speech development is the L1 phonetic groups. For example, a study involving Spanish L1-English L2 with children aged 4 to 7 years, found them to be more accurate in their production of phonemes that are shared between two languages than of the phonemes that are present only in the English as L2.

B. The Way Theoretical Framework is Related to This Study

Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis as the theoretical framework to this study has been fulfilled. This Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis is based on three main theoretical claims. These are, the learner expects to find equivalence between the L1 and L2, learning the L2 requires the learner to learn something which is different from the L1 and the
learner finds it difficult to learn the new language when structures and patterns in the the two languages differ (Selinker, 1992).

This study involved Kinyakyusa as L1 and Kiswahili as L2 and the findings reveal that learners found some equivalence and differences between Kinyakyusa and Kiswahili. Where there were similarities, the learner learnt L2 without greater difficulties in sharp contrast where there were some differences from L1 to L2. Thus, the learner of L2 required to learn something which was different from L1.

V. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

A. Conclusion

This study has examined the phonological influence of Kinyakyusa as a first language in learning Kiswahili as a second language. The study found that both Kinyakyusa and Kiswahili are Bantu languages. Thus, inspite of some differences between them as each language has its own features, there are great similarities between Kinyakyusa and Kiswahili that greatly facilitate in learning Kiswahili as a second language. This correlates with Zabron (2012:127) who by quoting Selinker (1992) argues, that learners find it easy to learn a language when structures and patterns in the two languages are similar and find it difficult to learn the new language when two languages differ.

B. Recommendations

In this study recommendations are of two kinds, notably recommendations for action and for further research.

Recommendations for Action

Academicians should be writing on first languages, that is first languages should be kept in a written form. This study has examined some first languages and came to the conclusion that such languages are not in written form, hence affecting to some extent the learning process as learners face with insufficient reference during learning process.

Parents and community in general should expose their first/native languages to their children rather than devaluing them and instead putting premium on foreign languages. The study found that there are some parents who purposely do not expose their first languages to their children thinking that it is useless to do so. Thus, children growing in such an atmosphere are deprived of potential their native languages. However, the current study believes that such languages are immense resource. Therefore, they should be taught to children in their formative years as prepatations to equip them with potential resources of learning other second languages especially Kiswahili.

Teachers should consider the learner’s first language when teaching a second language. This is because the learner’s first language has influence in learning a second language.

Likewise, Tanzania language policy should explain how ethnic community languages can be supported. For example, this can be done through assigning them some formal roles. This will add some values to ethnic community languages.

Recommendations for Further Research

It is suggested that this study should be conducted in larger area beyond the confines of the current study. This is because, due to limitation of resources in terms of funds and time, this study was conducted in Rungwe district involving only two wards.

It is also suggested that these studies should not only be confined to Kinyakyusa language but should also involve other ethnic languages by examining the roles they play in learning Kiswahili as a second language.

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Ethics and Translation of Shakespeare’s Dramas
—A Case Study on Zhu Shenghao’s Translation of Romeo and Juliet

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Abstract—Since 1980s, the researchers weren’t bound by the ideal of “faithfulness” in translation, but the ethics of “keeping differences” is advocated. Establishing a code of conduct of the cross-cultural exchanges and the translator will be and should be bound by these guidelines has been advocated. This is the translator’s professional ethics called the Ethics of Translation. Ethics of Translation has greatly expanded the view of translation studies and made a great significance in protecting the vulnerable culture from being invaded by the strong culture. As everyone knows, Shakespeare’s plays had a great impact on both the Chinese and Western cultures. So a lot of well-known translators have translated Shakespeare’s plays. Among them, many readers are favor of Zhu Shenghao’s translation of “Romeo and Juliet”, which will be explained in the paper in the perspective of Chesterman’s ethics of translation to find the inherent relationship between Ethics of Translation and the translations of Shakespeare’s plays, so that we can find a new way to study the translation of Shakespeare’s plays and make the ethics of translation into practice.

Index Terms—ethics of translation, Shakespeare, Chesterman, Romeo and Juliet, Zhu Shenghao

I. INTRODUCTION

A. Background of the Study

As the world has ever known, William Shakespeare (1564-1616) is one of the most remarkable playwrights and poets, an European representative of Renaissance literature. With his 38 plays, 154 sonnets and 2 long poems, he has established his giant position in world literature. He has also been given the highest praises by various scholars and critics over the world. In the past few centuries, his works have been translated into different languages.

Some of his most famous plays are Hamlet and Romeo and Juliet. Romeo and Juliet, formerly known as The Most Excellent and Lamentable Tragedy of Romeo and Juliet is William Shakespeare’s famous dramatic works. The story tells two young people fall in love at first sight on the ball and know their families are enemies after that. At last, the lovers end in suicide together for love. The play was adapted into several opera, dance, film, animation and so on.

Chinese translators are favor of Shakespeare’s works from early 19th century (Liu Song, 2009). In 1904, the whole adaption maybe including Romeo and Juliet translated into Chinese and the play was firstly translated in vernacular Chinese by Tian Han in 1924. Later, there came a boom of translating Shakespeare’s works.

Zhu Shenghao is the first one who attempted to translate the complete works of Shakespeare into Chinese. His version of Romeo and Juliet could be the most popular one. Till now, many translators including Liang Shiqiu, Cao Yu and so on have translated this play.(Li Beihong, 2008)

The study of translation has gone through the stage of prescriptive study, descriptive study and professional ethics. Many critics explain Zhu Shenghao’s translations in different view at different stage. At the stage of prescriptive study, there are many comments on his Chinese version of Romeo and Juliet from the prescriptive of Toury’s Theory of translational norms and then some about descriptive study. There isn’t enough study about professional ethics in the translation of Zhu Shenghao’s Romeo and Juliet.

B. Significance of the Study

William Shakespeare’s works are very important in influencing Chinese literature and Romeo and Juliet is most popular in china. So the study of the play’s translation is essential. The significance of this paper is that it explains the new theory of translation (Andrew Chesterman’s research on translational ethics and professional ethics) and uses it to study Zhu Shenghao’s translation of Romeo and Juliet. This will greatly expand the view of translation studies and make a great significance in protecting the vulnerable culture from being invaded by the strong culture (Andrew Chesterman, 2002).

This paper is aimed at explaining Zhu Shenghao’s translation of Romeo and Juliet based on Andrew Chesterman’s research on translational ethics and professional ethics. It will be explained that in which culture, historical, social condition, Zhu Shenghao has translated Romeo and Juliet with ethics of representation, ethic of service, ethic of
communication, and ethics of norm. Then ethical values of clarity, truth, trust and understanding in it will be discussed and clear answers of the following will be given to the following questions: Why Zhu Shenghao translated in this play? Why he chose this way to translate? And what influenced his translation strategy?

C. Structure of the Paper

There are five parts in this paper. Introduction describes the background and significance of the research paper, then a review of study on translation of Shakespeare’s plays at home and abroad. This main text is divided into two parts. The first part of the system introduces the translational ethic’s background, definition, development process and the research situation in the West; the second part is a case study that uses Chesterman’s translational ethics and professional commitment to explain Zhu Shenghao’s translation of Romeo and Juliet. Conclusion summarizes the paper. Finally are references and appendices.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Studies on the Translation of Shakespeare’s Works

A lot of famous translators have translated Shakespeare’s plays. Among them, Liang Shiqiu and Zhu Shenghao are most famous for doing that. So many critics study the translation of Shakespeare’s plays from the point of the two translators themselves.

Xu Ling, comes from Anhui Normal University, explains Liang Shiqiu’s translation of Shakespeare from the perspective of Liang Shiqiu’s the new Humanistic thought. Around the “rationality” and “humanity”, she interprets that from Liang Shiqiu’s purpose of choosing the subject to the selection on translation materials and strategies have reflected his new Humanistic thought. And the author thinks only from the literature and art view to study his concept of translation is not enough. Another researcher from Suzhou University, Ren Xiuying, from the perspective of "Poetic Charm" interprets Zhu Shenghao’s power of translating Shakespeare’s plays. Some others studies are like that.

But, the study on Shakespeare translation has focused on the study of various translation theories. Many studies as follows:

Li Beihong, comes from East China Normal University, solves a contravention in Shakespeare’s translation from the perspective of the skopos theory. As we know, drama is generally regarded as a mixed art, literature and performing art. Then there is a conflict in drama translation: to faithfully transmit the cultural specificity, or to adapt to stage performance with some cultural information lost? Li thinks that the purpose of translation is the most important factor in translation and if the translation can reach the intention, it will be a successful version (Li Beihong. 2008).

Learners like Wang Fang and Zhang Cong (from Liaoning Normal University) explain translation of Shakespeare’s plays from the perspective of Toury’s theory of Translational Norms. Toury divides the translational norms into 3 categories: initial norms, preliminary norms and operational norms. Through analyzing three translator’s (Liang Shiqiu’s, Zhu Shenghao’s, Fang Ping’s) Chinese versions of Shakespeare’s Hamlet, it can be drawn that the translation process is affected by norms from its very beginning so that different effects by different norms in different phases on the translation result in the distinct versions. These norms constrain choosing the source text, the literary style and linguistic style, as well as translatiing strategies. (Wang Fang, 2009)

Zhong Xue from Guangxi Normal University explains Liang Shiqiu’s translation of Shakespeare’s four comedies from the perspective of Andre Lefevere’s manipulation theory. Andre Lefevere thought that all translation is manipulated by three elements: ideology, poetics and patronages.

We can draw a conclusion from above that the study on translation of Shakespeare’s works has focused on the study of famous translators and various translational theories.

B. Related Study on Translation Theory

The study on translation has gone through the stage of prescriptive study, descriptive study and professional ethics. Prescriptive study: it is principle of value judgments which put forward by someone’s subjective will, involving the “merits” or “should”, “should not be”. It is translation standard. In a word, it is the same with the traditional thinking of “Faithfulness”. They, regardless of text type, reader and the using occasion of translation, thought that the only purpose of the translation is faithful. But the specific context in which aspects to be faithful, form, content, function, effect, etc., have a different focus each time. China has also been studying in this area, such as Yan Fu’s “believe”.

Descriptive study: to express the data objectively and not touch value judgments. It’s aimed at finding the regular of translation. Its content includes the acceptance of readers, the choice of translation on different cultures, different historical periods, and choice of translation strategies. From 1950s to 1960s, the translation studies of linguistics are mostly descriptive; representatives are Viney & Darbelnet (1995), Catford (1965) and so on and famous theory is “translation norm”.

Professional ethics: principles of some religion and school. It appears in 1990s and representatives are Anthony Pym, Andrew Chesterman and so on.

III. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK
A. The Importance of Translation Ethics

At present, there is a saying in the ethical field that where there is a relationship between people, there ethics exists and plays a role. Translation is an ethical activity, because its main characters are the relationships between people, such as relationships between writers and translators, translators and readers, translators and translation reviewers, the translator and the sponsor. And the relationship between the cultures determines the translation is a cross-cultural exchange, involving the relationship between the two cultures. So to have equaled and health exchange between different cultures is the translation goal. Ethics guidance is necessary in handling the various relationships correctly in the translation process and coordinating the conflict between foreign culture and local culture.

And look at the whole studies process of translation, translation ethics should become a hot issue. Translation studies have gone through three stages: philological translational research phase before the 1950s; structuralism linguistics stage from 1950s to 1980s; then till today are the research phase of deconstruction. The research of deconstruction is mainly about external factors’ impact on the translation; there are schools of multiple systems, manipulation and so on. The translation ethics is discuss the interpersonal relationship (belongs to external factors) in translation, so it is a part of deconstruction studies. Concluding from that, research of translation ethics should be one of hotspot in translation studies.

B. The Definition of Translation Ethics

From the former studies, we can conclusion that translation ethics is defined as the ethical norms in the translation process, the ethics code of dealing with “interpersonal relationships” through translating. Specifically, it are ethics in translation dealing with the relationship between authors and translators, translators and readers, translators and translation reviewers, translators and the sponsor and so on, coordinating the conflict between foreign culture and the indigenous culture.

C. The History Process of Translation Ethics

1. Study on the Translation Ethics in Western

Translation ethics in the Western began from 80s of last century. The concept of “translation ethics” first put forward in early 1984, Antoine Berman’s *L’ épreuve del’ étranger: culture et traduction dans l’ Allemagne romantique*. He believes that “the modern thought about translation and the translator should from the following three aspects: the history of translation, ethics of translation and the analysis of translation”. He also believes that the “proper ethical goal” of translation is “from different to different” and the original and the differences in original language and original culture should be respected and highlighted. Later, in *Pour Une Critique des Traductions: John Donne* and other works, he again interpreted that a translator, if accepted or engaged in a particular translation, he began to take some responsibility and obligation. As a social person, the translator is bound to be some kind of moral restraint when faces the original and service object.

In 1997, Anthony Pym published *Pour une éthique du traducteur*. He regarded translation as “a communication act, provided for a client, a professional service for the established receiver”. He pointed “the translator providing services stands at the junction of two cultures, belong to none of their cultural community”. And then propose the concept of “cultures” which makes the “faithful ethics” in translation change to the ethics of “cultural communication”. He also believes that the role of the ethics of translation is to make the translate professional, and the main part of translation ethics is intersubjective ethics (professional ethics).

In the same year, Finland’s Andrew Chesterman in his book, *Menes of Translation: the Spread of Ideas in Translation Theory*, devoted to discuss the translation of ethical issues, outline the contours of the ethics of translation and interpreted the basic research areas of translation ethics.

In 1998, the representative of deconstruction from United States, Lawrence Venuti, in the book of *The Scandals of Translation: towards an Ethics of Difference* expressed the view that “as the main body in translation, actors, regardless of subjective desires, in objectively must be one of the conspiracy’s masters with the local systems and institutions of exploitation in using foreign text and culture”. His translation ethical goal is to oppose the “identity” and the cultural colonialism, but in reality is the thought of “reserving differences theory”.

In 2001, the United Kingdom Jerome publishing’s *The Translator*, in volume II, published *The Return to Ethics*, then “return to translation ethics” gradually known.

In 2002, Jenny Williams from Ireland and Chesterman had ever co-authored a book called *The Map: A Beginner's Guide to Doing Research in Translation Studies*. They do the induction about the research content to translation ethics, dividing the study field of translation ethics into four aspects as follows: “different types of ethics” and “cultural and ideological factors”, “rules of practice”, “personal and professional ethics”.

In 2005, Sandra Berman and Michael Wood from the United States had published a book of essays *Nation, Language, and Ethics of Translation*, most of the thesis about translation ethics involved the problem of translator’s attitude towards translation ethics. The basic ethical concepts of translation is that though conveying the original meaning faithfully and comprehensively cannot reach, but the translator should do as better as possible to reach it. They should hold the attitude of not abandoning the original and doing whatever they want.

2. Study on the Translation Ethics in China

During the period of sutra translation in ancient China, the discussion of the translation had ever involved some
ethical issues. The most famous is Shi Yancong's “eight preparation”, which put forward specific requirements of
language ability, the loyalty to Buddhist, and open-minded attitude of seeking truth and so on. However, later
generations and scholars, especially after “May Fourth Movement”, there were little mention of responsibility beyond the
text(Wang Hongyin, 2016).

Now, there is another domestic heat study with the introduction of Western ethics of translation. Professor Lv Jun,
first concerning translate ethics in China, in his book of Cross Cultural Barriers - the Reconstruction of Babel, in 2001,
proposed using Habermas’s “communicative action theory” in translation studies. In 2006, he and Hou’s Translation - a
constructivist perspective, discusses in depth the ethics of translation in the fifth chapter. He thought there should be
universal moral standard which all countries can accept in international cultural exchanges, that is the translation ethics.

In recent years, scholars have begun to translate the results of foreign research about translation ethics, such as Liu
Yameng has introduced the Venuti’s thought of “reserving differences ethics”. In 2007, Tang Jun first discussed the
translation ethical theoretical value and social significance from the dimensions of professional ethics and personal
ethics. In 2008, Chen Ying divided the ethics model of Western translation into four models as follows: the relatively
equal ethical models, functional ethical model, dialogue ethical model, normative ethical model, and diversity ethical
models. Ceng Ji list and analyzed the representative Western translation ethics model, revealed the processes of ethical,
political change in translation.

D. The Andrew Chesterman’s Research

Ethical issues are concerning responsibility, ideology and values.

Chesterman who in favor of descriptive ethics distinguishes four models of translators’ ethical behaviors: ethics of
representation, ethic of service, ethic of communication, and ethic of norm. But he seems to be dissatisfied with this
scheme of four models, claiming that “they are in several respects incompatible, and have different ranges of
application”. Alternatively, he suggests a fifth model - an ethics of professional commitment.

“Ethics of representation” is the responsibility of translator to reproduce the original and reproduce the author’s intent,
the original culture, and translation can replace the original. That is seeking for a cultural “equality” and the relevant
translation strategy is “alienation”. These ethics are about source text and its author. Chesterman thought that “the ethics
of representation” focus on “truth”, a true reflection of the original or the original author. It has proved that translation is
impossible to replace the original. But no matter whether the relationship between translation and original is
equivalence and correspondence, or even the translator manipulates and rewrites original, translation is derived from the
original, is an interpretation of the original. Chesterman believes that that is a “representation” and should use attitude of
“reproduction ethics” to the process of translation.

“Ethic of service”, which is complying with the client’s brief, emphasizes the role or function of translation, from a
teleological functionalism which content is that translator service to the employer and customer, has responsible for the
employer and the user. Its responsibility is reflected in the effect of the translation. Translation which answers for ethical
requirements should be faithful to meet user’s requirements. Functionalism believes that the translation strategies
should be subordinated to the translation function, how to translate depends on how to use, the translator may need to
change the original features as well as the author’s intention according to the reader’s requirements. But this
functionalism translation strategy seems to be “a bit thick by doing anything to achieve their objectives”, so to prevent
the “wanton tampering” for original, it also puts forward the concept of “loyalty”. This loyalty’s sense is the relationship
among people, rather than “true” relationship between the tradition and text. Translation ethics asked the translator to
responsible for the authors, sponsors or employers or users, readers and others.

“Ethics of communication” focus on achieving cross-cultural understanding. The “communication” in it is
implemented by the translator. Translation promotes mutual understanding and exchanges between the reader and the
original and the translator is the intermediary. Pym thinks that translators in the intermediate zone must be impartial and
keeping neutral, his professional ethical responsibility is to promote “understanding”. That is the responsibility of the
profession and the translator should follow the “intercultural” translation principles, to pursuit of mutual benefit.

“Ethics of norm” is meeting expectations, mainly in the target culture, about the quality of translations. Chesterman
conclude that reflect the expectations of people, representing the value of the target language culture, including ethical
values of “truth” and “truth”, while the translator win the trust of readers only by satisfying the reader’s expectations.

“Ethics of professional commitment” rely on the translator’s virtues (striving for excellence, fairness, trust,
trustworthiness, empathy, courage, and determination not to give up). This model, in fact, reconciles the other four,
since it is implies that the translator is entitled to choose any strategies he finds proper. But it means that the different
models are neither competing nor incompatible; contrariwise, they are mutually supportive in one and the same
communicative situation – some can dominate depending on which communicative factors prevail. Professional
commitment, which reconciles those ethics above, regulates the translation process itself and restricts the acceptable
methods and strategies during the course of translation. Chesterman further claimed that these ethics are translator’s
responsibility including truth, clarity, understanding, trust and so on. The translator should consider a lot of factors such
as the style of text, content, author’s intention, clarity of text, the acceptance of readers, the client’s requirements and so
on. As a professional, translator should follow some regulars made by international translation institutions so that come
ture the equivalence of different cultures and nations.

“Representance” can be said in one direction, from the original to the translation, from author to reader, but often can
not be achieved; “exchange” is a two-way, outward, and mutually beneficial, but the translator will bear much responsibility; “service” and “regulation” are the orientation of the target language, the service makes translator lose their initiative, norm are too conservative.

From the view of analyzing intersubjective translation ethics, Chesterman emphasized to respect for the translator’s own selection and decision making. And he clarified and confirmed the rights of translation strategies and sponsor’s right to select the text. He thought that the translator’s primary task is to understand the wishes of the sponsor, original text and the reader’s expectations, and the translator has the responsibility to provide an explanation for the reader.

Then how to commit a translation is fit those ethics, we can use the ethical values. Chesterman take trust to be a central ethical value for translation — indeed, for any professional and a value that underlies the accountability norm. Another ethical value that translators seem to share is truth. This implies that translators should seek to represent the original text or the original author (or the cultural other) in a truthful way, not falsifying the message or intention. Then there is the value of clarity, without which communication does not lead to adequate understanding.

Chesterman think ideological play an important role in translation ethics. Take feminism, for instance. A feminist translator would be interested in textual strategies like the following:

“How to translate gender-neutral generic pronouns into languages that lack a neutral form? Does the translator automatically write he in English, or he/she or she/he or she or he or they or…?”

IV. A CASE STUDY ON ZHU SHENGHAO’S TRANSLATION OF ROMEO AND JULIET BASED ON CHESTERMAN’S THEORY OF TRANSLATION ETHICS

A. The Writing Background of Romeo and Juliet

Shakespeare was born in a rich family of Stratford, England. People once divided his creation into 3 periods. First period of dramatic composition was from 1590 to 1600, during which he had written many comedies and historical plays. *Romeo and Juliet* was a special tragi-comedy in this period. It was written around 1594-1595 when capitalism first appeared and replaced feudalism in England at the end of Queen Elizabeth era and drama was popular among the general mass. Shakespeare was the most outstanding drama writer and *Romeo and Juliet* was one of his most famous dramas which had been translated in many languages. The story in it was adapted from an epic written by Arthur Brooke. In the play, Shakespeare talks highly of true love and youth. Its humanistic thoughts and artistic which challenging traditional feudal ethics make it favored by generations of people. In addition, his particular writing style, language and well-learning also made the play be one of the most popular works all over the world.

B. Zhu Shenghao’s Translation of Romeo and Juliet

Zhu Shenghao, who has translated *Romeo and Juliet* successfully, originally named Zhu Wenshen, was born in Jiaxing city in Zhejiang province, 1912. In that time his family’s business was declining. His happy childhood during which he got good education and manners ended after his parents died. He had to lodge at his aunt’s family with a succession of difficulties. To challenge hardships and loneliness, Zhu Shenghao got the spirit of perseverance which benefited him in the translation of Shakespeare’s plays. His talent displayed when he was only a student in Zhijiang University in Hangzhou and after graduation in 1933, he became an editor. The same year, he went to Shanghai to work as an English editor in World Publishing House where he started his career of translation of Shakespeare’s works.

During 1936 to 1944, Zhu Shenghao translated a half plays of Shakespeare and started his work of translating *Romeo and Juliet* in 1943. His translation is successfully for its fluent style, elegant language, meeting the romantic charm and conveying the imposing manner of the original work. In a word, he plays an important role in the translation of *Romeo and Juliet* in china.

C. An Analysis on Zhu Shenghao’s Translation of Romeo and Juliet from the Perspective of Chesterman’s Translation Ethics

There are a lot people commenting on Zhu’s translation of *Romeo and Juliet* from different angles such as Toury’s translational norm. But, there is not a commit from the angle of translation ethics. The external factors like ethics determine the look of his translation, particularly factors of ideological nature. In the followings, Zhu’s translation of *Romeo and Juliet* will be studied from the perspectives of ethics of representation, ethic of service, ethic of communication, ethics of norm, and ethics of professional commitment.

1. From the Perspective of Ethics of Representation

In some historical period, the direct source text is not available because of the restriction of the social condition, so the translator has to do the indirect translation. Therefore, translation will inevitably distort the original, at least, both in its style and efficacy. That is a disadvantageous factor for translators to represent the original and author’s intention.

While Zhu Shenghao’s translation of *Romeo and Juliet*, undoubtedly came from the source language text, can keep faith to the source text both in language style and author’s intention, which serves as a good version for academic studies. That really results from his good master of English language and the acceptation of the new thought which the Shakespeare conveyed in his works.

Zhu Shenghao has successfully conveyed the realism thought in *Romeo and Juliet*. His realism thought comes from the historical situation. Zhu Shenghao commenced to translate *Romeo and Juliet* after May Fourth Movement when the
western literary works of realism are largely introduced into China. Despite the dramatis personae, to some degree, belonged to the feudal paternalism, the author wanted to convey a spirit of realism which enlightened people to struggle for freedom and discard off remained feudal thoughts that have long restrained them from the right for happiness. Those functions of this play just meet Zhu Shenghao’s will which his translation can adapt the social problems and actual conditions, and can be made a sense to Chinese awakening.

Zhu Shenghao had ever written for his translation edition of the *Complete Theatrical Works of William Shakespeare* that “The aim of my translation of this book is, firstly to retain the spirit of the original work as much as possible; in case that could not be achieved, then I would faithfully transmit the meaning of the original, with clear and succinct words or sentence; …”.

But he was in trouble to assist his principle when he translated the *Romeo and Juliet*. Especially after being out of employment in early 1942, he was in bad need of money to maintain his life. So he had to translate the *Romeo and Juliet* for money. But in other professors’ opinion, Zhu’s translation of *Romeo and Juliet* was not motivated by remuneration and his translation was “without any payment” but seeking for truth.

That indicated he is a good professional who had a right attitude toward the translation through challenging a lot of hardships. Since representing everything of the original is unavailable, this attitude is surely the most important in the ethics of representation which every translator should have.

Let’s see an example that can demonstrate his loyalty attitude to the original.

Mercutio: …You give us the counterfeit fairly last night.
Romeo: Good morrow to you both. What counterfeit did I give you?
Mercutio: The slip, sir, the slip; can you not conceive?
Romeo: Pardon, good Mercutio, my business was great; and in such a case as mine a man may strain courtesy.
Mercutio: That’s as much as to say, such a case as yours constrains a man to bow in the hams.
Romeo: Meaning, to court’sy.
Mercutio: Thou hast most kindly hit it.

茂丘西奥: …昨天晚上你给我们开了多大的一个玩笑哪。
罗密欧: 两位大哥早安！昨天我开了什么玩笑？
茂丘西奥: 你昨天晚上逃走的好; 装什么假?
罗密欧: 对不起,茂丘西奥，我当时有一件很重要的事情，在那情况下我只好失礼了。
茂丘西奥: 这就是说，在那情况下，你不得不屈一屈膝了。
罗密欧: 你意思是说，陪个礼。
茂丘西奥: 你回答得正对。

Comparing the two dialogs, we can see that they both used the vulgar words and taboos which made a relax environment in the texts. We can say that Zhu’s translation represented the characters of the Romeo and Mercutio and their close relationship which Shakespeare wanted to express in his play such as the sentence – “装什么假?”.

From this point of view, Zhu really have a right attitude in translating the Romeo and Juliet and basically meets the requirements of ethic of representation.

2. From the Perspective of Ethic of Service

Translation is a service, interferes a lot of service ethics of the translator for customer, sponsor and even author. So quality assessment must depend on customers, sponsor, author or others’ satisfaction. Once the translator accepts a translation task, as a professional, he has the responsible to meet sponsors and clients’ expectancy. Therefore responsible professionals must think about the consequences of their work, and if translators have strong reservations about translating something, they are entitled to refuse.

Since Zhu’s translation of *Romeo and Juliet* is not far from the Fourth Five Movement, to meet the target readers need and arouse people’s attention made important senses for his translation.

Around 1930s, Lu Xun once divided readers into three kinds: the first kind involves those well-educated; the second refers to those who can read a few words; the last includes those who read few characters and are not prospected to read his translation. And Zhu’s translation’s target is to let as many Chinese as possible have some knowledge about Shakespeare, and finally absorb new expressions and enrich Chinese one. The prospective readers of his translation are general mass. So his translation should firstly achieve readability and not have too much exotic element. Zhu had ever declaimed that “Each time when I found the grammar in the original is not conforming to the Chinese one, I could think it over for many times so as to clearly present to readers the meaning of the original which was obscured by the words or structures hard to understand, at the price of changing the original structure totally”. From his word, we can see that as a professional, Zhu Shenghao did change some original text to meet the readers’ expectancy. The popularity of his translation demonstrates his aim. In the version, we can see it clearly, then an example:

Capulet: But saying o’er what I have said before;
My child is yet a stranger in the world;
She hath not seen the change of fourteen yeats:
Ere we may think her ripe to be a bride.
Paris: Younger than she are happy mothers made.
Capulet: And too soon marred are those so early made …

Zhu’s translation as follows:
凯普莱特: 我的意思早就对您表示过了, 我的女儿今年还没有满十四岁, 完全是一个不懂事的孩子; 再过两个夏天, 才可以谈到亲事。
帕里斯: 比她年纪更小的人, 都已经做了幸福的母亲了。
凯普莱特: 早结果的树木一定早凋 …

Comparing with those paragraphs, we can see that the italicized sentence in the above paragraph is liberally translated by Zhu Shenghao into “早结果的树木一定早凋”, which is idiomatic and vivid. It allows readers to have imagination just like reading original sentence, showing the father’s concern for his lovely daughter’s happiness. In this way, though Zhu Shenghao’s translation changes some figure of speech, not the word to word translation, Zhu’s translation also achieves the same effect as the original. I appreciate this change, but not mean translator can changes anything to meet readers or sponsor’s requirements.

Despite readers or sponsor’s requirements are necessarily, but the responsibility to original and author which is fresh realized by translators in translation can’t be ignored. Zhu Shenghao’s translation did better than others in it.

In my opinion, Zhu Shenghao really does well in translating the Romeo and Juliet and meets the requirements of ethic of service.

3. From the Perspective of Ethic of Communication
Translation has always been an important means of cross-cultural communication, and it involves at least two sets of language and norms. Therefore if a translator wants his translation be a successful one, he should mediate effectively the translation ethics at both ends.

Ethic of communication requires translators should not try to make the reader’s job more difficult. What the target is to come true the intercultural communication. The translation should be optimally intelligible, that it should help the original author and/or sender to communicate the appropriate message to the readers. Based on this ethic, Paul Grice (1975), an American philosopher has proposed four general pragmatic principles for ideal cooperative communication.

These are, roughly speaking: (a) Tell the truth; (b) Say enough, but not too much; (c) Be relevant; (d) Be clear. If you break these principles, says Grice, you need a good reason, and moreover one that your hearers/readers can understand and accept. Otherwise communication will probably break down. For optimum intelligibility, let’s check for transmission of message and check for clarity of syntax and style in the translation. An example as follow can show it well.

ROMEO: O, she doth teach the torches to burn bright!
It seems she hangs upon the cheek of night
Like a rich jewel in an Ethiope’s ear;
Beauty too rich for use, for earth too dear!
So shows a snowy dove trooping with crows,
As yonder lay o’er her fellows shows.
The measure done, I’ll watch her place of stand,
And touching hers, make blessed my rude hand.
Did my heart love till now? forswear it, sight!
For I ne’er saw true beauty till this night.

Those sentences in the translation completely meet the four principles for ideal cooperative communication referred above. For example, the sentence - “Did my heart love till now? forswear it, sight! For I ne’er saw true beauty till this night.” in the original mainly express Romeo’s heated emotion and exclamation for Juliet. Zhu’s translation, “我从前的恋人是假非真，今晚才遇见绝世的佳人！”， with clear, enough, but not too many words, just expresses this relevant emotion which Shakespeare wanted to express in his play.

Trough the comparing, we can draw a conclusion that Zhu’s translation of Romeo and Juliet meets the criterion of ethic of communication. In this angle, it’s a good version.

4. From the Perspective of Ethics of Norm
Chesterman thinks there are four fundamental norms that together define what is meant by translation quality. But they just apply to the translation product, not the process and thus represent the most important characteristics of a good translation. These are acceptability norm, relation norm, communication norm, and accountability norm. Acceptability norm states that a good translation is one that fits closely enough into the appropriate family of target-language texts, to which it is destined to belong. Relation norm says that there must be a relation of “relevant similarity” between the source text and the translation. Communication norm says that the translation should be optimally intelligible, that it should help the original author and/or sender to communicate the appropriate message to the readers. Accountability norm stated that the translation should not contain any evidence that the translator has been disloyal to any of the parties involved in the communication.

Those norms are proposed before ethics appeared in translation studies. But it can be looked at the requirements of ethics. What different between them is relationship and values.

The translation ethics emphasize on the relationships among people, not the text relationship as the former ones. For example, acceptability norm stress the relation between translator and readers, the translator has the responsibility to make the readers accept his translation. Syntax and style of Zhu’s translation are just like Chinese drama, especially both stress rhymes in the sentence what makes its more intelligible and acceptable to Chinese readers. That meets the goal of indeed communication between author/original and readers. Compared the above example with Guan Hanqing’s sentence in the Misjudged Case of Dou E below, we can see this phenomenon clearly.

窦娥: 剖子手拥的我前合后偃,
铁枷锁扭的我左侧右偏,
满腹屈无处告黑白不辨,
含冤死赴市曹怎能心甘,
无奈何我只把天地埋怨,
无罪人就这样命丧黄泉。

Trough the comparing, we know that Zhu’s translation of Romeo and Juliet meets the criterion of acceptability norm. We can also find some text meet other norms in this version. In a world, it’s a good translation work.

V. CONCLUSION

This paper gives a brief introduction of study on translation of Shakespeare’s plays and the translational ethic’s study including its background, definition, development process and the research situation at home and abroad.

This paper main focuses on a case study on Zhu Shenghao’s translation of Romeo and Juliet to appreciate and appraise his translation attitude and values measured by translation ethics. Basing on Chesterman’s ethics theory, by comparing with the Shakespeare’s original and Zhu’s translation, we can understand the main ethical issues (responsibility, ideology and values) in translation. The analysis also certified the ethics application in translation studies. Responsibility is the specific content of ethics study, ideology is the performance of those ethics and values evaluates the significance of the translation and expresses the ideas and the direction of the translational research. By employing ethics for research, we can expect greatly expanded studies in translation and make a great significance in protecting the vulnerable culture from being invaded by the strong culture.

Yet in the paper are certain defects. First, theories in Shakespeare works and the translations are in a great deal which result to some mixture in employing to the translation, so do the theory of translation ethics. It is different to distinguish the “loyal” referred in the ethics and traditional theories. But they do have difference that one is for relationships among people and the latter is for text. There should be more studies on the clearly definition of translation ethics which can distinguish with the various relevant concepts. Further and deeper studies are expected. Moreover, there isn’t specific criterion to measure up the effects produced by the application of translation ethics. Besides, the biggest drawback of this paper lies in the lack of veritable language and the limited reference to those translation theories.

Studies never stop in translation, as the tide of civilization of human is processing, the study in translation ethics must look out on a bright future.

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Use of Technology in the Teaching of Telugu Concepts to Create Enthusiastic Learning Environment—A Case Study among Educators

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Abstract—The purpose of this study was to determine whether the use of digital technology could create a positive impact in teaching of Telugu concepts. Due to little exposure of the Telugu language in Mauritius, learners face difficulties in learning and understanding the language in terms of pronunciation, vocabulary, communication and writing skills. The study focused mainly on how the use of cartoons could cater for all types of learners, how they can be used as a tool to allow a child centred learning and whether they promoted the understanding of concepts easily through the use of technology and brought motivation to learners. A study was conducted with two upper primary schools to find out whether concept cartoons could be advantageous in encouraging them in better understanding concepts. Cartoon Story Maker was used as an educational tool to teach the “Singular-Plural” concept followed by an interactive quiz as assessment to monitor the progress of students. Through both qualitative and quantitative approaches, focus groups, observation, and achievement tests were chosen as convenient methods to collect data. The findings revealed that there has been a slight increase in percentage of scores in class tests and that cartoon concepts have motivated the learners to learn the Telugu concepts and helped to improve their communication skills.

Index Terms—cultural unity, collaboration, types of learners, focus group, assessment

I. INTRODUCTION

Language plays a significant role in the life of a community and it englobes every aspect of social organization. Each linguistic group would like to preserve and cherish its language as a principle element of cultural unity. Language education has been modernized due to the application of technology and how technology is increasing the pace of teaching and learning of teachers and learners is still being surveyed (Motteram, 2013).

However, in Mauritius, despite English being the official language, French and Creole are being used for communication. Ancestors immigrated to Mauritius during the 19th century in 1826, from different parts of India and a small percentage of immigrants came from Tamil Nadu. Today in Mauritius we have around 10% of the population who are Telugus. In order to preserve their culture, children of age 5 years old are being taught Telugu as a foreign language in primary schools. Due to little exposure of the latter, learners face difficulties in learning and understanding the language in terms of pronunciation, vocabulary, communication and writing skills.

There are many ways for educators to bring upon technology in their classroom such as using the interactive whiteboard, mobile phones, tablets or laptops. In short, it can be argued that technology will help to boost the level of language education as well as language learners. Within the Primary Education sector of Mauritius, there are only 97 Telugu educators and a total number of 1241 Telugu students aged from 6 to 11 years old. A Telugu teacher is allocated only 50 minutes per day to teach the language. Lack of space, time, improper infrastructure, unavailability of enough resources are the factors that prevent the use of technological devices by teachers, thus preventing them from moving away from the traditional chalk and talk teaching method to the technological based one. Yet, mobile phones, CDs, whiteboard are the usual tools used to arouse learners’ interest, motivation, and a liking for Telugu Language. Computer illiterate educators, time factor, bulky syllabus, technical problems, lack of technicians are the factors that affect the implementation of technology in their teaching. In this way interaction remains teacher-centred, thus the learners show lack of interest in Telugu subject. According to researchers, technology has removed the distance barrier and has allowed for higher education to effectively teach anyone around the world (Tabatabaei & Ying Gui, 2011). The use of technological devices in foreign language teaching is beneficial in many aspects such as the capacity to control presentation, Novelty and Creativity and Adaptability.

Thus, for this research project, the Use of Technology to teach Telugu language has been considered. Cartoon Story Maker (CSM), a free Open Source Animation Tool, has been used to design an educational tool to develop ‘Singular/Plural concept’ as the learning content for the teaching students of upper primary schools. The main aim was
to investigate how technology would influence teaching and learning of Telugu language in a classroom. The learners will then be self-assessed through an interactive Quiz using I-spring Quiz Maker.

The motivational ARCS design model was used to design the learning content.

![Four components of ARCS model](source: Word press, 2015. ADDIE—the fundamental model in ISD).

Pappas (2015) cited in his article that this motivational design model has been created by John Keller based on Tolman’s and Lewin’s theories. It consists of four main components namely: Attention, Relevance, Confidence, and Satisfaction which are considered to highly influence human motivation (Malik, 2014 cited Pappas 2015). This learning resource design aims to help the teachers and learners to teach and learn respectively the Telugu concepts in a modern approach. To critically study this context, the following objectives were formulated: (1) To investigate whether concept cartoons will help all types of learners namely; Visual, Auditory, Reading and K inesthetic to understand the Telugu concepts more easily, (2) to promote the interaction and collaboration skills between teachers and students, (3) to motivate and inspire learners to reach their potential. In line with these objectives, the research questions set are as follows:

- What will be the advantages and disadvantages of implementing the use of technology in Telugu teaching and learning?
- Whether the use of Cartoon Story Maker will help in motivating and entertaining Telugu language educators and learners?
- Can the use of this visual media help all types of learners to better understand the concepts?

II. METHODOLOGY

Focus group discussion was carried out as a survey with 5 Telugu educators from different institutions in order to have their opinions about the availability and the use of technology in their language teaching classrooms. The ‘Plural Concept’ was explained with Grades 4 and 5 learners through the traditional teaching method during 4 classes of 50 minutes each, followed by an achievement test (Test 1) at the end of the week to assess their progress. Furthermore, during the following week, the CSM software was used as a teaching and learning tool in the computer lab with the same grades of learners mentioned above. Participant observation was then carried out during the manipulation of the learning tool and an observation checklist was prepared to assess the learners’ reactions. After the session of concept cartoons, they were assessed through a set of quiz prepared in I-Spring Quiz maker software as a formative assessment. The percentage passes were then calculated to assess their learning progress with using technology (Test 2). The quiz test was supported with video and sound. Yuliani et al. (2015) mentioned that this type of visual media helps teachers in stimulating and encouraging the target language. He claimed that both audio and visual help to create the interactive quiz and brought interest and enthusiasm in learners and thus increased their understanding of other cultures. The development of the learning tool was preceded with the help of ARCS motivational design which consists of the four components that help to develop their cognitive, psychomotor and affective skills.

Attention- Grab attention to create learners’ interest
Inquiry: Set questions in Telugu about numbers and objects around them
Variability: Introducing the new CSM and Quiz maker software downloaded on their PC, allowing the learners to insert various cartoon characters with their own recordings and text bubbles with the drag and drop action helped in increasing their cognitive load and psychomotor skills. Thus, gaining their attention enabled motivation of students to invest time, pay attention and to find out more about the topic.

Relevance – Relate to students’ experiences
The topic ‘Plural’ presented through cartoons were firstly set to the students by the use of projector in the computer lab. Next, the learners had the opportunity to navigate through the slides in CSM on their own PC so as to understand the content at their own pace.

Confidence- Focus on scaffolding of positive expectations of students’ success
The quiz prepared in I-Spring Quiz maker was given to pupils as a self- assessment and the marks allocated at the end were recorded to investigate about their retaining ability with the use of technology.
Satisfaction- Receiving encouragement, support, and reward from a learning experience. Poulsen et al. (2008), mentioned that learners will be motivated to learn when they obtained good results. So, feedback about the use of those technological learning tools in teaching and learning of Telugu language from the learners were asked and their progresses were discussed.

The implementation of the learning tool has been carried out by 2 Primary Telugu Educators from different institutions referring as School A and B with Grade 4 and 5 learners. The educators act as a facilitator to the learners to use the developed technological tool. But, to investigate whether the use of technology creates an impact in the teaching and learning of Telugu, conventional way of teaching was firstly used. That method of teaching took place in the class with 4 pupils per grade respectively. However, the remaining days went on by explaining the 2 groups the different types of plural forms in Telugu language using the traditional approach. After one week, the same explanations were given through the developed tool with the concept cartoons to the same students but in different learning environment (the computer lab). The teaching and learning by the pupils were carried out for 3 days of 50 minutes. The activity involved self-learning, good interaction with the tool, with their friends as well as with the teacher.

Nevertheless, Students’ Achievement Tests (1 & 2) were carried out as data analysis method to collect numerical data.

Achievement Test 1: using traditional method

Traditional way of Achievement Test paper was given to the pupils after the students have followed the face to face classes. They were evaluated according to their level of understanding the concept and to what extent they have done it right.

Achievement Test 2 using Technology

After viewing and reviewing of the presentation done on CSM in the computer lab, the pupils had to work out the Quiz as an Achievement Test on their PCs followed by feedbacks. Here is a table presenting the details of the Achievement tests:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Achievement Tests</th>
<th>Number of questions</th>
<th>Time allocated</th>
<th>Number of marks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>25 minutes</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>25 minutes</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 2: Print screen of CSM frame while projecting in computer lab

Figure 3: Presentation of the tool through projector
III. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

It was noted that the interactive lesson done created interest and encouragement in all learners taking part in the activity. This is so, because it was the first time that cartoons were used for explanation of Telugu concepts. One observation made was that there was a minimum of interaction between teacher-pupil. The finding matches that of Keogh and Naylor’s (2013) who mentioned that learners using concept cartoons automatically acted the role of an adjudicator, i.e. making their own judgments on the task being done. That role of adjudicator helps in empowering the learners’ ability to make judgments about their ideas whether they are right or wrong. In this way, the less confident learners will involve in argumentation and will put forward their ideas readily (Solomon, 1999 cited in Keogh and Naylor’s 2012). The Table below shows the results obtained from the observation checklist.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CRITERIA</th>
<th>GRADE 4</th>
<th>GRADE 5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of pupils present</td>
<td>4 out of 4</td>
<td>4 out of 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Access to PC with installed software (CS &amp; iSpring Quiz maker)</td>
<td>Good</td>
<td>Good</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Able to navigate the previous and next keys to view the slides</td>
<td>Able to move forward and backward by clicking on the arrow buttons, but with some hesitations as it was new to them and were slow in clicking.</td>
<td>Able to click on the previous and next buttons rapidly as they are aware of the indication of arrows.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pupil-pupil interaction</td>
<td>Very excited in learning the plural concept in a new way. Communicating with their friends while looking at the pictures and while listening to the voices.</td>
<td>Were comfortable in interacting with each other and discussed the topic and helping each other.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher-pupil interaction</td>
<td>Acted as a facilitator sometimes to check for understanding.</td>
<td>Little interaction with the teacher. Questions were set to them to have some feedbacks about the presentation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Able to read the wordings in text bubbles and listen to the recording at the same time</td>
<td>Got some difficulties in listening and reading of the wordings at the same time. The sounds have been played 3 or 4 times.</td>
<td>Got difficulties in listening carefully but were able to read the text as simple Telugu language was used.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Does the use of cartoons create interest and motivation to them during the lesson?</td>
<td>Very motivated and excited to see the different characters, various images with various backgrounds being used.</td>
<td>Showed lot of interest in learning the concept cartoons by themselves. Can feel their sense of enthusiasm.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understanding of concepts</td>
<td>Able to read the wordings and understood them better with the supported images and sounds.</td>
<td>Better understanding with one and many images which represents singular and plural form.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time management</td>
<td>20 minutes more were required for them to view, read, listen, and understand the concept.</td>
<td>Lesson ended as scheduled.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to De Lange (2009 cited Keogh and Naylor’s 2012) pictorial representation of ideas in concept cartoons with minimal text allow learners for easy learning of other language which is not “their home language.” Many replayed the sounds for better listening of the wordings and pronunciation. Therefore, all types of learners benefited from the concept cartoons. Visual learners have learned through seeing, auditory learners listened carefully, pronounce and read...
the sentences, linguistic learners can read the sentences over and over again so as to understand the concept and kinesthetic learners were manipulating the learning tools to grasp the new concept of learning.

Conventional approach v/s Technological approach

![Comparison Results between Test 1 and Test 2](image1)

Figure 5: Scores obtained by students of grade 4 in the Tests 1 and 2

![Comparison Results between Test 1 and Test 2](image2)

Figure 6: Scores obtained by students of grade 5 in the Tests 1 and 2

The same group of Grade 4 and 5 students was taught the ‘Plural’ concept in Telugu by both the conventional way and technological way. From the above charts, it is found that there are no significant differences in the % of marks after carrying out Tests 1 and 2. We note that student B2 from grade 4, who scored 45% of marks in Test 1 managed to get only 35% of marks in Test 2. Although technology was used for teaching, it was noted that one student was classed as low ability students and he was unable to perform better. Besides school, he does not get exposed to Telugu language at all. Homework was rarely completed due to un-responsible and un-educated parents who do not seem to care for their child’s educational life. On the other hand, the two average grade 5 learners who scored 55% in Test 1 as shown in Fig 6, have increased their marks in Test 2 obtaining 75%. For the high achievers, they performed better with the use of technology in teaching and learning the Telugu concept. These results are in line with those of Sidiropoulos (2008 cited Keogh and Naylor’s 2012) who adopted a similar methodological approach in his research study, which involved conventional and the use of new technology, ADLSE- an online platform in the teaching of Macroeconomics. He stated that the results were positive, which means that the use of new technology, ADLSE contributed to an increase in students’ performance.

Working out the lesson in Telugu topic with the aid of a new software program for the first time in language teaching was found appealing to both teachers and students. Changes in reaction, behaviour and attitudes towards Telugu language were noted by watching cartoons as part of their learning. During the lessons, the students were more attentive during the whole class. The learners found it as a fun, friendly educational tool as they were involved in it. They were more interested with the visuals and audio sounds in the slides. As for the teacher, the use of cartoons facilitated the teaching, saved time by not writing on whiteboard and wait for pupils to copy. It has been a useful tool to satisfy the needs of all abilities as their academic performance had improved. Wide range of vocabulary has been learnt. Students were trying to imitate the characters, thus trying to communicate in the Telugu language with their friends. Change in learning environment also created an impact in their thoughts. In line of Doring’s findings (2002), the use of cartoons creates self-confidence in learners due to the low affective atmosphere for learning. Researchers even claimed that
cartoons for teaching lead to high degree of motivation thus improve the students’ different language skills and hence aid in achieving higher test scores. The pupils acquired a wide range of vocabulary from concept cartoons that they can use in real life. It can be suggested that by watching the cartoons, students can get stimulus to speak the target language. It has been found that exposure to cartoons on language learning improved the students’ communication skills.

IV. CONCLUSION

Language development is based upon the four skills namely; speaking, listening, reading and writing and all of these skills were facilitated by using technologies. Technologies made it possible to teach students using audio and visual materials that can be played, paused and repeated; therefore students can work at their own pace. They also enable the recording and analyzing of one’s speech and that can be used in various scaffolding forms for student learning. However, lack of resources, lack of time, unavailability of proper infrastructure and no permanent technicians provided remained the factors affecting the shift from passive to interactive teaching and learning. The research has been conducted to investigate how the use of technologies can motivate young learners to focus in the discussion of Telugu concept and how the implementation of the designed CSM tool were useful in helping the learners of different levels and learning styles, thus promoting interactions between teacher - students and students - students. The study was carried out with Grade 4 and 5 students. Both conventional and technological approaches have been used. The teacher had used the concept cartoons followed by an interactive quiz (Test 2) using iSpring. No significant differences in the percentage of marks from the two tests were found from using the two methods used, but there was an increase in the performance of low achievers.

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Ethical Consciousness under Totalitarianism
—Review on George Orwell’s 1984

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Abstract—Since the new president of the United States Trump wield power people began to doubt the political situation, which thus led to the novel 1984 jump to the top in the list of the best seller. Public concern is that whether George Orwell’s allegorical purpose will be realized. Definitely 1984 is known as an anti-totalitarian novel describing the ethical disorder, the revolting principles, the absurd disciplines and ideological deformation of the “Big Ocean” country under the domination of “Big Brother”. People living there are forced to fall into ethical dilemma. They have changed their rational thoughts into irrational ones. Besides, they give up their identity of blood relatives and principles of making friends and empower irrationality to control humanity. This article intends to analyze the trauma made by the totalitarian government from the aspects of ethical consciousness.

Index Terms—1984, ethical consciousness, totalitarian government

I. INTRODUCTION

The British writer George Orwell (1903-1950) has been debated continuously over the past several decades on many aspects of his works. His prominent achievements of writing on novels, documentaries, essays and criticism have established him as one of the most influential writer reflecting the hard political or social life in London. Orwell claims that it is the obligation of writers to fight against social injustice, oppression, and the power of totalitarian regimes. His view of the class-bounded language has had a deep influence on the political discourse of our time. Orwell writes to fight against any form of totalitarianism all his life, and he is called as “the conscience of his age.” (Dennis, 1985, p.339)

In the theoretic structure of Ethical Literary Criticism, ethical consciousness is one of the inner core concepts. It is because of the ethical consciousness, people turn into human beings. The main character of ethical consciousness is the ability to distinguish good and evil, however, people in Big Ocean can not have that ability because of the deformation and degeneration of ethical consciousness, the loss of humanity and irrationality of ethical consciousness.

II. LOSS OF HUMANITY AND THE USE OF ABNORMAL TECHNOLOGY

In Big Ocean, all the beautiful things may be destroyed as long as they awaken the humanity in one’s soul. Ethic is just such kind of beautiful things which is the ligament to connect people. As we can see, the quality, the beauty and dignity of life need morality, and our social existences depend on morality too. Then, how to put morality into our actions everywhere? Living under ethical consciousness is very important. Yet the target of Big Ocean is to go deeper into people’s ethical consciousness to ruin the ethical system inside normal human beings. The rulers have taken strict measures such as physical and ideological deformation of ethical consciousness to constrain people’s behaviors in the field of ideology.

In the modern world, some types of control and surveillance are important to keep public life safe and orderly. However, in Big Ocean, such surveillance mechanism is overdone to people, for it deprives nearly all the privacy of the people, including freedom, hobby and independent thought.

Firstly, the physical deformation of ethical consciousness is found in Big Ocean’s architecture, which is superior and enormous, the so-called Panopticon according to Jeremy Bentham. Panopticon is a building like a circle and there is a tower at the center. Besides, there are a lot of large windows around the tower, facing the inner circle. Outside the building, there are some divided small rooms whose windows are facing the center tower so that the governor in the center of the tower can effectively monitor various events through the cell windows. In order to achieve a clear monitoring within the prison, some natural light is essential. Therefore, it is an interesting phenomenon: brightness but not darkness can make people under the shadow of crime. In short, the essence of Panopticon is that everyone can be observed from any angle at the center. People in a their small prison can only see something inside, which means that people can be clearly observed by someone they can not see nor imagine. The height, the shape, and the darkness in the architecture have assured the function of the stern punishment and surveillance from the government, which may also influence the ethical consciousness of the ordinary people. Meanwhile, a fine tube is necessary for it will be the connection of sound between the prison and watchtower; this tube not only manages to convey orders to the prisoners,
The crucial mechanism of Panopticon has important consequences. First of all, the Panopticon which stands for totalitarianism is not only a symbol of supreme power, but also a great irony of bourgeois management. It is a good way for capitalists to monitor people to extract the surplus value of workers. Moreover, in this panoptic system, the high-tech has been refined, which has guaranteed the power to overwhelm people’s capacity for independent thinking under the mechanism of watching and monitoring. It is like a pyramid which stands for hierarchical power. The higher the governors stand in the building, the deeper they can observe. It is also like a man standing on the top of a tower watching the whole society and all the citizens living there look like prisoners living in a prison.

Secondly, the physical deformation of ethical consciousness is found in Big Ocean’s TV screen. It is another strict monitor which can be seen not only in the four main Ministries of Big Ocean but also in the daily life of the proletarians. It is regarded as a great success of the government that the giant TV screens in every citizen’s room can broadcast the constant propaganda, mainly about the failures and shortcomings of the people. The TV screens also monitor behaviors everywhere; they are continuously reminded that the authorities are scrutinizing them, especially by means of the omnipresent signs “BIG BROTHER IS WATCHING YOU” (Orwell, 2001, p.560). Under that control, people are surrounded by watching, so there is no need to develop strong armaments or send large quantities of policemen. As long as there is a gaze of the eye, everything will be under control. “Through such monitoring, every individual under the pressure of such a strict watch will gradually change himself/herself into his/her own watcher consciously. Consequently, everyone is aware of self-imprisonment. What a wonderful way: rulers can get specific embodiment of power at a minimum price. This is really an effective measure in totalitarian countries. It has taken full advantage of modern science and the dexterity of technology, which can make the task of monitoring become easy, effectively and accurately.

Thirdly, the physical deformation of ethical consciousness is also found in the cruel corporal punishment. Room 101 is where the pains are centered, and people would like to do anything in order to avoid entering into that room, including giving up their basic bottom line of life.

“Do anything to me!” a man yelled. ‘You have been starving me for weeks. Finish it off and let me die, shoot me, hang me, sentence me to twenty-five years. Is there somebody else you want me to give away? Just say who it is and I’ll tell you anything you want. I don’t care who it is or what you do to them. I’ve got a wife and three children. The biggest of them isn’t six years old. You can take the whole lot of them and cut their throats in front of my eyes and I’ll stand by and watch it. But not Room 101!”’ (Orwell, 2001, p.508)

As we can see, people’s obedience to the principles in Big Ocean is not realized by reorganizations but by electrical punishments and strict disciplines, such as hierarchical observation, normalizing judgment and examination. There are always fears and worries when people are suffering pain or death. Thus people would like to do anything as long as they can avoid the harsh corporal punishment. On this occasion, people can’t preserve national laws, regulations and basic social ethics from their heart, but from their fear. It is really not a civilized way to educate people and regulate people’s behaviors. “If a man obeys the moral law out of fear, for instance, this would not be a case of moral behavior. According to Kant’s perspective, the only way to have the moral behavior is to obey the moral law completely unmotionally, purely for the sake of obeying the law.” (Evans, 2013, p.44) People under totalitarian threat would lose themselves totally in order to avoid suffering; they can give up anything including their ethical conscience, not to mention their relatives or friends. It is not what they would like to do, but what they have got to do. They are taught to be evil rather than kind, to hate rather than love, and to be sad rather than happy.

“Do you know what I’m going to say to them when I go up before the tribunal? ‘Thank you.’ I’m going to say ‘thank you for saving me before it was too late.’” (Orwell, 2001, p.504) We can feel that there is such a hidden promise that all the people should show their loyalty to Big Ocean since they are born. “But were you to ask the far greatest part of the nation, whether they had ever consented to the authority of their rulers, or promised to obey them, they would be inclined to think very strangely of you; and would certainly reply, that the affair depended not on their consent, but that they were born to such obedience.” (Orwell, 2001, p.230) In 1984, Big Ocean is portrayed as an island prison where government monitors and controls every aspect of human life to extreme with irrational disciplinary power, aiming both to deprive the individuals’ freedom and to reform them.

Except the deformation of ethical consciousness, there are also ideological deformations of Ethical Consciousness. The totalitarianism in 1984 is quite unique because it takes full advantage of ethical consciousness to ensure the stability of controlling the country. Under feudalism, people were oppressed by physical stress, so the public without freedom could not tell the truth. However, resistance or anger was hidden. If they were accumulated to an extreme, there would be a revolution to overthrow the old regime to build a new one. In 1984, the traditional way of controlling people’s revolution is updated. They have paid attention to control the ideological ethical consciousness, believing that the control of ideology is more indispensable than physical oppression. Here, the traditional strategy of running a state has been changed into the comprehensive, free, mature and systematic one in Big Ocean. Since a stable government depends on public’s support and admiration, rulers have tried hard to use high-tech to conduct a lot of activities to wash people’s brains. The so-called benefits of totalitarianism can spread to everybody’s perception and every corner in Big Ocean. The result is that people have no willingness to fight against the regime and they’d like to be oppressed forever.
In addition to the single physical deformation of ethical consciousness, Big Ocean has prepared the abnormal ideological deformation of ethical consciousness for people. “So long as we are not assailed by emotions contrary to our nature, we have the power of arranging the modifications of our body according to the intellectual order.” (Spinoza, 2007, p.258) However, Big Ocean has spared no gains to assail the human nature and the principles of government have nothing to do with the intellectual order. The rulers have attempted not only to destroy the sense of sympathy and human love, but also to take language as an effective way to disarrange people’s perception.

To begin with, depriving people of their compassion and human love is one of Big Ocean’s strategies. There is such a scene in Winston’s diary showing Big Ocean’s training of people’s ideological deformation of ethical consciousness: “April 4th, 1984...All war films...Audience much amused by shots of a great huge fat man trying to swim away with a helicopter after him...audience shouting with laughter when he sank.” (Orwell, 2001, p.275)

This description has clearly expressed the psychology of Winston and the outside Party members: they shout with laughter when the man sank, for they are lack of compassion, not knowing how to cherish life. On the other hand, we must emphasize that the characters’ numbness is not equal to the writer’s apathetic consciousness; the characters’ moral turpitude is not equal to the writer’s indifference. It simply shows the success of the inner Party’s education. Due to the inner Party’s training, pure impulses and feelings are not of any value. On the other hand, the author expresses his concern about the people’s helplessness, incompetence and moral turpitude. This is the epitome of ideological transformation of ethical consciousness and the beginning of the deterioration of social moral construction.

From the perspective of writing techniques and expressions, 1984 has not yet reached the high level, but its content reveals something serious and profound in human nature: the common people are wantonly ravaged and slaughtered by only a few autocratic and organized dictators due to the majority of the people’s silence and blindness (Orwell, 2011). People in Big Ocean are born like the blank paper and their perception, thought and consciousness are not accepted by nature, but by the rulers’ guidance and training. Their silence and blindness have come directly to meet the rulers’ demands. The totalitarianism of controlling people’s ethical consciousness is extremely exposed in Big Ocean; maybe, even the most violent king has never Imagined such an ideological deformation of ethical consciousness. Thus, it is important to realize that “totalitarian country attempts to control people’s consciousness and sensibility, just like what they have done to control people’s behavior.” (Orwell, 2011, p.4)

III. LOSS OF RATIONALITY AND THE DISTORTION OF COGNITION

According to Ethical Literary Criticism, human ethical consciousness appears due to the adulthood of people’s rationality, and then people evolve from animals to human beings—a higher and independent species. The essential difference between human beings and animals is that human beings have rationality while animals don’t have it. “People get their ethical consciousness due to their rationality.”(Nie Zhenzhao, 2010, p.18) In Big Ocean, we may wonder such confusing questions: since people living in Big Ocean are facing physical and ideological deformation of ethical consciousness, are they still have rationality? How to understand their animal factor and rational factor in their ethical consciousness? What harm will animal factor do to the society? Answering these questions will help us better understand the essence of people’s ethical confusion and the loss of rationality in Big Ocean.

Rationality is one of the important factors that can help people make proper judgment. The highest governing principle is to focus on people’s inner judgment. Thus, rationality is the highest and basic principle for people to make ethical choice and judgment. In order to control people’s ethical consciousness, Big Ocean has established three main kinds of irrational principles.

The first irrational principle is the prohibition against sexual behaviors. Just like what Big Ocean has done to crush the human spirit by making it react mechanically, the state will control all forms of sexual activities in order to purify the living environment. Any sex instincts will be eradicated definitely. “Its real, undeclared purpose was to remove all pleasures from the sexual behaviors...Sexual intercourse was to be looked on as a slightly disgusting minor operation, like having an enema...”(Orwell, 2001, p.333) Sexual relationship is also a kind of ethics about man and woman. Psychologists believe that the new ethical relationship between man and woman does not mean to lose control. There are some common points related to the old moral principle, which are to promote humanity and support satisfactory family life and put emphasis on everyone’s responsibility for his/her own sex behavior. It is quite clear that Big Ocean will not allow the existence of such concepts of family ethic, not to mention anything about true love or family responsibility. All Big Ocean cares about is not the harmonious family ethical relationship, but whether the family relationship is easy to control or not. It is recognized that he who controls his sex can control himself very well. Accordingly, if Big Ocean can control human sex, it can control the whole human body. In Big Ocean, as for the relationship between man and woman, there ought to be no love, no natural feelings, and no human. As for the birth of children, Big Ocean has its own way. “We have cut the links between child and parent, and between man and man, and between man and woman. Children will be taken from their mothers at birth, as one takes eggs from a hen.” (Orwell, 2001, p.539)

After Winston and Julia renting a room outside and having sex in the forest for several times, they are meant to pay a price for that. For no free sexual intercourses are admitted in Big Ocean. That is because sexual behavior is regarded as a behavior of rebellion. When it comes to sexual desire, it forms the thought crime. “Even to have awakened Katharine (Winston’s wife in law), if he could achieve it, would have been like a seduction.” (Orwell, 2001, p.336) As we can see,
even the sexual behavior happening between husband and wife is not allowed, for Big Ocean has its own reasons to forbid sex behaviors.

"It was not merely that the sex instinct created a world of its own which was outside the Party’s control and which therefore had to be destroyed if possible. What was more important was that sexual privation induced hysteria which was desirable because it could be transformed into war-fever and leader-worship.” (Orwell, 2001, p.401)

Thus, if the impulsion can not be hidden as deeply as the government expected, it is risky because the inner Party has taken strict measures to put everything in its order, especially when we talk about the impulse of sex. “The sex impulse was dangerous to the Party, and the Party has turned against it.” (Orwell, 2001, p.402) Suppose there are a group of normal men, they may have all kinds of natural impulses, which are necessary parts to make up the whole men, then how can they be whole men when one of the natural impulses is cut off? Sexual ethic can better embody human revolution and progress, which especially shows its correction when it surmounts classes and time confinements. Hence, sexual behavior with special function to express human wishes has its own reason to stand steadily in human civilization. The general principle of sex should be an instinct of human, while in Big Ocean sex is forbidden and oppressed. In this sense, the writer’s inner intention is to judge the loss of humanity in social ethical life and bring up a series of questions about how to be a whole person, so as to put the fable into a realistic version to lighten the fundamental principles of social ethics.

The second irrational principle is the creation of Newspeak which eliminates all nuances of words’ meaning. Here Orwell creates his dystopian tale of the modern state with an appendix on the fate of words under totalitarianism. “Don’t you see the whole aim of Newspeak is to narrow the range of thought? In the end we shall make thought crime literally impossible, because there will be no words to express it.” (Orwell, 2001, p.319) Newspeak is a kind of language which has a very slight expression because the words of Newspeak are compounded to avoid duplication. For instance, we can use not good to express badness, then, good sex means chastity, sex crime covers all kinds of perversions as well as normal intercourse and rape is equivalent to regular intercourse in a society. The same thing happens to excellent or splendid which can be replaced by plusgood or doubleplusgood. After that, people’s thoughts are technologically controlled by the ruling class via making the choices of words down to a minimum. Then, people can use few words to express their unorthodox thoughts. We may not have noticed that the powerful use of language is an effective way to control society. However, Orwell has recognized that language which is used by a poet or a journalist or a dictator can hint the quality of a society. “And a manipulation of language, particular at present, affords a manipulation of the society itself…” (Karl, 1990, p.163) The result is that the next generation will never hear or see the words like badness or worse or illness because they are replaced. There is no need for them to remember so many complex words and their minds are controlled by the words which are given to them.

Besides, Newspeak can extend in double thought which can let two contradictory thoughts combine in one brain. There is no doubt that people will lose the judgment to distinguish truth and falsehood after they are trained to have double thoughts. After the training of double thought, people can understand why “war is peace”. Peace is a previous normal state in society and war is also a normal phenomenon as there are ceaseless wars between Big Ocean and other countries. “Freedom is slavery” means slavery can ensure the foundation of freedom, so slavery and freedom can live harmoniously with each other, and they are both normal and necessary thoughts. “Ignorance is strength” means if people are ignorant, they may easily be kept in order. If people’s lives have kept in order, the inner Party will pay more attention to strengthen the construction of the country. Such double thoughts can also explain other contradictory policies, for example, they forbid sex behavior and encourage indulgence at the same time. On the one hand, sex is forbidden, because the oppressed sexual emotion can be converted into a craze for Big Brother. On the other hand, Big Ocean has its own reason for supporting one’s indulgence, for the physical indulgence can make people ignorant of politics and rationality. Besides, it can help the few inner Party members to have more material and spiritual privileges of the limited sex.

The third irrational principle is the confusion of normal logical consciousness, including rewriting rationality and taking the irrational regulation as the basic political law. In addition to what they have done to sexual behavior and people’s daily language, there are so many other irrational principles. Take the question of what is two plus two for an example, all of us know the answer is four according to the logic of math, but in Big Ocean the answer could be any one as long as Big Brother agrees. After the thought reformation and trial, Winston writes two plus two equals five in his paper which successfully means the death of his rationality and the terror of political trial. What really matters is not the strictness of regulation, but the abused power of controllers. Thomas Hobbes holds that the concept of right or wrong, justice or injustice, yours or mine...are all derived from law in civilized society. If there is no law, their existence will have no meaning. However, the concept of law relies on power. If there is no power as a supporting tool, the law will lose its authority because it can not force its citizens to abide by the law (Palmer, 2011). The power of government comes prior to the law because it can guarantee the legal effect of the law. It is a normal math’s law that two plus two is four, but when it encounters the power of the ruler, the math’s law has to quit its arena of history.

The three features of Big Ocean’s irrational manageable philosophy have presented its destruction of human rationality. “Perhaps Orwell believes too strongly in the bourgeois tradition that successfully disclosing the irrational behavior is necessary in a good political novel.” (Karl, 1990, p.160) From the perspective of Ethical Literary Criticism, the difference between human being and animal is whether there is rationality. People become human beings due to
their rationality and animals become beasts due to their irrationality. The decrease of rational factor marks the increase of animal factor. Therefore, it is necessary to discuss the rational factor and animal factor in the following.

IV. SPHINX FACTOR AND BACKWARD CIVILIZATION

According to Ethical Literary Criticism, we are all the combination of rational factor and animal factor, thus we are existences of Sphinx factors. The animal factor has beaten rational factor not only through the weakness of human nature, such as greediness, temptation, craziness, envy, hatred or anger, but also through restraints which have destroyed personality, rationality and humanity. “Unfortunately, Orwell’s main characters frequently exist only as social animals. They are indicated in terms of status, race, caste, tradition.” (Karl, 1990, p.153) When we talk about the social animals, we may say they are a kind of normal human kind with too many animal factors in their soul. As can be seen, the animal factors of people in Big Ocean are obviously presented.

The integrity of man is reflected by Sphinx factor which originates from Greek mythology. It is a riddle affording an inspiration about how people can recognize themselves and the natural differences between human beings and animals, and it is also an image united by man and beast which symbolizes the human nature and the bestial nature of mankind. Professor Nie holds that “rational factor and animal factor can be combined organically. However, rational factor is a superior factor while animal factor is an inferior factor, so the former can control the latter. That is what makes human beings have ethical consciousness.”(Nie Zhenzhao, 2011, p.5) In these two factors, rational factor comes first; its kernel is reasonable will. Rational factor relies on reasonable guidance and appropriate restriction of animal factor. It is rational factor that help people suppress animal behaviors and tend to follow goodness so as to let animal factor avoid violating social ethics. However, as long as we lose rational factor, animal factor will lose its guidance and restriction, and then there’ll be deviation between soul and body. (Nie Zhenzhao, 2011) Sphinx factor is the key to help us better understand the difference between rational humans and animal humans under the government of Big Brother in 1984.

Even if everyone is made up from both rational factor and animal factor, the way of the combination is quite different. Although some of the animal factors may remain in human beings, under normal conditions, the rational factor which is also called rationality—the source of ethical society, can be the leading factor to restrain and teach animal factor. The so-called rationality means “correct understanding and valuable judgments of people in a particular environment. While in literature, rationality (which is usually in the form of rational will) is not only the ethical standard of ethical choice, but also the evaluation standard of the ethical choice.” (Nie Zhenzhao, 2014, p.252) Thus, rationality has a feature of seeking truth and making valuable judgments. Besides, it helps people to make proper ethical choices. The essence of truth is rationality which is a thinking activity to judge, ratiocinate or to make ethical choices. Although rationality is opposite to emotionality, Mao Zedong has ever said that rationality depends on emotionality and comes from emotionality.1 Kant has also said that “acquire happiness is definitely any rational man’s limited emotional requirements.” (2003, p.30) However, Big Brother wants to kill every emotional and moral mind, to make everybody here a living machine without emotionality. All Big Ocean has done aims at controlling people’s rational factor and let the animal factor come first. As O’Brien said to Winston during his trial, “Ours (civilization) is founded upon hatred. In our world there will be no emotions except fear, rage, triumph, and self-abasement.” (Orwell, 2001, p.539) By overmastering the thoughts and feelings of orthodoxy and oppression, rulers have turned the land into a secular hell. Here, the dystopia is presented, in which the traditional notion of Utopia as a perfect world is thus deconstructed.

Whether people can recognize the original sin of Adam and Eve when they have eaten the forbidden fruit, in fact, is dependent on ethical choices. The original sin is the understanding of the remaining animal factor in human body after liberation from animal cognition. Consequently, rationality is acquired from ethical choices (Nie Zhenzhao, 2014). People in Big Ocean are forced to make animal ethical choices and give up rationality. They can not distinguish goodness or evil, for they are living in the irrational ethical environment with confusing ethical principles. In fact, they are educated to have no family, no friendship, no love, no trust, no responsibility, and no humanity, but only a plenty of betrayals and deceptions. They have no choice but to be the slaves of irrational forces impeding the process of social civilization. “Slavery, both in the coarser and finer sense, is apparently an indispensable means even of spiritual education and discipline.” (Nietzsche, 2006, p.149) Thus, under the control of great political power, people living in Big Ocean have to be the slavery of totalitarianism for they have no way to go. They become the slaveries who are no different from the bestial animals.

There is always a question about having rational factor or animal factor in Big Ocean. Big Brother has tried all his efforts to kill the kindness of people, and force them to give up their rationality, judgment of rightness and make them fall into unethical or immoral conditions. The result is that people move towards betrayal, cruelty or indifference, sternly coolness and insensitiveness. To make matters worse, people are going closer to merciless animals without any ethical consciousness. For example, after Winston is caught, he undertakes a horrible change and becomes a subhuman without any feeling, remembering, dreaming, or thinking. After wiping out every memory of Winston’s rebellious past, he is living only for the worship of the tyrant. O’Brien has warned Winston: “Whatever the Party holds to be the truth is truth. It is impossible to see reality except by looking through the eyes of the Party.” (Orwell, 2001, p.539) When they talk about what is two plus two, there is no sure answer. If the inner Party says that it is not four but five, then the

1 See http://baike.sogou.com/v155334.htm.
answer is five. Another example of inspiring people’s animal factor is that the Party is going to kill every peaceful thought, and tries to train people to be crazy about war. The rulers bring the war within their measurable distance and they often pass the news of victory of the war to people to inspire their enthusiasm for war. “The trumpet-call had let loose an enormous volume of noise. Already an excited voice was gabbling from the TV screen, but even as it started it was almost drowned by a roar of cheering from outside.” (Orwell, 2001, p.278) Here we can see the animal factor of people in Big Ocean has defeated rational factor. People are cheering for the war and applauding restless life. Obviously, Big Brother goes to another extreme way, and he tries crazily to teach everyone in Big Ocean to be an inhuman man.

In our long evolution of species, people first acquire human body through biological selection of the fittest. Then, people acquire ethical consciousness through ethical choices. Continually, people finish the progress from animal to human. After ethical choices, the animal factor doesn’t go away, but it just remains in unbounded situation. If the animal factor can not be suppressed successfully, the civilization of the society would be backward or shaken. As Elias said in *The Civilizing Process*, civilization is the process of human society toward a certain direction during which it tries to change human behaviors and feelings. Social compulsory is gradually transformed into personal compulsory. In our behaviors, physical and sensory learning and experiences are accepted through continuous education and civilizing process, in that case, the animal nature or individualism will be suppressed (Elias, 2000, p.312-316). That means education, training and guidance are necessary in the process of civilization. Thus, animal factor has been hidden for a long time during the social civilization. But it is called back to take the place of human factor in Big Ocean. It is clearly the retrogression of the evolution of human civilization and a failure in ethical selection. Besides, it is also a wake-up call for today’s people.

In 2011, Professor Nie Zhenzhao presented us the logical evolution of human civilization in the article entitled “Ethical Choice and Sphinx Factor”. He believes that the evolution of human civilization is logically divided into three stages:

1. Biological selection is based on Darwin, which is also called natural selection—survival of the fittest. He believes that the first human biological selection does not solve the fundamental problem of what is human, and no men are essentially distinguished from beasts.
2. Ethical selection is accompanied by the Sphinx factor, including mutual struggles of human factor and animal factor.
3. Scientific selection is a choice based on science and technology, which focuses on science and technology with the political power system. (Nie Zhenzhao, 2011, p.2)

The third phase is the current and future requirements of society, and it is about the salvation of human nature and the ecological drawbacks during technological development. *1984* has described the animal factor in ethical consciousness because people living there have lost the quality of distinguishing between good and evil. This quality is a landmark on the evolutionary history of human civilization. Adam and Eve can tell good and evil after eating the forbidden fruit, because they were rational already at that time, and they had changed from the so-called human in biology to human with ethical consciousness. The ability to distinguish good and evil is an indispensable feature of ethical consciousness which is the key to distinguish human or animal. Generally, the concept of good or evil goes simultaneously with ethical consciousness which is a principle only for human, and we do not evaluate good or evil when we talk about beast. Therefore, “good and evil are the foundation of human ethics.” (Nie Zhenzhao, 2014, p.35) The same thing happens in the famous Chinese classic Journey to the West. After Sun Wukong finishes the ethical selection with the control and guidance of iron ring on his head, he becomes a rational human or a celestial being in the novel instead of a small monkey. Being kind and human becomes Sun Wukong’s final choice.

On the one hand, *1984* has described the animal factor in ethical consciousness because people living there have lost their active consciousness. The reason why people become human beings is mainly that they have consciousness while animals don’t have that. “Consciousness is a kind of substance that can slide into our brain without mind-stuff, mind-dust or soul.” (Blackmore, 2008, p.141) Since consciousness has such kind of quality, it is extremely difficult to be changed, because it can not be easily caught. People in Big Ocean do not have any subjectivity, for they are not allowed to perceive the world by nature and they have no mental space to reflect on themselves (Blackmore, 2008). If the ability of perceiving the world is removed, isn’t it a rupture of relationship between people and nature? It is a retreat in human revolution as well. Procedures of human evolution do not always agree with the evolutionary ideas put forward by Darwin or Huxley, on the contrary, it often goes to the opposite side and has the trend of degradation. Therefore, the evolution may be a failure if it is left unchecked, which would make the offspring go far away from the civilized way. The human race is superior to other animals under biological selection, but that does not mean human will still be successful in ethical selection.

On the other hand, *1984* has described the animal factor in ethical consciousness because people living there have lost their pursuit of happiness. However, Big Ocean tries every possible way to rob people’s rationality, decrease everyone’s benefits and destroy everyone’s happiness. If they refuse to follow, there are lots of painful trials waiting for them until they die or are forced to become irrational. That’s the retreat not only in human beings, but also in human civilization, which has led human to go back to the state of animal. As we can imagine, if we come to visit Big Ocean,
we are not going into a normal human society, but simply a zoo full of animals with human appearances, sounds of machines, perfected govern equipments and high level specifications.

We believe that Orwell does not want to criticize all the basic ethical principles for all they have done in some degree are to secure the development of society. There may be some humanity when O’Brien closes the TV screen to have a deep talk with Winston. Winston and Julia who try their hard to pursue personal enjoyment have showed their faith in each other at the very beginning. When Winston recollects his mother and sister, he believes his mother has showed humanity at the hardest time. When Winston robbed all the chocolate from his mother and sister, “his mother drew her arm round the child and pressed its face against her breast” (Orwell, 2001, p.432). This phenomenon has presented us the mother’s guilty for her child because she can not give her child a comfortable life. Although the mother’s behavior has no significance, we can feel her deep love. Besides, Winston also finds that in Big Ocean proletarians are of more human traits than other Party members. Although they are under cruel oppression, they keep human emotion. “The proles had stayed human. They had not become hardened inside. They had held on to the primitive emotions which he himself had to re-learn by conscious effort” (Orwell, 2001, p.434). We can feel that not all things are progressing to the opposite side of final moral. Here Orwell does not intend to criticize the entire ethical society, but simply the means, the facts, and the beliefs in the inner Party members who want to destroy human mind and deceive people. Those beliefs are going away from the final level of ethic, hindering the development of society, decreasing everyone’s benefits and destroying everybody’s dream of happiness.

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Research on Evaluation Model of the Effective EFL Teaching in the Era of Informatization

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Abstract—The world is changing with a remarkable speed with the advancement of the informatization, which has revolutionized many fields. EFL teaching in China enjoys great priority. While in the era of IT, traditional teaching mode can no longer satisfy the needs of the globalization and Chinese society. In order to improve the classroom efficiency, the first thing the author believes should be done is the reform of the traditional evaluation system of EFL classroom teaching. In this paper, the author proposes a new framework to evaluate the college EFL classroom teaching in the context of information age, hoping to contribute to the improvement of teaching efficiency at college EFL classroom.

Index Terms—EFL teaching, inforamtization, effective classroom teaching, evaluation framework, new framework

I. INTRODUCTION

Informatization is an irreversible trend of the present world, which has brought huge opportunities as well as great challenges to every aspect of human life. The upsurge of informatization has revolutionized the way of school education and knowledge acquisition. Traditional teaching model cannot meet the demands in the new era. More and more educators begin to doubt and reflect the traditional conception of effective teaching. EFL teaching is no exception. The construction of information facilities and the use of information resources in educational context have changed the traditional classroom teaching form and the roles of teachers, and have contributed to a new cognitive mode of teaching. Therefore, what is effective classroom teaching, how to carry out effective classroom teaching, and how to evaluate effective classroom teaching, all of which have intrigued the researchers and college EFL teachers as well, have gradually become the focus of attention and research by many experts and scholars in recent years. This paper puts forward some suggestions for the research on the effectiveness of College EFL teaching under the educational information technology, which is an indispensable supplement to the effective classroom teaching. And based on the research of effective classroom teaching, this paper tries to build a scientific, reasonable and applicable teaching evaluation framework with the purpose to facilitate the language teaching and inspire more interesting discussions on the issue.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Problems of EFL Teaching in China

Classroom teaching plays an important role in the process of foreign language learning. Classroom is a place for students to accept high-quality language input. Teachers should use classroom teaching to arouse students’ learning enthusiasm, help students discover and use the language rules and guide students to learn independently by interacting with their classmates and teachers and practicing language skills through extensive extracurricular exercises of reading, listening and speaking (Wen, 2014).

“during the past 30 years of reform and opening up, the reform of foreign language education in China has advanced by leaps and bounds”, and its basic characteristics can be summed up as: “continuous heating-up, rapid development, and great achievements”(DHEMOE, 2007). Many experts and scholars in EFL education have found that there are many problems in foreign language teaching in China, especially in College EFL classroom teaching. ”Problems still exist” (Hu, 2014). For a long time, ‘time-consuming and inefficient’ and ‘dumb and Deaf English’ and other problems have not been thoroughly resolved yet (Dai, 2008). Dai (2008) generalizes the problems existing in four aspects: the macro level of EFL educational policy; the teaching and learning model of EFL; talents’ training of EFL; the targets of EFL discipline construction.

Shu (2014) explicitly points out that there are 5 obvious problems in Chinese foreign language educational system: The weak theoretical research of foreign language classroom teaching; Lack of scientific, reasonable and effective evaluation standard of classroom teaching; the vague teaching goal; Teacher-centered; Lack of innovation in teaching process; the ineffective unity between Classroom teaching and extracurricular learning, etc (Shu, 2014). More scholars and college EFL teachers have expressed their dissatisfaction towards the EFL education in China based on their qualitative and quantitative research or teaching practice. Some researchers (Wang, 2010; Wang, 2012; Xia, 2002) in China carry out the massive needs analysis investigation among six major categories of the subjects, they are: teachers
(including teaching administrators), graduates (including employees), employers, social residents and other non-human elements (such as teaching materials). Most of the research indicates that people involved in EFL teaching and learning are not satisfied with EFL teaching and their EFL proficiency. And the research proposed the EFL policy-making based on the needs analysis and other operational suggestions.

In this paper, the author narrows down the problems and focuses on the problems in EFL classroom teaching evaluation with the expectation to assess the teachers’ instruction more scientifically in the era of information technology, thus motivating teachers to fully engage in EFL classroom teaching and improving the effectiveness of EFL teaching in China.

B. Effective EFL Teaching in the Era of IT

Research outside China on CALL (computer-assisted language learning) can be basically divided into three levels. The first level is the CALL research based on the computer technology, such as the EuroCALL program of E.U. Which specializes in the study of CALL (Michael, 2010); Secondly, the researchers, like Mark Warschauer (2000) & Michael Levy (1997), focus on language acquisition and language teaching with the educational technology as a teaching tool to assist the teaching of listening, speaking, reading and writing; The third level of the research is to study the network-assisted language teaching and second language acquisition with network technology as its core. For example, the integration of network technology, classroom teaching methods and learning methods. Niki Lambropoulos (2005) studies the learner-centered online learning design. Michael Thomas (2009) studies the problems of second language learning based on Web2.0.

At present, there are few theories and practices on the effectiveness of college EFL teaching under the context of China's educational information technology. However, these achievements are very useful as the reference to the research in China. The research on the IT-assisted instruction in Chinese context has become a hot topic for scholars. From the year of 2000 to 2017, 25 monographs have been published in this field, which cover a wide range of topics, such as: the modern educational technology and foreign language teaching; the methods and applications of computer-assisted second language research; computer-assisted language teaching; modern language teaching: theory and practice, online learning and development; Technology in the linguistic interpretation of foreign language teaching, foreign language multimedia teaching and other topics (Fang, 2017). All these studies mainly take College EFL as the research objects. More national publishing houses presently are actively involved in the platform developments of the college EFL teaching materials, such as the Higher Education Press, etc. But one obvious problem of those platforms is lack of the effective empirical research on the efficiency of these resources, and more emphasis is placed on the integration of technology, curriculum design and development.

C. Characteristics of Effective College EFL Teaching Based on IT

The researchers (Shu, 2015; Wen, 2014; Dai, 2009) believe that the basic characteristics of effective teaching should include the following aspects: to embody the basic purpose of promoting human development (the first is the basic goal of subject teaching; the second is the development objective of subjectivity); Scientific and reasonable teaching content (firstly, teachers should correctly understand and creatively use teaching materials; secondly, the educational factors of teaching content should be carefully excavated; thirdly, attention should be paid to the practicality of teaching contents); Teachers’ teaching ability which refers to the ability to monitor, regulate classroom teaching and practice; a good command of language proficiency.

In addition, the characteristics of course instruction of college EFL itself determine the features of effective college EFL teaching. Under the educational information technology, many variables, such as: the curriculum design for teachers and students; the content of teaching and the teaching environment of using English, may have a huge impact on the effective teaching of college EFL (Shu, 2010). Other implicit variables, such as the teachers’ views on language teaching and teachers’ information proficiency, teachers’ view on educational technology, Sense of responsibility, cognitive style, emotional state, personality, teachers' international cultural experience, education and training, teaching efficacy, teaching ability, students' information literacy, learning strategies and cognitive strategies based on technical environment and learners’ ability to use language, etc (Fang, 2017). All these elements listed above are the factors that affect the effective college EFL teaching. Therefore, it becomes quite challenging for researchers to design a single model which embraces all those variables inside and produce a convincing and scientific conclusion. However, it is a common belief among the scholars (Fang, 2017) that an informative, diagnostic and summative teaching evaluation is an important means and method to test the effectiveness of college EFL teaching in the context of educational information technology.

D. Evaluation of Effective Classroom EFL Teaching

Evaluation has always been an essential procedure in foreign language curriculum construction. regardless of the syllogism of curriculum construction proposed by Nunan (1988), the coherence model of curriculum construction proposed by Johnson (1989) or the definition of four steps in curriculum design from Richards (1990) and the dynamic model of curriculum construction on the basis of reviewing the models above put forward by Graves (2008), all the research above unanimously regard teaching evaluation as the necessary procedure of the curriculum construction. The modern theory of testing which is used to test the effect of curriculum construction holds that the
classroom teaching evaluation should not only provide an accurate and reliable measurement method, but also have a good feedback effect on teaching (Bachman, 1996) and should be beneficial to both sides involved (Bachman, 1996). Comparatively speaking, it can be seen from the literature review above that the concept of teaching evaluation in the research of foreign scholars has a wide range of categories, which examines many elements in teaching, and even extends to the field of social education situation.

The evaluation of foreign language teaching has always been a hot topic in the field of foreign language teaching in China. Shu (2010) defines five functions of foreign language classroom teaching, in other words, the basic criteria of effective classroom teaching. They are: arousing students' interest in learning; providing appropriate learning resources; assisting students to solve their learning difficulties; training students' learning strategies; providing students with opportunities to demonstrate their learning results (Shu, 2014). Based on the discussion on the five functions above, he discusses the importance of evaluation to classroom teaching and provides a guiding framework for the evaluation of foreign language classroom teaching. It is worth noting that he emphasizes the connection between classroom teaching and extracurricular learning in the evaluation dimension for many times. That is, classroom teaching should be the guide of extracurricular learning, which is the extension of classroom learning (Shu, 2010). Besides, Classroom teaching evaluation is not only an evaluation of the teaching effect of a single class, there are also other relevant evaluation criteria with the focus on a whole stage or period of classroom teaching activities and their effects (Fang, 2017). Classroom teaching evaluation should be concerned with whether the objectives of the teaching can clearly reflect the curriculum requirements, whether the needs of students are fully satisfied in teaching process, whether the classroom teaching can be well connected with extracurricular Learning, whether the foreign language classroom teaching can reasonably balance the relationship between knowledge interpretation and language practice, Whether classroom activities are conducive to cultivating students' ability of inquiry learning and autonomous learning(Shu, 2014; Fang, 2017; Chen, 2014).

Due to the long-term impact of examination-oriented education, learning assessment has always been the main standard and sometimes the only standard to measure the classroom teaching evaluation (Liu, 2012). That is to say, the teaching effect is measured by the results of students' summative evaluation. The introduction of formative evaluation theory makes the teaching management authority begin to attach importance to the change and development of students and teaching activity in the whole process, particularly The effect on the results of the learning evaluation produced by the teaching activities in the whole teaching process (Shu, 2014).

In the latest issue of 2017 Guidelines of College English Teaching, the direct participants of the teaching evaluation of College English include the managing directors of college EFL teaching, the teachers and students (DHE-MOE, 2017), which to some extent has broadened the subject category of the evaluation and has embodied the emphasis on the other education subjects from the policy-making in the context of college EFL teaching. However the follow-up guidelines just develop the basic requirements and guidelines for "college English curriculum evaluation" and "College Students' English proficiency test", and advocates a comprehensive evaluation system that is based on the "university-based evaluation and other diversified evaluation" and "college English examinations at all levels" and many other kinds of testing methods. This concept to some extent is a just a follow-up of the traditional idea that teaching evaluation is mainly determined by the tests of students (Fang, 2017). The evaluation of effective classroom teaching is not given enough attention although the students' evaluation of teaching is mentioned in some teaching research (Mei, 2013; Zhao, 2014; Shao, 2015).

And what the author has to point out is the discussion on the effective classroom teaching from the other dimensions is quite limited, especially in the context of informationization, although the topics, such as the rationality, effectiveness, the factors and the teaching evaluation index system, are fully discussed in the research.

E. The Framework of Teaching Evaluation

The tradition of valuing the effectiveness of teaching outside China has a long history. Harris et al (2014) reported that Florida spent $45 million to evaluate the effectiveness of teaching, many measures were adopted and lots of variables were examined. And the results of the research were employed on the decision of teachers' career, such as the appointment, promotion and dismissal of the faculty. But research shows that these different evaluation methods not only affect the rewards and punishments of specific teachers in the short term, but also affect the quality of whole faculty In the long run. The most representative scholar of all in the United States is Danielson (1996), who constructed the teaching effectiveness evaluation framework based on the Constructivism teaching concept and related empirical research.

The Danielson’s research team in 2013 published their latest version of the teaching evaluation framework, which covers 22 observation perspectives with 76 microscopic levels. The four-point scale was employed-unsatisfactory, average, good and excellent. In his framework, all aspects of teaching activities are evaluated, and each level of the evaluation is entitled with detailed descriptions, which mainly include three layers, they are: the general description corresponding to its levels; the key features and possible representations. This may ensure the clarification and objectivity of the evaluation perspectives and dimensions to the utmost. The subjective randomness of evaluation is avoided. Since 1996, the proposed teaching evaluation framework has been widely accepted internationally by the participants involved in teaching practice (Chen, 2014). Its four-dimensional observation dimension and 22 observational perspectives are shown in figure 1:
of cognition. be integrated into the foreign language curriculum and become an indispensable part of foreign language teaching. Therefore, it is necessary to increase the distinctive and unique second language education. Hence, the discussion on the teaching effectiveness evaluation of foreign language teaching outside the U.S. Therefore, the involvement of big data and the enhancement of the information literacy of the teachers and students have made it difficult to distinguish the classroom and extracurricular learning in teaching. Hence it is quite necessary to increase the evaluation on the factors affecting the teaching outside the classroom greatly and the ability to guide students o how to use the information and resources provided. Secondly, one of the traditional research domains of the second language acquisition is concerned about the impact of environmental differences on acquisition and learning effect, the most typical one is the differentiation between Learning and acquisition according to the different environments (Krashen, 1981). Therefore, the discussion on the teaching effectiveness evaluation of foreign language education must be in accordance with the social situation of language learning and the era of IT.

The author believes that Mr. Shu’s evaluation framework, which is proposed specifically for the foreign language classroom evaluation, however, fails to reflect the differences in the dimension of language teaching. And it can also serve as a general guiding evaluation framework on other courses. While the Danielson’s framework, which is primarily designed for new teachers’ evaluation of the American Federation of Teachers, does not consider the specific situation of foreign language teaching outside the U.S. Therefore, it is necessary to increase the distinctive and unique second language dimension and the evaluation perspectives of foreign language teaching based on the combination of the research achievements of second language acquisition and foreign language teaching research in China. Based on the considerations above, the author tries to put forward the evaluation framework of foreign language teaching effectiveness by analyzing the typical characteristics of foreign language teaching in the era of IT.

III. RESEARCH DESIGN

A. Features

The facilities and resources of the information technology have affected every aspects of global higher education. these trends and technology is no longer auxiliary tools and external environment for foreign language learning, it has been integrated into the foreign language curriculum and become an indispensable part of foreign language learning (Chen, 2014) this integration produces a new discipline—the foreign language educational technology, which combines the (Hu; Chen, 2013).

To a great extent, the information resource, presented in the form of big data with dual attributes, has changed the mode of language learning and reshaped the language teaching behavior and even contributed to the new teaching mode of cognition.
While it must be noted that information technology facilities and resources have brought opportunities as well as new challenges to college foreign language teaching. Chen Jianlin (2014) believes that the biggest challenge in foreign language teaching based on big data is to change the way people think while using and analyzing the data, which is manifested in three aspects: random sampling is no longer dependent; The pursuit of accuracy is no longer the main objective; relationship of the cause and effect is no longer clear. Meanwhile, the informatization has also brought new opportunities for foreign language education. Such as: the possibility of personalized learning; the practice of the student-centered conception; the possibility of new curriculum design and blended teaching model; the promotion of teachers' professional development and team building.

Therefore, it has become urgent to study the influence on foreign language teaching brought by the information technology facilities and resources. It is also quite impeditive to promote the integration of information technology and foreign language curriculum and optimize the use of ubiquitous information resources in foreign language teaching in the information age.

B. Measures and Propositions

As early as the end of twentieth Century, the U.S. government is aware of the trend that social information has a strong influence on education. The Clinton administration in September 1993 formally proposed the construction of "national information infrastructure" (referred to NII), commonly known as the "information superhighway" project. Its core is to develop Internet as the core of the integrated information service system and promote information technology (IT) to be widely used in various fields, especially in education. Subsequently, the concept of educational informatization emerged; major countries in the world attach great importance to construction of education information (Liu, 2014).

China has put forward the policies and regulations for all levels of educational informatization. Such as the Ministry of Education in China issued the notice in 2000, which aimed to promote information technology education in the elementary and middle schools, etc. in recent years, China is gradually shifting from the focus on the construction of educational information infrastructure to the educational information software resources.

The teaching requirements of College English course clearly points out that “all colleges and universities should make full use of modern information technology and adopt the English teaching mode based on computer-assisted classroom teaching and improve the single teaching mode based on Teachers; instruction”. The outline of the National Medium-and Long-Term Education Reform and Development Program clearly points out the need to speed up the construction of educational information infrastructure and strengthen the development and application of high quality educational resources.

The Chinese Ministry of Education has issued a Ten-year Outline for the IT Development in Higher Education. In Chapter 6, it says: "the organization involved should work hard to promote the deep integration of information technology with higher education and reform the talent training mode”(DHEMOE, 2007). In the outline, four specific requirements are listed, they are: to strengthen the construction and the application of digital university campus; To promote the innovation of talent training mode; to improve the level of scientific research in colleges and universities; to enhance the ability of social services and cultural heritage in colleges and universities.

In 2020-year National Plan of Education, it also outlines the development framework and its main dimensions of higher education informatization as an important basis for education evaluation.

It can be seen that the development of information and communication technology since the 21st century has caused the upsurge of educational informatization and the revolution in the teaching of various subjects, such as foreign language education (Jiao, 2008). Education informatization is affecting all aspects of education in an irresistible way. The relevant departments of the state are expected to complete the top-level design scientifically and formulate the corresponding policies. The academic circles are expected to serve for the foreign language education policy-making and modify the outdated teaching mode by generalizing the influence of the information age on foreign language teaching (Shu, 2014).

As far as the evaluation of foreign language teaching is concerned, the academic circles in China need to transform the reality that the former framework ignores the situation of foreign language learning and the characteristics of the information age (Fang, 2017). Meanwhile, According to the characteristics and the real situation of informationized foreign language teaching in China, the researchers should try to design a teaching evaluation framework with rich connotation, reasonable scientific foundation and strong operational application, so as to assist the foreign language teachers in colleges and universities to take insight into the information technology and ensure the effectiveness of teaching.

C. The Evaluation Framework of EFL Teaching in the Information Age

The framework of Danielson (2013) is rich in content and operable; the framework of Shu Dingfang (2014) outlines the aims and objectives of classroom teaching. On the basis of framework above, the author puts forward the "four-dimensional framework of foreign language teaching evaluation in the information age" which combines the social educational situation of foreign language teaching in China with the characteristics of the information age. Evaluation dimensions and observational perspectives are shown in table 2:
As is shown in figure 2, the new framework is presented with a reference to the Danielson’s framework. But the 2nd dimension of “classroom environment” is removed from the original framework for two reasons: firstly, it is difficult for teachers to reform the classroom environment which is mostly established in China. Second, the emergence of the information age has extended the traditional classroom teaching to the second classroom, where learning is mainly relying on learners’ autonomy and data-driven learning. Based on these considerations, a mere focus on the classroom environment is not enough to effectively evaluate the role of teachers. The ”second classroom extension” is added to the new framework as the 3rd dimension, which further reflects the importance of ”connection between the classroom teaching and extracurricular learning” in the framework of ”Shu Dingfang” (2014). For another, it is consistent with the author’s view that “vague boundary between the classroom teaching and extracurricular learning”. Besides, in this dimension, the information awareness and behavior of teachers is also under observation, which reflects the emphasis that teachers should use the Internet platform to guide learners in the information age. The abundance of information resources has provided a more sufficient target language input for foreign language learning. However, the learners’ language output is still quite limited and teachers are required to encourage them.

In addition, the author adjusts the multiple observational perspectives in Danielson’s (2013) framework to the real situation of informatization and China’s foreign language teaching. For instance, the first three observational perspectives in the dimension of ”planning and preparation” focus on the evaluation of teachers’ knowledge about the international, national and school-based environment of foreign language teaching and learning in China as well as the characteristics and needs of learners.

The other three perspectives in this dimension are reflected in the beginning of teaching design. Teachers should fully recognize the potential of information facilities and resources in foreign language teaching and the trend of classroom teaching extension and design a reasonable evaluation method with multiple dimensions to measure the effectiveness of learning. In the 3rd dimension of “classroom teaching”, the change of observation angle reflects the focus on the connection between the classroom and extracurricular learning and the efficiency and flexibility of using information facilities and resources.

In the 4th dimension of ”teaching responsibility”, in order to evaluate the teachers’ adaptation to the new demands of the times, the guarantee conditions of the effective teaching are evaluated from the perspectives of teachers’ self-reflection, the change of the teachers’ conception and teachers’ willingness to accept information facilities and resources.

D. Operational Conception of the New Framework

Compared with the previous teaching evaluation framework, the new framework proposed in this paper focuses on the characteristics of the present era and assesses the teachers’ guidance on the learners’ autonomous learning ability and learners’ awareness and ability of learning in the second classroom. Compared with Danielson’s (2013) framework, the new framework takes the social-educational situation of FLT in China into consideration. The applicability of the framework is clearer and more specific, which is convenient for planning and teaching evaluation design. In particular, we can use multiple ways to put the evaluation framework into practice. Such as: “the qualitative analysis of teaching log”, ”the questionnaire and scale of students’ teaching evaluation”, ”questionnaire of information literacy of teachers and students” and ”teachers’ participation in students’ extracurricular learning activities and interview analysis of the roles of teachers and students in autonomous and data-driven learning”. All these research tools can perfectly prove the applicability and reliability of the new framework.

First of all, it can be inferred from the analysis of teaching log how teachers’ would understand the characteristics of the information era in various stages of teaching, such as ’planning and preparation; classroom teaching and
extracurricular guidance”, etc. The analysis of foreign language learners’ log can verify the accuracy of the speculation above. Secondly, we can design the questionnaires by referring to the evaluation dimension and perspective of the new framework, and adopt the Likert scale or the open questionnaire. And through factor analysis and qualitative analysis to define the weight of each dimension, quantitative scores and qualitative results of teaching evaluation can be gained to provide a better backwash role for teaching.

Thirdly, the questionnaire about teachers’ information literacy (including information awareness and information ability) and information behavior are designed to provide evidence for measuring the effectiveness of foreign language teaching in the information age. Lastly, based on the research of teacher-student interview and teaching and learning behavior, the studies suggested can expand the connotation of effective classroom teaching by analyzing the roles of teachers in classroom teaching and students’ autonomous and data-driven learning.

IV. CONCLUSION

Educational informatization has overwhelmingly affected every aspect of foreign language teaching. The changes have brought opportunities and convenience to the foreign language teaching as well as challenges for teaching activities and information resources application. How to guide students to make the rational use of facilities and equipment with extreme ease has become a big problem in teaching practice. Teaching evaluation has always been an important means to evaluate the effectiveness of teaching.

In this paper, the author firstly analyzes the characteristics of effective foreign language teaching in the information age, and then the author argues that the research circle should expand the connotation of classroom teaching. In teaching evaluation, attention should be paid to teachers’ role in the second classroom and teachers’ Consciousness and ability to use the information facilities and resources.

Under the influence of teaching evaluation framework of Danielson (2013) and Shu Dingfang (2014), we propose an evaluation framework for foreign language teaching in information era, which has absorbed the essence of the framework of the two scholars. Considering the characteristics and demands of foreign language teaching in the information age, the new framework includes four dimensions and 24 macro observation perspectives.

However, because empirical research is yet to be carried out, the author fails to put forward a feasible evaluation and questionnaire in the new framework under the guidance of the new framework. In this paper, the feasibility and reliability of the new evaluation framework is yet to be tested in the more operative follow-up research, which may come up with more convincing data and feedback to the EFL classroom teaching, thus improving the overall effectiveness of EFL teaching in China.

APPENDIX. ABBREVIATIONS

1. EFL, English as a Foreign Language
2. IT, Information Technology
3. CALL, Computer-assisted Language Learning
4. FFT, Framework for Teaching
5. 2020-NPE, 2020-year National Plan for Education
6. BOCEC, the Basic Outlines of College English Course
7. DHEMOE, Department of Higher Education in Ministry of Education

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Spelling Errors among Arab English Speakers

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Abstract—This study aims to investigate errors of spelling in English which are made by Arab speakers including those of consonant and vowel errors. Also, the study was carried out by the researcher in order to discover and investigate the factors which lay behind all these problems. The cause for such a phenomenon would be the unawareness of spelling errors and the sound problems. A basic skill which exists in any language and is very crucial and important in communication would be spelling, but it is often seen that students of the English Foreign Language find it very difficult to spell monosyllabic words after a lot of years of being engaged in learning that language. In addition, there is focus on other skills such as reading and speaking by teachers and researchers leading to the ignoring and overlooking of the smaller components.

Index Terms—spelling error, English foreign language, Arab English speakers

I. INTRODUCTION

A method describing the transfer of the language we speak from being audible into being seen and eventually readable would be writing. In order for us to be able to interpret the language we speak in a script which is written, a system must be created and perfectly applied. This is the case in the written system of English which should be followed to the latter by not only native speakers but also by L2 learners. One must note that among people who suffer most in English writing, those would be L2 learners where they suffer more than native speakers; this is due to the effect of the L1. More specifically, this importance of spelling has become increasingly difficult to ignore. Many studies in which some are included in this paper’s literature have reported that learners with a background in Arabic are the most who struggle when it comes to spelling English words. A vivid example of this is seen in double consonant letters, final [e], letters which are silent and vowels which illustrate the difficulties encountered by Arab learners. Speaking from a personal experience, as an English learner and later on a tutor of the English language, I believe that English writing would be the most difficult for Arab speakers.

There is clear evidence and a lot of data and research which demonstrates clearly that there are various differences in the method second and foreign language learners take an approach to the spelling, and to learning how to pronounce words in a certain language. Starting with speakers and how they acquire their mother tongue, they begin with establishing a certain pattern for pronouncing, spelling and uttering of certain words in which these segments and structures become part of the speaker’s linguistic instinct gradually and slowly, (blueprint/language faculty). However we should note that this pattern undergoes many phases where it develops and needs many encounters with speakers of that language. During this phase the speaker typically start listening to certain sound segments and begin to form specific hypotheses about their use in which later he would put those hypotheses to test them further and this is typically when language is used for the sole purpose of communication. We should also note that native speakers carry certain knowledge regarding the orthographic structures of many words and this is mainly implicit to their mother tongue.

In other words, a native speaker would simply be able to pronounce words without the need to actually know the exact rule as to why it is pronounced that way. It is also believed that they tend to learn words using pictures which they would retrieve them when communicating without giving it much thought as to how these words are formed. Further evidence also suggests that young children use pronunciation in order to utter words during their early years of acquiring language to move slowly into gradually into writing where they would give more importance to the correspondence of the morpheme-grapheme (Hayes et al., 2006, P.15).

By contrast, this situation is entirely opposite when it comes to adult second/foreign language learners; this is due to many reasons. First, learners who are adults would begin to learn another language only after they already had a mother tongue to begin with, their mother tongue would carry its own unique phonological and morphological system leading to a totally different learning experience as the second language would be influenced by the first language, depending on the relevance or contrast among those two languages. In certain incidents, we may find that the first and second languages would defer in the letters, sounds, and the relationship between the two. One example of this would be the Arabic and Portuguese languages, in which it is very easy to guess the pronunciation of a certain word depending on the way they are spelled. This is different in the case of the English language as the relationship between those two is loose (Bond, 2001, P. 23). In other cases, one may find specific phonemes which are located and found in the mother tongue language but not in the target one. An example illustrating this would be the English schwa which is never found in the Turkish language leading to problems for many Turks who attempt to learn English pronunciation (Demirezen, 2010, P.5).
Furthermore, there is a question regarding the ability of second language learners to fully perfect another language, specifically the phonological system of that language, as there is a constant and continuing debate regarding a critical period where learners would not be able to master another language perfectly the same way they have in the case of their native language. Lastly, learners of a language whether being second or foreign tend to learn it from artificial conditions where they are only exposed to a limited knowledge of that language, which usually takes place in the classroom where the linguistic input is not always specific to learning. This leads learners to have different ranges and chances when compared to the ones native speakers have in receiving, testing and using the intended language. Many studies have been researched and documented on the difficulties learners go through when learning the spelling and pronunciation of the intended language they plan on learning (for further studies on this issue please refer to, Hart, 1969, P. 16; Vidovic, 1972, P. 8; Jackson, 1981, P. 10).

Research regarding the explicit effect of the improvements when it comes to the acquisition of spelling and pronunciations is still in its infancy. An example of this is mentioned by (Landerl et al. 2008, P. 15), where he conducted an investigation regarding the spelling pronunciation and its impact on native Germans learning the English language. This study demonstrated and showed major improvement in the learners’ ability to spell and pronounce. An newer study conducted by (Simon et al., 2010, P. 13) where he investigates the impact of the orthography training and the effect it had on learners’ ability when it came to separate between similar sound segments by testing it among English speakers from the united states who aim to take on French as an additional language to add to their repertoire. In this experiment, learners were separated into two teams, one received orthographic information relating to words and the other did not. The research concluded that orthographic information did not have any significance when it came to the way these two teams performed. (Al-Saqqaf, 1987, P. 7) has discussed several points regarding to the phonology and graphology of the Arabic and English languages, and ultimately creating general rules which govern the transfer from the source language to the target one, in particular he elaborated on the allographic variations (see below) where he discussed the scripts from both Arabic and English language, specifically when letters (or graphemes) are used in the beginning, in the middle and at the end. (Al-Saqqaf and Vaddapalli, 2012, P. 14) is a paper where analysis demonstrates the contrast between English and Arabic vowels to provide an appropriate model of pronunciation in order to teach Arab native speakers English. They note that the wrong pronunciation of certain vowel sounds may have its impact on the way students write and comprehend. (Al-Jayousi, 2011, P. 15) investigated spelling problems and errors which Arab learners in the UAE’s public schools produce when learning English; it also identifies and records the most types to occur and the probable causes for such mistakes and errors including measurement of how much they progress in their spelling proficiency as they go on further to higher classes.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

In order for us to conduct a proper investigation on how words get turned into a written script we ought to use a writing system. (Hasyn, 2002, P. 2) has affirmed that a clear representation of what language is would be spelling. There is also ample research which concludes that when it comes to learning a system it is considered that a new roman system would be more difficult to be learned for the second time rather than the first time as learning such a system is not a very easy process to do but rather a hard one (Ibrahim, 1978, P. 9). One researcher who emphasizes how important writing is (Bazerman, 1991, P. 3) where we said that “writing structures our relations with others and organizes our perceptions of the world”. To be more specific, spelling would be considered as a very important element in any writing system.

When writers want to express their feeling and what they want to say, they use writing (Cook, 1992, P. 4). More importantly, it has been shown that when there is no accurate spelling, this would pose difficulty to both foreign learners who intent to take on a language, and those whose mother tongue is that language (Al-Jarf, 2010, P. 12). (Cook, 1992, P. 476) aimed to compare learners of a language and those whose mother tongue is that language by asking a simple question regarding “the extent to which L2 users’s knowledge of sound/letter rules and of individual visual items reflects their different L1 systems of spelling and pronunciation”. He discovered that, typically, a native speaker who is fifteen years old would create the same mistakes as an adult who learns that language as a second language.

He also insists by stating that spelling has a very high importance to its “social overtones”, and others have stated that in order to identify and understand how the spelling process takes place and develops one is ought to observe students and their spelling mistakes (Varnhagen et al., 1997, P. 17).

Learners of a foreign language whose writing system does not consist of roman characters tend to produce very few errors when it comes to those whose writing system contains roman characters (Haggan, 1991, P. 32). (Cook, 1992, PP. 478-479) regards that the spelling mistake which is more likely to occur would be the “insertion of a single letter, omission of a single letter, substitution of one letter by another, transposition of two consecutive letters, grapheme substitution, i.e. multiple related changes, other mistakes, such as local accent”. Moreover, (Khun, 2011, P. 19) stated spelling errors related to silent letters are due to the fact that there were no similarities between the sentence segments of a learner’s native language and the language he intends to learn. In addition, it was discovered that the phonology of the first language would affect the English spelling of those who plan on learning English as their second or foreign language (Allaith and Joshi, 2011, P. 16).
Two researchers (Abu-Rabia & Sammour, 2013, P. 19) confirmed that that “Successful English spelling performance involves the processes of segmenting the spoken word into its phonemic components and then selecting the appropriate graphemes to represent the phonemes”.

We should note that the latter point has been critiqued by (Tops et al., 2014, P. 295) where he stated that “the mapping between sounds and letters is not always regular or predictable”. So, although spelling is considered a major element when writing a language, it was rarely discussed by researcher (Cook, 1992, P. 83). All this would lead to create an attempt to mimic the results of this small scale research with those of the experience that the author had when tutoring English in order to shed light on the difficulties encountered by Arab learners when taking on English.

Orthography

Orthography is a specific terminology which is used to indicate the spelling system of a certain language as to whether they contain a deeper or a more shallow orthography. Since it has been confirmed that languages can either have a deep or a shallow orthography, one most note that languages whose letters do not match directly with the phonemes are orthographically deep. The other, in the case where the language's letters do match with the phonemes would be considered orthographically shallow. Examples of languages of the former type would be English, Arabic and Hebrew. As for the latter, examples would be Serbo-Croat in addition to Finnish (Cook, 2004, P. 25).

Researchers have asserted that those learners who have deep orthographical languages tend to find it more difficult to deal with the phonological aspect of a language, while those with orthographical languages have difficulties with the visual aspect (Cook, 1992, P. 29). Moreover, there is a clear aspect for both tutors and tutee in which they would be able to identify whether a certain language is shallow or it is deep.

(Protopapas et al., 2013, P. 23) stated regarding spelling that “spelling errors may be strongly dependent on the language-specific orthographic system and on the individual level of competence”.

Importance of Spelling

A very important part of writing would be spelling, as spelling mistakes would lead to a lack of understanding in the text written (Khuwaileh and Al-Shoumali, 2000). In order to demonstrate evidence of someone's competence in language, we would need reading, spelling words perfectly and writing accurately (Allaith and Joshi, 2011, P. 23). By contrast, committing spelling mistakes would most certainly prove otherwise. Nevertheless, if we would like to perfect Speaking and Writing English, then there would have to be a perfect applied correlation between the written graphemes and the specific phonemes (Al-Jarf, 2010, P. 26). It was also concluded that learners are ought to be taught word segments explicitly rather than implicitly. Furthermore, tutors of a language tend to believe that focusing on reading would be the answer for students which would them lead to spell better (Bowen, 2011, P. 23). However, Research data and the studies conducted have not discussed this issue thoroughly despite the fact that many SLA students still face a problem with English spelling (Cook, 1992, P. 16). We should note that English language is complex, and it does not solely contain letters which match certain phonemes. There are many others such as the roles played by letters which are silent in the English spelling, the effect of grammar it has on the morphology of a language which is crucial, and the various rules of English which are different for various groups of words.

Spelling Problems and their Causes

Apparently, many researches observe that analyzing students’ errors would be of great value, due to the fact that an observation such as the one made by (Burt, 1975, P. 19) would help in understanding the types and causes of language errors, leading to a better understanding of the second language learning process to eventually aid students and help them avoid committing these errors again. Similar authors such as, (Book and Harter, 1929, P. 45) explain that though there is difficulty in determining the reasons as to why such spelling errors occur, they note that those cannot be avoided unless the causes for their occurrence is identified and repaired by teachers.

A major research discusses the problem many learners of English have when it comes to spelling, and attributes spelling errors to different causes. Regarding the main causes for these spelling errors we shall list three as follows:

• Development factors.

(Bahloul, 2007, P. 96) explains that one of the main reasons for the occurrence of such spelling errors of would be factors which play a role in the development stage as Bahloul goes on further to explain that these errors which English students produce stem from the linguistic development stage, which conditions what learners are capable of producing”. Meaning that, these errors are not willingly committed by these learners but rather it is out of their control, this is due to the fact that they are at a certain developmental stage where it does not allow them to perfect all those features of a given language. One study (Bahloul, 2007, P. 97) where he investigated the spelling errors which were committed by ALE, he noticed that they were of a similar nature to the ones made by native speakers of that language when they were at a certain developmental stage. A very vivid example of this is when the researcher observed in his study that most of these errors he came to identify were similar to the ones he matched in baby talk. This is where he confirmed that reversing the order of certain phonemes which are adjacent would be solved as these learners would move on to higher classes.

• The Spelling System of English and How Irregular It Is.

(Bahloul, 2007, P. 50) stated that the irregularity of English regarding its writing system is the main cause for not only spelling errors, but one that creates a big problem for most learners of the English language when it comes to developing their spelling proficiency. This irregularity causes confusion and misunderstanding to both native speakers.
and learners from different language background, it is identified that the main cause for such irregularity according to (Henderson, 1981, P. 103) would be that there is no perfect match between the way a word is pronounced and the way it is written. Another researcher, (Hildreth, 1962, P. 95) affirms that by stating that most adults encounter difficulties which are attributed to the “inconsistencies in English word structure”.

Moreover, there are further examples which are illustrated by (Smith, 2008, P. 44), as he state that there are consonants which can perform perfectly as other letters such as q, c, and the letter x. in addition, he points out to a further example which is the pronunciations of various letters and the combinations which are formed when these letters are attached together, leading to learners putting extra effort to not forget every rule and step they have learned over the years in order to be able to pronounce words correctly. To provide a clear cut example of this he mentions random words which carry different variations of the phoneme th. When letters are combined in words such as “that, those, them, and these”, then they would be pronounced /θ/, in words such as “thank, thatch, thong, and theme”, they would be pronounced as /ð/. (Henderson, 1982, P. 32) goes on to list a very similar example as she considers the letters ph as one and only one single segment in words like digraph. By contrast, she considers ph as two units in a word like uphill.

• The role of the Mother tongue.

Various researchers state that there is a difference which lies between the native language and the language intended to be learnt, this in turn acts as a barrier which may actually further or hinder what learners will learn. An example made by (Corder, 1993, P. 15) where he insists on stating that those people who speak the mother tongue which contains less differences with the target language, find it way easier to acquire it than those who don’t find very few similarities between the two languages. This would be considered as more “distant linguistically” according to (Saville-Troike, 2006, P. 34) and (Brown, 2000, P. 50).

These two researches go on further to identify transfer as the effect the mother tongue has on the language which the person learns when they become an adult. According to Brown, this carryover of knowledge can be either positive or negative. In the case where the previous knowledge facilitates learning this would be considered as a positive transfer. However, it is regarded as a negative transfer in the case when the knowledge is applied incorrectly leading to obstruction to the process of learning. This would be also known as interference. All these views confirm that learners begins the learning process of a foreign language, they are not a blank page since they already have certain knowledge and information which they hold from their native language or another one, in the case they have acquired two languages at their infancy being bilinguals. It is typical for learners to get affected by their native language and rely on it in order to learn a newer language, since students/learners as always according to (Brown, 2000, P. 19) take advantage of any previous knowledge that may have, this includes the language which they acquired as their first language in order to create solutions for the problems they face.

III. APPROACHES TO ENGLISH SPELLING

Speaking from a general point of view, English is similar to all the other languages in the world out since they hold rules which are regarded as the first steps taken in learning spelling. For example, the rule which explains how i always exists before the letter e with a specific exception when occurring after the letter c in words such as ‘grief’; there is another rule which is known as the “three letter rule” which governs certain segments of certain words such as ‘to’ and other words like ‘bee’. Moreover, there is the ‘th’ principle in words such as ‘thank and thanks’ in addition to certain principles for surnames such as the addition of the letter ‘e’ to words such as ‘Forde’. Lastly, identical consonants occurring after one another in a word like ‘navy’ which turns into ‘navvy’.

There have been many approaches which systemized English spelling: those approaches have been created by famous linguists, and those who carry big name in this field. Linguists like Richard Venezky, Carol and her father Noam in addition to a third linguist named Ken Albrow. We should note that these principles which have been created are now being applied in the English language and specifically the spelling by most of them to this day.

A certain approach to what the linguist Venezky aims to provide regarding English Spelling would be a simple presentation of the current patterns and structures which lie in the orthography of today. A simple example which illustrates how this is done would be to ask a question of how “many spoke correspondences can you find for written?”

He suggests various correspondences which he later groups them into four types those are, “/tg/ ‘cello’, /Æ/ ‘czar’, /s/ before ‘cell’ and /k/ ‘come” (Cook, 2004, P. 61). Regardless of this, one should note that this system concentrates and focuses on the transition from the writing method into sounds as it focuses on 20,000 of the most words which their occurrence is very frequent to go on and continue and describe rules of English orthography where he created seven of those rules (Cook, 2004, P. 61). The answer for such spelling segments would be using units which are functional, regardless as to what their nature is, if they are relational or the other option, being markers.

Another method which aims to describe the English writing system for teachers would be the one of Albrow’s, by posing the question of “is the unit of English the letter, the word, combinations of letters or something else?” (Cook, 2004, P. 68), where he asserts that those signs which carry an orthographic nature are used as a specific segment when writing English regardless to whether it is in a word like "cafe" where it is considered basic or complex such as a word like ‘chop’, and lastly not contiguous like ‘hive’.

Orthographic symbols are the unit of English writing, and not the word, regardless to whether it is basic ‘cafe’, complex ‘chop’ or discontinuous ‘hive’.

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Considered one of the most influential approaches to spelling of modern day, Noam Chomsky and his daughter Carol Chomsky where they came up with a famous method known as the "lexical representation", which aims to “describe how the human mind bridges the gap between the actual sounds of speech and the complex abstract meanings of sentences” (Cook, 2004, P. 76). They affirmed what learners of the English language require, which are the phonological principles of a given language, in this case the language being English. On a final note, we shall state that these three methods have been conducted and used by many linguists when it came down to the spelling of English since they are attributed to very famous linguists and hold the most powerful methods which are systemized.

IV. SPELLING MISTAKES IN ENGLISH WHICH ARE COMMITTED BY ARAB LEARNERS

Since this research has a main focus, that is the spelling errors which are committed by Arab learners of the English language; one must note that the Language of English affects the Arabic language in various ways. This is done firstly be giving notice to where the writing starts and where does it end since that would have a tremendous effect on the learners of that language. An English person would begin writing from left to right since this is how it has always been in their language. However, an Arab person would write differently, from right to left and that is a very big difference in itself. Speaking from a personal experience, I still recall the difficulty I had while working as a tutor of the English language to try and make students get used to the fact that writing starts in the opposite direction, starting from the moment they opened their notebooks and wrote in their booklets as this reinforces the fact that the Arabic language and the English one have complete differences rather than similarities not just from this aspect but from other ones as well. (Haggan, 1991, P. 22) mentioned that studying native speakers of the Arabic language while attempting to learn the English one would be very interesting; this is because of two simple reasons: one being the fact that the English language and the Arabic one have different texts, and the other being that Arabic has a regular method of spelling depending on the way words are pronounced but this does not exist in English as it is rather arbitrary.

This is when he had decided to carry out a research at the Kuwait University where he would go on to compare 64 students who were freshman and 23 of those who were seniors. This sample was finely selected to include only people who spoke Arabic as their mother tongue and were studying English at the time this research took place.

This is where he discovered that the reason why these spelling mistakes happen, were due to “the students’ mispronunciation, lack of awareness and regular spelling patterns”. This researcher has also followed on his footsteps where (Bebout, 1985, P. 56) divided spelling mistakes which were made by learners with an Arabic mother tongue into eight and only eight categories:

1- Mistake occurring in double consonants
He discovered that two groups had made such mistakes, in a simple example such as (×swiming) for the correct word (swimming) in my personal opinion, I believe that this type is the most likely to occur.

2- Other mistakes related to consonants
These are vivid in examples like when a learner starts scribbling the letter /t/ instead of /s/ for the letter /Z/, in a simple example such as the word (conclusion). Another example is when a learner writes the letter /s/ instead of the appropriate letter /z/ for this letters /s/ in a very simple word like (sentence). Moreover, writing the letter /t/ instead of the/s/ for /S/ in a big word such as (controvertial). Also, we should note that the /pl/ phoneme does not exist in the Arabic language would lead to more obstacles and problems between the letters /pl/ and /bl/, as they find it difficult to alternate between the two leading to a very frequent spelling which my students make.

3- Mistakes regarding the sound Schwa
Learners with the Arabic native language frequently commit mistakes between the sound /e/ and the other sound /ad/. For example they end up scribbling the words (xcollages) for the original word (colleges). This mistake is also evident in words such as (unfamiliar) where it ends up being written by Arab learners as (xunfamilier). We should note that this occurs mostly in beginner students.

4- Mistakes related to the silent letter /e/
These usually occur when Arab learners end up compiling /e/ in uncalled for situations, especially when the word ends. An example of this would be the word (play) when it becomes (playe). This not the only example as we can add up another one which can clearly shows that the word (began) ends up being in this form (×begane). This problem is not so easily fixed for beginner students.

5- Mistakes related to vowels
The different spelling of sounds such as /e/ and /u/ is definitely related to mistakes which are created due to spelling something wrongly. For example words such as (well) ends up being pronounced with a /u/ instead of the /e/. Also, the word include is pronounced with a /i/ where it gets added before the /u/ sound. This issue is confined to those students of the intermediate level only.

6- The wrong order of certain sounds
Some Intermediate Arab students tend to replace the right order of /ei/ by switching their places to become /ie/. This mistake in evident is a word like chief where instead of being written in the right way with a /ie/ it gets replaced to become written with /ei/ instead. We can spot these mistakes when asking students to write long paragraphs related to any topic.

7- Syllable Assortment
Likewise, there is difficulty in determining the causes which lay behind spelling errors, they cannot be prevented unless understanding of the second language learning process to eventually aid students and help them avoid committing errors. Spellings is different between (inflectional) and (inflexional). Some students may write (inflectional) when combining American and British, when learners are especially exposed to both American and British texts. For instance, the learner may not remember this exception that will lead to making a spelling error like (× comparing) as well as (× completely). A vowel letter, (e.g. compare when adding a suffix to a word which ends with [e] but [e] in the word end could be deleted when the suffix starts with a vowel letter, (e.g. compare – comparing and complete –completely). Arab learners may generalize the rule if they are not remember this exception that will lead to make a spelling error like (× comparing) as well as (× completely).

Vowel digraphs, double consonants, silent vowels and consonants and homophones”.

Moreover, the researcher (Doushaq, 1986, P. 23) carried out a study on Jordanian Students studying at colleges, their specific number was 96 where he categorized them into four, in order to compare their level when writing English and Arabic and the problems associated with such writing. This concluded that since students wrote very poorly in both languages, it had led to a correlating effect where one language may influence the other.

Two researchers (Al Jarf, 2009, P. 31) carried out a test of spelling which included 36 females students; specifically they were undergraduate students from Saudi. This is when she asked them to write in 100 empty blanks relating to a specific listening dialogue. This led to a conclusion that 63% of all the mistakes had a phonological nature and the rest 37% were orthographical. The former being related to mishearing while the latter relating to “vowel digraphs, double consonants, silent vowels and consonants and homophones”.

Meaning “assortment of highly idiosyncratic spellings”, in an example such as when these students end up writing (xneocliair) instead of the right way to write such a word which is nuclear.

**Homophones (Words carrying identical sounds)**

As the majority of Arab learners have a problem with pronouncing words such as (there and their), the probable cause would be the fact that these words are combined of identical sounds.

In addition, the researcher Al Shoumali in addition to the researcher (Khuwaileh, 2000, P. 15) managed to make a comparison of 150 Arab students between how adequate their spelling was in their mother tongue in addition to the Arabic language. This is when they discovered the lack of cohesion and tense was the most frequent linguistic problem they had in both of these languages, to come to a conclusion that there is a direct relation between the skills students may have when it comes to spelling words regardless to whether they are Arabic or English.

(Al Jarf, 2010, P. 23) managed to create a collection of the spelling mistakes from secondary schools in Saudi Arabia from their essay paragraphs to later include them in a corpus where she categorized these mistakes to three sections: “whole word errors, faulty graphemes and faulty phonemes”. She has also categorized spelling mistakes into two, one being related to the phonology and the other being related to the orthographic. For example, when a student overhears the last segment of (country) and ends up hearing only (× cunt). This is regarded as a phonological mistake where the student mishears the whole word or part of it. On the other hand, when the student tends to lighten and sometimes even delete the /d/ consonants to make it pronounce in this format (×middle). It is then regarded as an orthographical mistake as the student would not spell the segments containing the identical sound. Therefore, she states that students who take on a foreign language make spelling mistakes which have to do either with the Inter-lingual or the other which is considered the intra-lingual mistakes. The spelling errors in the former would be due to what is known as the mother tongue transfer, the latter would be due to the students’ defective learning of the L2.

As for the researchers (Ryan and Meara, 1991, P. 56), they have managed to conduct a research in which discussed how Arab Learners come across difficulties when compared to other native speaker when attempting to learn English. They seem to find difficulty in the vowels of English an when it comes to processing English words. This difficulty is probably caused by the fact that the way Arabic is written does not interpret vowels which are short. This is a clear outcome of both how Arabic is structured and its orthography.

(Al Jarf, 2009, P. 31) conducted a research regarding the effect the Arabic phonological system had on English spelling. They concluded that the English spelling system was affected by the Arabic phonological one which in turn corresponds with the various studies which discussed the exact same problem. In addition, it affirmed that Arabic students were even more confused when it came to the phonemes which are not found in Arabic, sounds like the /p and /v/. These students find it difficult to distinguish between those two sounds since they are very similar to the ones which can be found in Arabic. Speaking from a personal experience, I still recall our teacher trying to help us distinguish the /p/ and /v/ sounds and demonstrating it by using a piece of paper.

One researcher, (named Ibrahim, 1978, P. 66) gathered data from English major students at the University of Jordan to create a collection of written notes, essays and homework to observe and report the following mistakes:

A. Transitional errors may be made by learner due to either ignorance or overgeneralization of different spelling errors. Some grammatical rules have exceptional cases. Spelling errors may occur when students have not taught or remember these exceptional cases. A grammatical rule for example says that the [e] at the word end should be retained when adding a suffix to a word which ends with [e], but [e] in the word end could be deleted when the suffix starts with a vowel letter, (e.g. compare – comparing and complete –completely). Arab learners may generalize the rule if they are not remember this exception that will lead to make a spelling error like (× comparing) as well as (× completely).

B. Another type of error in his data that (Ibrahim, 1978, P. 34) found is the effect of the spelling differences between American and British, when learners are especially exposed to both American and British texts. For instance, the spellings is different between (inflectional) and (inflexional). Some students may write (inflexional) when combining the two different spellings in one.

**V. CONCLUSION**

Many researches perceive that analyzing student’s errors would be of great value, due to the fact that such an analysis as (Burt, 1975, P. 53) observes, would help in understanding the types and causes of language errors, leading to a better understanding of the second language learning process to eventually aid students and help them avoid committing errors. Likewise, there is difficulty in determining the causes which lay behind spelling errors, they cannot be prevented unless
the causes for their occurrence is accurately determined and clearly understood by teachers. The aim of this study is to investigate the English spelling errors, which are made by Arab speakers including those of consonant and vowel errors. The study was carried out by the researcher in order to discover and investigate the factors which lay behind all these problems.

A good body of research discusses the problem many learners of English have when it comes to spelling, and attributes spelling errors to different causes. Three of the main causes of spelling errors, which are; Development factors, Irregularity of the English spelling system in addition to Mother tongue interference.

Also, there have been many approaches which systemized English spelling, those approaches have been generated by renowned linguists, namely, Richard Venezky, Ken Albrow and Noam and Carol Chomsky. Where these approaches have been applied to English spelling by most linguists to this day.

REFERENCES


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Research on MTI Theses of Inner Mongolia University—Taking the Theses of the Students of Grade 2011-2013 as a Case*

Huaiyu Mu
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Abstract—This paper has conducted a quantitative investigation and analysis of the selection of research topics and writing models of the MTI theses of the students of Grade 2011 to Grade 2013 at Inner Mongolia University, and had a deep probe into the actual application and acceptance of the current modes of MTI theses. Based on the findings, the author suggests that in procession of writing MTI theses, the students should be required to first select a highly professional translation project which has not been translated before, and then write a research report on the practice of translation. The writing of MTI theses should embody its distinctive characteristics and avoid the convergence with the forms of such academic-oriented theses as those on translation studies, thoroughly removing the “academic” tendency and keeping its “professional” feature, but at the same time, the academic norms that MTI theses should have can’t be reduced.

Index Terms—Inner Mongolia University, MTI, Thesis, Selection of Research Topics

I. INTRODUCTION

In 2011, the program of Master of Translation and Interpreting (MTI) was set up at Inner Mongolia University, and since then MTI enrollment and cultivation of talents in translation and interpreting have become one of the core contents of the postgraduate education at Inner Mongolia University. The total number of students coming to register for MTI at Inner Mongolia University has been increasing yearly, and by July 2015, 293 students had been enrolled in all and 174 students had graduated. However, with the enrollment number of MTI at Inner Mongolia University increasing, the problems about the selection of research topics and writing models of the students’ MTI theses have become more and more pronounced. Therefore, the author has conducted a quantitative investigation and an analysis of the selection of research topics and writing models of the MTI theses of the students from Grade 2011 to Grade 2013 at Inner Mongolia University, investigated the problems arising in the current MTI theses and further discussed the solutions to them.

II. STATISTICS AND ANALYSIS

The author went through 174 MTI theses of the students from Grade 2011 to Grade 2013 at Inner Mongolia University, and the forms of the students’ theses are respectively research papers, translation practice reports and translation experiment reports. Among these theses, there are 72 research papers, accounting for 41.4% of the total number of the theses; 99 translation practice reports, accounting for 56.9%; 3 translation experiment reports, accounting for 1.7%. From these findings we can see that the MTI theses of Inner Mongolia University are in the transition from the model of traditional academic-oriented theses to the model of practical-oriented theses, gradually reflecting the distinctive characteristics of MTI education focusing on the practice. However, the number of translation experiment report embodying distinctive practical features, one of the three forms of theses offered in Guiding Syllabus for MTI Education, only accounts for 1.7%, so far less than the number of the first two forms of theses that we should pay attention to this phenomenon.

Table 1 reflects the classification statistics on the number in the three forms of translation experiment report, research paper and translation practice report in the MTI theses of the students from Grade 2011 to Grade 2013 at Inner Mongolia University. There are some differences in the three forms of the students’ theses.

* This paper is the research result of both “Research and Practice on the Standard of MTI Theses in the Inner Mongolia Autonomous Region” (YG20151012614) of Scientific Research Project of the Department of Education of the Inner Mongolia Autonomous Region and “Scientific Research Project on Foreign Language Teaching of National Universities” ( 2016NM0007B).
Next, the author makes a deep and detailed analysis of the inclination reflected in the selection of the three forms of the MTI theses.

A. Translation Practice Report

The main problems existing in the 99 translation practice reports are as follows. In the first place, some students did not classify, explain and analyze the difficult problems and puzzles that they met with in the process of translation, and even didn’t explain how to apply relevant translation theories and appropriate translation methods and techniques to solve these difficulties in their translation practice reports, and of course they could not translate the projects accurately. What’s more, they didn’t rethink the whole translation process, the translation strategies and the application of relevant theories, they also did not give classified elaboration and analysis, summary and conclusion of the experience and law of translation, and thus they even didn’t refer to what inspirations they got in the process of translation and what innovations they made in translation theories and methods. They just described the translation process and translation examples in a dull, flat style. The number of such kind of translation practice reports is 44, accounting for 44%.

In comparison, more than half of the students can give a detailed analysis, summary and conclusion on the difficult problems and puzzles that they met with in the process of translation and can apply the scientific methodology and a certain translation theory that they have mastered to further analyzing and explaining these problems and then give the corresponding solutions. The number of such kind of translation practice reports is 55, accounting for 55.6%.

The type of materials for translation practice report reflects the inclination of the material selection of the students.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of materials for translation practice reports</th>
<th>Number of theses</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Translation report</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>62.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-literate text</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>35.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpreting report</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Among the translation texts as the written translation projects chosen by the students, the number of literary texts is far more than that of the non-literary texts. According to the author’s investigation, the main reason for the case is that, compared to other types of texts, the studying and appreciation of literary works run through the whole process of the education of the students, who are more familiar with their linguistic features, and thus in the process of translation, the difficulty is relatively smaller, therefore, it is easier to control. But in that case, MTI students’ comprehensive translation practice ability can not be reflected in their theses, and it is also contrary to the original intention that MTI aims to cultivate applied, practical and professional talents. In addition, “90% of total volume of translation in the world is the translation of technology and business, while literary translation accounts for only about 1% of the total volume of translation” (Sun, 2015, p.106), and in China, “In terms of the current situation of the translation of the book market, literary translation only has a proportion of 8% among the published translated books, the rest are non-literary translation” (Xu, 2010, p.52), and “At present there is a huge gap in the number of first-rate, professional and applied translating and interpreting talents in China” (Guo, 2012). Therefore, the author thinks the tutors should give correct guidance to their students when they select their translation projects.

In the literary texts, most are novels with the number of 37. Other types, such as culture, children’s literature, history and biography, are more evenly distributed; in the non-literary texts, the selection of materials is mostly related to science and technology and academic, with the number of 8 and 9 respectively; the number of other types of texts such as political essays, tourism, linguistics, foreign publicity, current politics, film and television and so on are 1—5. However, in all the 99 translation-practice-report-based MTI theses, only 2 theses selected interpreting projects, but they didn’t give classified exploration and analysis to the difficulties they met with in the practical process of interpreting protects, and perfect the translation methods, summarize the experience and law of translation and so on.

In the 19 oral interpreting-oriented translation practice reports, only 2 theses selected interpreting projects, the remaining 17 theses all selected translation projects. Up to now, whether the distinction between interpreting-oriented theses and translation-oriented theses should be made has not been regulated in the existing forms of theses. According to the author’s investigation findings, the main reason for the above phenomenon is that, compared with the economically developed provinces and cities, there is a lack of geographical advantage in the Inner Mongolia Autonomous Region, the students’ opportunities of interpreting practice are very limited, the difficulty in the collection
of interpreting projects is far greater than that of the translation projects for them. In this case, for the sake of safety, many interpreting-oriented students have to select other forms of theses which are relatively easy for them because there are no relevant interpreting practice. Therefore, it is necessary for us to make a positive exploration in whether the distinction between interpreting-oriented theses and translation-oriented theses should be made in the thesis form of the translation practice report, and adopt what kind of way and how to distinguish them, how to embody the characteristics of the interpreting-oriented thesis form.

According to the author’s investigation, the main reason why the translation practice reports of the students did not embody the applied, practical and professional features of MTI education is that the students did not have enough opportunities for translation practice so that they could not learn the changing needs of the translation industry market in time and experience the real translation work, and in that case they could not make a rich abundant accumulation of the selection of topics for their translation practice reports. As a professional degree education, MTI education’s career direction is very clear, that is to cultivate applied, practical and professional translators and interpreters, which requires that translation teaching must be consistent with social needs, the professionalization requirements of the translation industry and the content of the actual translation work. Kong and Wang (2011) argue that it is a common practice to cultivate the professional translation talents in the world by combining the teaching of MTI with the students’ translation practice in the professionalized way so each university offering the MTI programs should be good at creating and exploring opportunities for translation practice and give the practice-oriented and profession-oriented training to the students, and fully cooperate with the government, enterprises and institutions, foreign-funded and export-oriented enterprises, translation companies, overseas-study agencies, and, at the same time, carry out extensive international cooperation to ensure that the students have as many opportunities as possible in the translation practice to get a systematic and real profession training. This kind of opportunities will provide the students an important platform to obtain the experience of translation practice, and in this way the students could take an active part in the real translation projects, have a good knowledge of various network resources, translation software, translation techniques, and related equipment and learn to grasp and use them effectively, experience the real translation work and learn about the practical needs of the translation industry, find out their weaknesses, broaden their horizons, through which the students could achieve sufficient amount of practice and translation, making their translation competence further improved. Through this kind of practical activities the students could make a rich accumulation of the selection of the topics for the translation practice reports, which, at the same time, could also shorten their adaptation period of being engaged in translation work after graduation and make them become qualified translators and interpreter as soon as possible.

### B. Experimental Report

Guiding Syllabus for MTI Education puts forward three basic forms of thesis, among which, the stipulation on “experimental report” is that students carry out experiments on a certain section of interpreting or translation under the tutor’s guidance, and then analyze the experimental results, and write an experimental report with at least 10000 words. The experimental design should be described accurately in the experimental report. And a complete experimental design theoretically should include “research objects, research goals and research expectations based on the cognitive interest and need; media / tools, description of the experimental process, operation procedure; research hypothesis; experimental text; the methods and problems bringing about data; questionnaire (focusing on text analysis); subjects’ qualification and selected conditions, and controllable/uncontrollable factors/variables; the methods for data analysis related to research goals” (Miao & Liu, 2010, p.95).

The author analyzed the only three experimental reports in the MTI theses based on the above standard. One of the three experimental reports was basically completed on the basis of the standard of experimental design, the other two just got the relevant data by experimental means, and then described and analyzed the data, and they need to be further regulated.

There are only 3 theses in the form of experimental reports in the 174 MTI theses. This result requires us to have a serious rethink. Li and Pan (2012) think that, as one of the core semantics of the experimental report, the “experiment” is an empirical research, an elaborate design, and it is a method of studying the causal relationship between variables by manipulating certain factors under highly controlled conditions. When introducing the experiment method for translation research, Williams and Chesterman (2002) make a distinction between it and naturalistic (or observational) studies empirical research: An experimental study, on the other hand, deliberately interferes with the natural order of things in order to isolate a particular feature for study and, as far as possible, to eliminate other features that are not relevant to the research. You set up controlled conditions under which you test something. You can then compare the results with those produced under some conditions, or those that occurred in a natural situation. For instance, you might want to compare the ways in which trainee translators revise their own texts with the ways professionals do. You therefore arrange two groups that do not differ (you hope) in any other significant way except trainee-vs.-professional, give them the same translation task, and the same deadline, and see what happens. That is to say, researchers need to intervene in the process of the object’s occurrence or development in order to isolate or highlight the specific characteristics of the study, so as to drown a conclusion by comparing with the results of the control group. The main reason why there are only 3 theses in the form of experimental reports in the 174 MTI theses, according to the author’s survey, the main reason is that, the experimental process is very difficult to operate, what’s more, it involves many factors such as hypothesis, sampling construction group, variable control and so on. This kind of topics is a big
challenge for academic-oriented graduate students, not to mention applied graduate students with less academic training (Huang, 2012). Thus, it seems that experimental report, as one of the given forms of the MTI theses, is somewhat unrealistic and unreasonable for the students.

C. Research Paper

The form of research paper accounts for 41.4% in the selection of topics of the MTI theses. Among them, the number of research papers in the graduation theses of students of Grade 2012 and Grade 2013 majoring in interpreting accounts for 96.6% and 86.7% respectively, which greatly deviates from the training goal of MTI education focusing on practice and application. According to Guiding Syllabus for MTI Education, the goal of MTI is to “cultivate high-level, applied and professional interpreters and translators with all-round development of morality, intelligence and physical fitness, adapting to the needs of global economic integration and enhancing the international competitiveness of the country, and to the needs of national economic, cultural and social construction”. In accordance with this requirement, what MTI cultivates is a translation team with a high level of professional competence, and the students will eventually connect the translation knowledge and related theories that they have learned at school with social needs. What’s more, profession-oriented degree education “is different from the one of the general research-oriented degree which focuses on theoretical and academic research. Profession-oriented degree education aims to cultivate high-level and applied professionals with certain profession’s backgrounds” (Zhong, 2007, p.5). Therefore, the writing of MTI theses should also embody its distinctive characteristics, avoiding the convergence with the forms of such academic-oriented theses as those on translation studies.

In a survey of 72 academic-oriented “research papers”, the main problem is that, some students did not combine with a specific translation project or a specific problem in the process of discussion. They only discussed the translation skills, translation strategies or translation theories relatively separately, and the topics were too broad. The number of such theses was 16, accounting for 22.2%. “It is especially important for the research topic to put forward the research issue correctly, because any scientific research starts from an issue raised, and without the issue, there will be no development of scientific research” (Lu& Mu, 2010, p.98). While most students can analyze specific translation projects or specific problems in their theses, the number of such theses is 56, accounting for 77.8%. According to the different fields, these theses are divided into “translation research” and “interpreting research”, and among these topics the majority are “interpreting research”, with the number of 48, accounting for 85.7%.

“Master of Translation and Interpreting is a new idea and a new model for our country’s cultivation of specialized personnel in translation after referring to the successful experience of cultivating translators for many years in European and American countries and Hong Kong and Taiwan areas” (He & Mu, 2007, p.12). As a professional degree education, MTI education’s career direction is very clear, that is to cultivate applied, practical and professional interpreters and interpreters. What’s more, “the cultivation of translation ability is the life of MTI, and practice is the only way to cultivate the ability of translation” (Li, 2013, p.32), and this kind of teaching idea should also be fully reflected in the theses of MTI, with translation ability as the most important evaluation objective, fully embodying its features focusing on practice and application. But at the same time, the academic norms that the theses should have cannot be reduced or ignored, because “that we give special attention to the characteristics of practice does not mean giving up the cultivation of academic ability, nor does it mean that MTI graduation theses can completely disregard the general rules of the writing of academic theses and be finished in a slapdash way” (Wu, 2010, p.14). And more importantly, the teaching of translation theory can not be ignored in the course of the cultivation of MTI education, “paying attention to avoiding the teaching idea of simple pragmatism due to the lack of guidance of scientific theory, and avoiding a tendency covering up another tendency” (Dong, 2012, p.27).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Classification Statistics for the Research Papers Combining a Specific Translation Project or a Specific Problem</th>
<th>Number of Theses</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Translation research</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>14.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpreting research</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>85.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

III. Conclusions

Through the statistics and analysis of the above survey data, the author finds that there are some problems in the topic selection of the MTI theses of the students of Grade 2011 to Grade 2013 at Inner Mongolia University. In the first place, the selection of topics of the research papers still occupies a large proportion, and the proportion of literary texts in the translation practice reports is too large. In the second place, in the translation practice reports, nearly half of the selection of the topics just described the process of translation, and they neither gave detailed exposition, exploration, generalization and summary of the specific difficulties and their reasons encountered in the translation process and the corresponding solutions to them, nor explained and rethought the process of translation, and summarize the law of translation and the experience of translation with relevant translation theories and methodology. Finally, in the research papers, due to the lack of corresponding academic theoretical background and training, a considerable number of
students’ theses only gave abstract exposition from a macro perspective, and the selection of research topics are more broad and lack of pertinence.

Based on the above problems, the author suggests that, first of all, students should be encouraged to step out of the classroom to take an active part in social practice, understand the actual needs of the translation industry market, applying their language knowledge and translation theories learned in the classroom to translation practice, closely connecting with social needs, increasing practical experience and laying a solid foundation for becoming an excellent professional interpreter and translator after graduation. The students should also keep it in mind that never mistakenly believe that “foreign language learning is translation learning, and a professional specializing in a foreign language is the one in translation” (Zhong, 2008, p.5). Second, “the core task of translation teaching is to cultivate the students’ competence to translate” (Mu, 2006, p.46), thus, in the process of writing MTI theses, the students should be required to select highly professional translation projects which have not been translated before or the ones that they undertook, embodying the necessary ability possessed by high-level, applied and professional interpreters and translators cultivated by MTI education, and then write research reports on the translation practice, making the students’ comprehensive translation practice ability truly embody in their theses. But at the same time, the teaching of translation theory must not be ignored. “Translation theory is the substantive reflection of the law of translation” (Hao & Zhang, 2015, p.15). So the students should be required to have certain theoretical accomplishment. Accurate and appropriate translation comes from the strong support of translation theory, and the lack of relevant theoretical knowledge will greatly affect the improvement of translation practice ability. As Ulrych put forward that there are historical and theoretical factors in the specialized skills of all the professional members (Ulrych, 2005). Therefore, only through the organic combination of translation theory and translation practice can students’ comprehensive and skilled practical ability of translation be effectively improved, making them leisurely deal with translation tasks in different fields in their future jobs. Thus, the writing of MTI theses should also embody its distinctive characteristics, avoiding the convergence with the forms of such academic-oriented theses as those on translation studies, thoroughly removing the “academic” tendency and keeping its “professional” feature.

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Analysis of Xi’s Diplomatic Speeches from the Perspective of Appraisal Theory*

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Abstract—From a linguistic perspective, diplomatic speeches contain a wealth of appraisal resources to show the attitude tendency of the speech subject and the government who represents. From the perspective of the construction of national discourse, diplomatic speeches have a positive effect on the transmission of positive energy in a country and have an important value for the construction of national discourse. The research will analyze speeches that president Xi has made at the "Belt and Road" summit and at the BRICS summit. By artificial annotation, the author will use Antconc3.2.4 corpus retrieval software to sum up frequency of appraisal resources appearing in the speech discourse, then combing with quantitative and qualitative analysis method to explore how president Xi used the appraisal resources to transmit the Chinese voice and build the Chinese discourse in the diplomatic speeches from the achievements of international cooperation, the challenges and the contribution made by China.

Index Terms—appraisal theory, positive discourse analysis, diplomatic speech, discourse construction

I. INTRODUCTION

At present, western media occupies a dominant position in the spread of international public opinion. There is a great imbalance in the flow and shaping of international discourse. The perception by the international community of the image of our government mainly stems from the shaping of the discourse system in the west media and is often not consistent with objective facts. There are even individuals or institutions that throw “China threat theory.” Zhao Qizheng (2010) pointed out that in the event of a serious imbalance, it is necessary to build China’s own words, to build Chinese discourse for the world to correctly understand China and the Chinese government.

How to understand Chinese discourse? Different scholars give different explanations. First of all, discourse is not a linguistic sign of “talking to oneself.” Instead, it is a medium of communication between individuals who express themselves, communicate or reach consensus on the “other”. Second, Professor Yan (2014) pointed out that Chinese discourse is a system of ideas that accurately reflects the substance of a particular practice. Therefore, the construction of Chinese discourse is to construct a language that accurately reflects contemporary Chinese social practices, accurately summarizes and expresses it in our own language. Thirdly, Professor Chen Shuguang (2015) pointed out that China is like an acting giants and a language dwarf. The construction of Chinese discourse system needs to answer a number of basic questions such as "who is speaking," "how to speak," "what to say," "whom to talk to," "how to talk," and so on.

Li Yuanshou (2003) pointed out that political speeches refer to "a speech is delivered on state affairs and diplomatic relations," including election speeches, inaugural speeches and diplomatic speeches. It can be seen that diplomatic speeches belong to political speeches which not only represents the official status of the state, but also represents the individual. It is an important channel for international exchange and dissemination and an important manifestation of the practice of political discourse. And sometimes "who is talking" is more important than "what to say." Obviously, president Xi’s diplomatic speech has become an important platform to show the image of China, sends out the voice of China, and constructs Chinese discourse. Therefore, it is necessary for us to conduct an analysis of the president xi’s diplomatic address so that domestic and international audiences can better understand China's current practice and the international community can truly understand the substance of China's development path.

II. THEORY FRAMEWORK

A. Appraisal Theory

In the early 1990s, Martin has already started to study the appraisal system. From 1991 to 1994, he chaired a “Write It Right” research program to study the language proficiency of secondary and other settings in New South Wales, Australia. He later worked with Peter White, Rick Iedema, and Joan Rothery on language profiling, summarized as a “rating system.” In the late 1990s, he accelerated the pace of his research and increased his research efforts. He read a paper on “Evaluation System” at the International Systemic-Functional Linguistic Symposium held in Sydney University of Technology in 1996. In 2000, his paper, “Beyond Exchange: APPRAISAL System” in English published

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The appraisal theory deals with language resources discourse or speaker to express, negotiate specific subject relations or ideology. It consists of three main systems: "attitude", "gradation", "engagement". Attitude refers to the judgement and appreciation of human behavior or process or phenomenon speakers or subjects made after they are psychologically influenced. The central component of the attitude system is the affect system. The judgement system and the appreciation system are based on the affect system. Affect systems are mental reactions to behaviors, texts / processes and phenomena. The judgement system assesses the language user's behavior based on ethical standards and is implemented by two subsystems: social esteem and social sanction. Social esteem is about the evaluation of people's code of conduct, work ability and perseverance and it is a "moral category." Social sanction refers to reliability and legitimacy of human behavior and it is about "legal category." Appreciation system is the text/process and the phenomenon of evaluation, including the reaction, composition and value.

Engagement system is used to study sources of attitude, including monogloss and heterogloss. Heterogloss refers to state another opinion that may exist. Heterogloss can be divided into: contraction, expansion. Contraction involves attributing quoted propositions to a person with a surname, making it "warrantable," "reliable," and closing the door to other positions. Expansion alienates itself from the quoted proposition, making it "possible", in other words, it opens the door to another voice.

Graduation refers to the rise and fall of attitude, followed by the systematic into the language and focus. Grading evaluative words that indicate degree belong to the force; while evaluation words that indicate degree are hierarchical classification of non-hierarchical empirical categories are focus.

![Diagram of Appraisal Theory](image)

(J.R.Martin & P.R.R. White, 2008)

B. Positive Discourse Analysis

Critical discourse analysis and positive discourse analysis are two different approaches to analyze discourse, which are widely used in various discourse analysis. Critical discourse analysis is intended to reveal the implicit ideological implications of discourse through the dissection of a large number of specific and authentic corpus, with objective linguistic evidence and exhaustive analysis, especially those prejudices, discriminations and the distorted facts. On the contrary, positive discourse analysis aims to analyze discourse from the positive perspective and it is toward such a lofty goal of "peace linguistics" and to ultimately create a relaxed, reconciled and co-located human society.

Based on lexical meaning analysis, the appraisal theory is one of the theoretical resources that can be used in positive discourse analysis. This essay will analyze the shaping of China's image and the construction of Chinese discourse in the diplomatic speech of President Xi from the perspective of positive discourse.

III. Data Collection

Since taking office, President Xi has delivered a large number of speeches at international conferences, arousing the concern of domestic and foreign media scholars. However, there are only a few studies on his speech. Landing China Daily official website, through the keyword search. There are a total of eight diplomatic speeches during the 2017. The author will select two diplomatic speeches as the material of research. They are Xi’s keynote address on May 14, 2017 about “Strengthening International Cooperation and Building a Belt and Road for Win-win Cooperation” at the Beijing summit of "One Belt and One Road" initiative and about “Deepen the BRICS Partnership and Open up a Brighter Future” at the BRICS summit held in Xiamen, Fujian on September 4, 2017.
Based on the appraisal theory, this article analyzes Xi’s diplomatic speeches. By hand-finishing the text, there were 4716 words in two speeches. Based on the well-known appraisal theory: attitude, engagement and graduation are artificially marked, and then Antconc3.2.4 corpus retrieval software is used to count the appearance frequency of each evaluation resource in the speech discourse. Finally, through quantitative comparative analysis and qualitative analysis, combined with the specific context, from three aspects: international cooperation and development achievements, challenges and China’s contribution in international cooperation, the author will explore how president Xi use a wealth of positive appraisal resources to conduct consultations with the audience and reach consensus so as to build a positive Chinese discourse and to deliver positive energy of China.

IV. ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

Using the corpus retrieval software Antconc3.2.4 to search and count the appearance frequency of three subsystems in the diplomatic speeches of President Xi, we find that a large number of appraisal resources are used. Sun Jinbo (2012), Luo Juan (2017) and Guo Xiaoli (2015) respectively studied Premier Wen Jiabao’s speech, Trump’s election speech and Ban Ki-moon’s speech at Nanjing University. They found that these lectures all used rich appraisal resources, which shows that appraisal resources play an important role in the speeches. Table 1 shows the distribution of appraisal resources in president Xi’s diplomatic speech.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sub-system</th>
<th>attitude</th>
<th>engagement</th>
<th>graduation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>affect</td>
<td>judgement</td>
<td>appreciation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appearance frequency</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>104</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>proportion</td>
<td>18.2%</td>
<td>14.3%</td>
<td>67.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>proportion</td>
<td>45.8%</td>
<td>35.7%</td>
<td>18.5%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1 shows that attitude resources, engagement resources, and graduation resources respectively account for 45%, 35.7% and 18.5% of the appraisal resources in president Xi’s diplomatic speeches. Among them, attitudinal resources accounted for the largest proportion, close to 50%, followed by engagement resources. A total of attitude resources are 154. Affect, judgement and appreciation are respectively 29, 22 and 104, accounting for 18.2%, 14.3% and 67.5% of the total attitude resources. Appreciation resources accounted for the largest share of attitude resources. Contract engagement includes deny and proclaim. There are 70 contraction engagement, accounting for 63.3%. Expansion engagement includes entertain and attribute and there are 44, accounting for 36.7%. The proportion of contraction engagement resources is far greater than the expansion engagement resources. Force and focus belong to graduation resource, they are 53 and 9, accounting for 85.5% and 14.5%.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sub-system</th>
<th>positive/negative</th>
<th>affect</th>
<th>judgement</th>
<th>appreciation</th>
<th>Total number</th>
<th>proportion</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>positive</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>96</td>
<td></td>
<td>140</td>
<td>90.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>negative</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>14</td>
<td></td>
<td>14</td>
<td>9.1%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 shows that positive attitude resources and negative attitude resources are respectively 90.9% and 9.1%. Positive attitude resources are 10 times of negative attitude resources, indicating that president Xi is more inclined to use a positive attitude resources in diplomatic speeches. On the one hand, he expressed satisfaction with the achievements of international cooperation, the happiness of affect attitude; on the other hand, it shows the President Xi, on behalf of the Chinese government, takes a positive attitude to meet the new challenges and new crises facing the current international cooperation and hopefully joins hands with other countries to build a beautiful future.

A. Achievements of International Cooperation from the Perspective of Discourse Construction

Scholars who analyze discourse from the perspective of positive discourse under the framework of appraisal theory basically follow the order of attitudes, interventions and level differences. After familiarizing with the corpus text, this essay discovers that the contents of the diplomatic speech of General Secretary Xi can be summarized as three aspects, the achievements made in the cooperation between the state and BRICS countries under the strategy of "One Belt and One Road", the current challenges and the contribution made by China in international cooperation. Therefore, this article breaks the order of analysis of the original attitudes, interventions and steps, and from the above three aspects, explores how General Secretary Xi used the appraisal resources to shape China’s image and build Chinese discourse.

1. Over 2,000 years ago, our ancestors, trekking across vast steppes and deserts, opened the transcontinental passage connecting Asia, Europe and Africa...
2. Our ancestors, navigating rough seas, created sea routes linking the East with the West,...
…witness to this exciting period of history. Spanning thousands of miles and years, the ancient silk routes embody the spirit of peace and cooperation...

4 These pioneers won their place in history not as conquerors with warships, guns or swords. Rather, they are remembered as friendly emissaries leading camel caravans and sailing treasure-loaded ships.

5 The ancient silk routes were not for trade only; they boosted flow of knowledge as well.

6 From the historical perspective, humankind has reached an age of great progress, great transformation and profound changes.

7 Never have we seen such close interdependence among countries as today, such fervent desire of people for a better life, and never have we had so many means to prevail over difficulties.

8 …the Belt and Road Initiative is not meant to reinvent the wheel. Rather, it aims to complement the development strategies of countries involved by leveraging their comparative strengths....

9 A large number of connectivity projects are also in the pipeline. Today, a multi-dimensional infrastructure network is taking shape.....

Attitude system includes affect expression, judgement of character and value appreciation and all three have positive and negative points. Positive attitude resources indicate the active attitude of the speaker. In diplomatic speeches, when General Secretary Xi elaborated on the achievements made in international cooperation, he used a wealth of positive attitude resources such as exciting, ancient, close, great, profound, fervent, better, multi-dimensional, open, created, trekking, friendly. The "One Belt and One Road" strategy proposes to carry forward the common development and share the fruits of development with the BRIC cooperation mechanism and create a community of development and destiny that is connected with happiness and common prosperity. General Secretary Xi used positive appreciation resources such as close, great, profound, multi-dimensional, open, created to prove that the remarkable achievements of international cooperation have not only made the relations between countries closer but also have occurred great changes in the field of cooperation. It is easier to get an agreement with the audience. Exciting, ancient express President Xi's satisfaction and joy towards the cooperation achievement. Rough, vast are negative appreciation resources, which shows Chinese people's determination to overcome difficulties and indomitable spirit. In addition, the use of language resources in lectures, such as over, thousands of, aims to show that the Silk Road has a long history and profound historical roots. A large number of, flow of, many, thousands of illustrate silk road has achieved great grades. Besides, the Silk Road has already surpassed the trade boundary and has achieved great changes in other aspects such as knowledge exchange, achieving the goal of mutual benefits and achieving win-win results. Finally, the use of contract resources in the speech of General Secretary Xi not, only, rather, never indicates that Chinese government would like to work together with other countries to contribute the development and create harmonious big family and share the fruits of development.

The "Belt and Road Initiative" summit and the BRICS summit are diplomatic conferences led by China. President Xi used a wealth of positive attitude resources and contract resources and differential resources aiming at showing China's firm stance and spreading China's unswerving commitment, that is, insisting the path of peaceful development and common development instead of threatening to other countries. These appraisal resources shape the image of a responsible country and build a vibrant Chinese discourse.

B. Analysis of Challenging from the Perspective of Discourse Construction

1 …we find ourselves in a world fraught with challenges. Global growth requires new drivers, development needs to be more inclusive and balanced, and the gap between the rich and the poor needs to be narrowed.

2 Hotspots in some regions are causing instability and terrorism is rampant. Deficit in peace, development and governance poses a daunting challenge to mankind.

3 Yet today, these places are often associated with conflict, turbulence, crisis and challenge.

4 We should work to resolve hotspot issues through political means... We should intensify counter-terrorism efforts... and strive to eradicate poverty, backwardness and social injustice... we should build the Belt and Road into a road of prosperity.

5 As the world undergoes profound and complex changes, BRICS cooperation has become more important.

6 We must redouble our efforts to comprehensively deepen BRICS partnership and we need to make the international order more just and equitable.

7 Without our participation, many pressing global challenges cannot be effectively resolved.

Compared with the discussion in Section 4.1, when the general secretary talked about the current challenges, he applied negative attitude resources such as new, challenges, instability, rampant, daunting, profound, complex and deficit. These negative appreciation resources are intended to show that while international cooperation has achieved results, but there are still unstable hot spots, rampant terrorists and international environment are still complex. On the other hand, we are facing the daunting new challenge under the general trend of economic globalization. As the second largest economy in the world, China must work together with other countries to meet challenges. Therefore, graduation resources redouble, more, many in the speech emphasize that we must make double efforts to deal with challenges and threat. China, as an economic power, will shoulder the important task assigned by the international community. The engagement of appraisal sources includes expansion and contraction. The former refers to the intervention in the discourse more or less triggered other voices or positions of dialogue to invite listeners and speakers to discuss together.
Must, should belong to expansion resources, aiming to appealing the audience standing the same line and working together to accomplish the history mission and move towards a bright future. In contrast, contract resources implies the challenge of intervention in discourse, limiting other voices and position. Without and cannot show the affirmative attitude, excluding the intervention of other discourses, indicating that Xi firmly believes that cooperation is the only option in the face of challenges. Only by cooperation can we achieve win-win results.

The use of these appraisal resources shows that Chinese government is brave enough to take responsibility for arduous task and china will cooperate other countries to establish beautiful home, construction positive Chinese discourse.

C. Analysis of Contribution of China from the Perspective of Discourse Construction

① China has signed cooperation agreements with over 40 countries…carried out framework cooperation… with more than 30 countries.
② China has reached a new starting point in its development endeavors…we will adapt to and steer the new normal of economic development and…We will actively promote supply-side structural reform to achieve sustainable development, inject strong impetus into the Belt and Road Initiative and create new opportunities for global development.
③ We are ready to share practices of development with other countries, but we have no intention to interfere in other countries' internal affairs,…
④ We have no intention to form a small group detrimental to stability, what we hope to create is a big family of harmonious co-existence.
⑤ China will provide assistance worth RMB 60 billion to developing countries and international organizations… to launch more projects to improve people's well-being.
⑥ China will contribute four million US dollars… to support the business operation and long-term development of the bank. China will work with all parties to follow through on the outcomes…

Contract divided into deny and proclaim. Proclaim states that the voices in the discourse present the proposition as irrefutable, excluding other voices. In his diplomatic speech, president Xi expresses his attitude and position with a wealth of proclaim resources in explaining China's contribution. As we can see clearly in Table 3, "we" appeared 80 times, While "China" appears 43 times. It fully demonstrated that China not only has sufficient capacity but also has a firm belief to assume the responsibility of common development. At he same time, a wealth of positive attitude resources, such as new, strong, share, hope to, big, harmonious, sustainable, and contract resources no indicate that president Xi's stance, on behalf of the Chinese government in diplomatic speeches, the development of China is meant to provide powerful impetus for other countries and share the fruits of development, build a harmonious family of development and benefit more countries and people. Graduation resources never, more than, more strengthen the voice of the speaker to prove China's development achievement. China has confidence to unite other countries to build community and make the due contribution for the world.

| TABLE 3 |
| APPEARANCE OF CHINA AND WE |
| preposition | We | China |
| appearance | 80 | 43 |
| proportion | 65.1% | 34.9% |

V. CONCLUSION

Chen Shuguang (2015) pointed out that whether or not Chinese discourse making the best use of "Chinese stories" is a basic measure of constructing Chinese discourse with vitality. Whether Chinese discourse can dominate the topic of "involving China" is an important measure of constructing Chinese discourse with vitality. At the summit of the "Belt and Road Initiative" and at the BRICS Summit, president Xi used a wealth of positive attitude resources to express his pride and joy regarding the fruits of international cooperation. At the same time, China as the second largest developing countries will assume the historical mission of common development and share with the fruits of development. Secondly, the use of abundant resources for contract resources aims at excluding the involvement of other voices, demonstrating China's firm stance, that is, its development is not dominated other countries rather than join hands with more countries to create a modern international chorus. He standing for Chinese government declares to the world that China must unswervingly follow the peaceful development path. The use of force graduation resources will give prominence to the remarkable achievements made by international cooperation, highlighting China's contribution in international cooperation. President Xi’s diplomatic speech shaped China as a responsible image and built a positive Chinese discourse.

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An Exploration of the Concept and Practice of Co-teaching in Public Secondary School EFL Classes in Benin

Sekoubaou, Abel, Gbènakpon


Abstract—Across Asia, in countries such as Japan, Korea, Taiwan, China, and Hong Kong, the practice of the Co-teaching model within English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classrooms has proved beneficial for both educators and learners. In those countries, having both native and non-native EFL teachers to develop and carry out lesson plans offers a great opportunity to build local teachers’ capacities and promote cultural exchange between teachers and within the classroom. For learners, the co-teaching model gives the possibility to hear pronunciation, as well as tones and rhythm, of a native speaker in English. While researchers have noted the benefits of this strategic approach in both teaching and learning English as a foreign language, in those aforementioned Asian countries, they have failed to specify if the practice can be generalized to other EFL countries around the world. To my knowledge, no research has been conducted on co-teaching in Benin. To fill this gap, this study, through qualitative and quantitative methods, aims to shed light on the prospects and challenges of co-teaching in Beninese secondary schools. As the co-teaching practice in Benin is only done by US Peace Corps TEFL Volunteers, the target population has consisted of thirty of them and forty of their counterparts. Valuable data has been collected through class observations, interviews and questionnaires over a six-month period. The findings have shown that even though there are challenges, the approach of co-teaching used in Benin is beneficial to both the team teachers and their learners. Finally, the study suggests ways to maximize the benefits of co-teaching and a few strategies to cope with challenges.

Index Terms—Co-teaching, US Peace Corps, TEFL Volunteers, Beninese secondary schools

I. INTRODUCTION

Teaching is the process of causing others to acquire knowledge or skill (Webster’s New Collegiate dictionary 1961); this definition was updated by Smith (2016) who stated that teaching is “the process of attending to people’s needs, experiences and feelings, and making specific interventions to help them learn particular things.” Relating that definition to language teaching means bringing out the talent of language capacity in individuals, and taking into account their needs and experiences. People learn foreign languages based on their own needs as well as the opportunities that the various languages offer. The ultimate goal of learning a language is to use it for communication (Sekoubaou, 2017). English imposes itself as the medium for 80 per cent of the information stored in the world’s computers; it is the official voice of the air, of the sea, and of Christianity (Montgomery, Alamou, Dago, Gueye & Koffi 1995). As English is invaluable to millions of people around the world, it is taught and learned either as the mother tongue or as a foreign language. There is a need for professionals to teach English and the demand is constantly increasing. To succeed in such a complex profession requires solid trainings. English teachers need to be trained on how to effectively carry out their job and be dedicated and willing to update their knowledge and skills frequently as the language, and instruction of it, is dynamic – ever changing with - new concepts, new vocabulary, and new methodology. There are many ways through which people learn how to teach; however, in most of the teacher education programmes, classroom teaching practice stands as one of the pedagogical and didactic approaches used.

In the profession of teaching EFL, teachers may be a Native English-Speaking Teacher (NEST) or a Non–Native English-Speaking Teacher (NNEST). Whatever the case, English teachers adopt various teaching approaches; they may teach alone, which is the traditional language teaching approach, while others may co-teach. The latter approach is the new growing trend in many EFL countries. Having local teachers and native English-speaking teachers co-plan and co-teach in EFL classes presents not only advantages, but also challenges. A great many researchers emphasized the positive effects of co-teaching on EFL learners and co-teachers as well (Keefe, Moore, Duff, 2004; Sturman, 1992; Sharma, 2017; Cook & Friend 1995).

The US Peace Corps TEFL programme in Benin has utilized the co-planning and co-teaching model since 2011. Based on qualitative and quantitative methods, this paper explores how co-teaching is conducted in EFL classes in Benin, discusses its benefits and challenges, and makes suggestions on how to improve it.

A. Background History of Co-teaching in Benin

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The Peace Corps has conducted an uninterrupted programme in Benin, from 1968 to the present, and its educational programme has had sustainable impacts on the country. The education programme was focused on primary education and sanitary education from 1974 to 1983. Then in the 1980s, there was a great need for science teachers in the secondary schools and the Peace Corps education programme shifted attention in order to remedy the shortfalls in a number of subjects at both secondary and university levels. By 1979, education volunteers could be found intervening in higher education, teaching statistics, planning, management, and animal and vegetable agronomy. This programmatic focus remained until 1992. Based on Beninese government priorities, the education programme shifted its focus in 1999. Since that time, only TEFL volunteers have served in the education programme. Finally, in 2016, Benin welcomed its first group of TEFL Certificate volunteers. Presently, the TEFL Certificate Programme is a 30-month continuum of learning that provides over 120 hours of training and ongoing professional development with two years’ supervised teaching experience to volunteers at selected posts. Upon a successful completion of the training and related assignments, the TEFL volunteers earn a certificate validated by the Centre for Applied Linguistics in Washington DC.

There is a problem of regional imbalance in education occurring in Benin. Although the same curriculum is used throughout the country, some regions are more privileged than others as far as the quality of teachers, education and socio-cultural context are concerned (Sekouboua, 2017). In response, Peace Corps Benin tries to remedy these disparities by having TEFL volunteers serve in government schools in rural areas that are more in need of TEFL teachers and that require their service. Each TEFL volunteer has several weekly minimum requirements: that s/he teach three classes on his/her own, that’s/he run an afterschool English club for two hours, that s/he contribute to the Community of Practice (CoP) by participating in the weekly department meeting and that s/he co-plan and co-teach for four hours per week with his/her counterparts. The school requesting a volunteer has to identify a motivated counterpart willing to collaborate with the volunteer but the volunteer also has to select a second English teacher counterpart. The underlying reason for co-teaching is to favour a sustainable skill transfer on both sides. The approach started in Benin in 2011 and has continued through to the present.

B. The Purpose of the Study

The main purpose of this study is to explore the concept and practice of co-teaching in public secondary schools in Benin. The researcher would also like to make the Beninese educational authorities aware of the necessity of changing the traditional teaching practices to co-teaching and making it an integral part of the current pedagogical practices in secondary schools. By doing so, Beninese EFL teachers who have not attended a teacher training college can develop and improve their basic teaching skills, and learn how to collaborate with peers in order to meet their learners’ needs. Friend & Cook (2006) support this idea by considering co-teaching as “a unique service delivery option that is based on collaboration”. They added that “co-teaching is designed to meet educational needs of learners with diverse learning options.” As this is an innovation of the Peace Corps TEFL Programme, most schools that do not request volunteers are unaware of this teaching strategy. This study can therefore be an important tool to spread this teaching approach. For that reason, the researcher intends to work closely with EFL teachers, teacher trainers, the Peace Corps TEFL programme staff and school authorities to evaluate the effects of co-teaching on team teachers and their learners. The researcher’s intention is also to contribute positively, through this study, to the amelioration of the EFL teachers’ professional development and the teaching and learning of English as a foreign language in Benin (Sekouboua, 2017).

C. Research Questions

a) What type of co-teaching model is used in Beninese secondary schools?

b) What are the benefits and challenges of the style of co-teaching used in Beninese secondary schools?

c) How can co-planning and co-teaching in Beninese secondary schools be improved?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Review of Research on Co-teaching

Many researchers have addressed the concept of co-teaching in the EFL context from various angles. Their focus points have been the following: co-teaching terminology, the styles/forms of co-teaching, and specificities related to the countries of research.

1. Defining Co-Teaching

A review of literature in the field of co-teaching indicated a myriad of definitions. Jang (2006) and Carpenter et al., (2007) used the terms “collaborative teaching,” “team teaching,” “co-enrolment,” and “cooperative teaching” interchangeably. Overall, some scholars defined it as a collaboration among primary school teachers (Golner & Powell, 1992). They elaborated further on the concept to demonstrate that collaboration is a long process that takes time to be developed and maintained. To come to a good collaboration, trust and mutual understanding are required. For Head & Taylor (1997) and McLaughlin, (1997) when the collaboration is successful, it enables team teachers to learn from each other and increases opportunities for their professional development. Davis (1995) offered a more complete definition by including planning and lesson implementation; for him co-teaching is “all arrangements that include two or more faculty in some level of collaboration in the planning and delivery of a course”. Quinn & Kanter (1984 as cited in CELT, 1998) and Goetz, (2000) added the concept of evaluation to the definition. For them, co-teaching involves a group of
instructors collaborating together to “plan, conduct, and evaluate the learning activities of the same group of learners.” For Crow et al. (2005) as cited by Brody (1994), we cannot talk of co-teaching without mentioning the learning community it helps to create. They advocated for the idea of a more inclusive concept of co-teaching. For them, “co-teaching involves two or more teachers planning, teaching and assessing the same learners in the interest of creating a learning community and maintaining a commitment to collaboration with learners and each other.” Cook & Friend (2016) put emphasis on the co-teachers’ qualifications, stating that they should be certified professionals, work together, share responsibilities and be equally accountable for their performance. Obviously there is one agreed upon definition of co-teaching; each expert simply improves on the definition by including new ideas. Two of the major elements that are repeatedly echoed in the definitions are “working together” and “collaboration.” Collaboration is vital for effective co-teaching; it flourishes when everyone understands that even though each of us is unique, we can collaborate, unite our strengths to generate great ideas. Scholars from various disciplines have cited one another’s research and assessed the styles of co-teaching after experiencing them or conducting studies on them (Tsai, 2007; Jan, 2006; Sharma, 2017; Carley III, 2013; Liu, 2008; Abernethy, 2017). They even explored the transferability of co-teaching models and strategies from one discipline to another. This interdisciplinary collaboration is emphasized by Walther-Thomas (1997).

2. Describing the forms of co-teaching

This section sheds light on the first research question. Theorists identified several models of co-teaching (Goetz, 2000; Martinsen, 2004; Bacharach et al, 2008; Honigfeld & Dove, 2008; Jang, 2006; Day & Hurrell, 2012; Abernethy, 2017). Six co-teaching styles are frequently used in EFL/ESL context:

(1) One teaching, one observing: this is a technique in which one teacher conducts the instructions while the other observes. Before the observation, co-teachers agree on the data to collect during the observation and the necessity of giving specific critiques; co-teachers agree on the data gathering system in order to avoid confusion and frustration during the data analysis that should take place after the observation. This approach is suitable for a student teacher since it enables him/her to learn while observing.

(2) One teaching, one assisting: this approach is also known as one teaching, one drifting; with it, one teacher takes the lead for the primary responsibility for teaching while the assisting teacher provides help as s/he circulates in the classroom. His/her primary duty is to help learners who struggle with understanding instructions or directions. In this situation, the supporting teacher may retell parts of the lesson, or rephrase directions. Preferably, the leading teacher and the supporting teacher alternate roles, which is why it is important to co-plan so that one teacher doesn’t find him/herself in a subordinate role.

(3) Station teaching: the room is arranged in stations; each teacher delivers a portion of the content information to small group of learners who work on assignments and rotate through the stations; there may be a third station that gives opportunity to learners to work independently.

(4) Parallel teaching: this is an approach for which two teachers co-plan the lesson. Each of them has a lesson plan with the same content information that they deliver simultaneously to two different heterogeneous equal groups of learners. Learners have the advantage of benefiting from more supervision time, and more opportunities for interaction. Even though co-teachers may have different teaching styles, they can still work together and monitor learners’ progress.

(5) Alternative teaching: this is characterized as “a classroom of one larger group and one smaller one.” The small group is made up of learners who may require specialized attention. The main instruction is provided by one teacher to the whole group while the other teacher works with the small group on predetermined area. Due to this arrangement, however, the class is sometimes chatty.

(6) Team teaching: this is the most complex and challenging co-teaching approach since it requires trust and honest collaboration. It requires team teachers to co-plan the lesson and each team teacher has a lesson plan with the same content information. This way, the roles and responsibilities are equally shared in the classroom (Cook & Friend, 1995). Both teachers are actively involved in the lesson delivery in such a way that no one really takes the lead. This approach is referred to as “one brain in two bodies” on the State Education Resource Centre website (2004).

3. Co-teaching model used in Beninese secondary schools

As previously stated, the Peace Corps education programme is a pioneer in co-teaching in the Beninese secondary school EFL classes. Two main styles are currently being used and Peace Corps TEFL volunteers are introduced to them during a practicum known as “model school.” Model school is part of Pre-Service Training (PST), a three-week mandatory training that mocks the environment of a real-life secondary school in Benin. The first two weeks are dedicated to the “one teaching, one observing” style with the purpose of preparing volunteers to learn from one another and enhance their general teaching skills. The third week of practicum is devoted to “team-teaching” in unison with host country national teachers. It is worth mentioning that these teachers have to attend together with the volunteer a session on “co-planning and co-teaching.” This style is used by TEFL volunteer throughout their service in order to build professional capacities in their communities.

4. Researches on Co-teaching in EFL context

A great number of researches were conducted to contribute to the literature on team-teaching in EFL context. Asia has the highest research record in this field. In qualitative case studies, targeting Taiwanese elementary schools EFL teachers, Tsai (2007) proved that having NESTs and NNESTs co-plan and co-teach greatly enhanced team teachers’ professional growth. The researcher also pointed out some factors that stood as barriers to team teachers’ good
collaboration and prevented them from learning from each other. This research has similar results regarding Taiwanese EFL teachers’ capacity building as compared to Benin. However, the downsides of team-teaching in Taiwan are quite different from the Beninese situation. In Japanese junior high schools, both public and private, Macedo (2002) investigated on team teaching, focussing on reverse style as opposed to traditional one. In reverse team teaching NEST carries out the primary responsibilities and the NNEST acts as an assistant. The study revealed that the reverse team teaching was more predominant in Japan and the NESTs or Assistant Language Teachers (ALTs) didn’t like it because it put more workload on them. As compared to the Beninese EFL context, the two situations are completely different. Peace Corps TEFL volunteers are not viewed as assistant language teachers but as Benin EFL teachers’ colleagues. In the same vein of benefits of co-teaching, Honigsfeld & Dove (2008) pointed out that co-teaching could help EFL learners meet national, state and local standards.

Team teaching also helps improve learners’ language proficiency level; Baniadelrahman (2013) confirmed that idea through a research conducted among Saudi Arabian first year university students co-taught by a combination between NEST and NNEST. Liu (2008) found out that co-teaching involving NEST and NNEST in Chinese primary schools was beneficial to co-teachers because both of them improved on their teaching quality. The researcher suggested four co-teaching models to be used sequentially in order to help NEST build up their co-teaching skills progressively. Even though this context is also an EFL one, the main difference with Benin lies in the fact that the co-teaching is implemented in the primary school and more than two models are used. Not all scholars viewed co-teaching as beneficial. Carley III (2013) found out through experiences and results from his research in Japan that team teaching didn’t work. For him, students didn’t benefit from team teaching due to conflicting relationships between team teachers. The good news is that Wang (2010) suggests some tips on how to effectively collaborate to make team teaching successful in EFL classroom.

III. METHOD

A. Participants and Settings

Thirty team teachers and administrative members from middle and high schools (28 middle schools and 2 high schools) in seven state departments1 (French départements) of secondary education out of the twelve existing departments (Atacora, Donga, Borgou, Zou, Collines, Mono, and the Plateau), participated in the study. Teams consisted of one TEFL volunteer with one or two EFL local teachers who play the role of the volunteer’s counterparts and one administrative member, either the headmaster or the assistant headmaster who designs all the teachers’ timetables. School teams were selected taking into account three criteria. First, the team teachers must be practising team teaching for two to four hours per week, have at least three months experience at the beginning of the study and be willing to participate. Second, all the potential teams were observed while co-teaching to first verify whether weekly co-teaching was effectively practised and secondly to determine the style of co-teaching in use. Third, following observation, the teams were asked to be interviewed and to fill out a questionnaire. A total of one hundred participants (30 TEFL volunteers, 40 counterparts and 30 administrative members) participated in the study. Among TEFL volunteers, there were 7 males (23.33%) and 23 females (76.66%) and all of them were going through the TEFL Certificate Programme. Among the counterparts, there were 2 females (5%) and 38 males (95%); all of whom had academic degrees in the English language. For 8 teachers (20%), this degree was coupled with a professional degree. 32 (80%) counterparts were part-time teachers while the remaining 8 (20%) were full-time teachers. All the administrative members were male (100%). The age range for the PC TEFL volunteers and their counterparts was between 21 and 30 years old. Most of the administrative members were between 30 and 55 years old. During the 6-month period there were no staffing changes and no participants changed schools.

B. Data Source

As there was no previous research on co-teaching in Benin, this research serves as a starting point that has the potential to inspire other researchers for their studies. This was why the researcher went to the field to collect data based on the participants’ behaviour in their settings. By doing so, the researcher adopted the naturalistic inquiry methodology (Lincoln & Guba, 1985) combined with a descriptive approach. The data was collected through three main sources: questionnaires, classroom observations, and interviews added to informal contact. Both qualitative and quantitative techniques were used for the study.

1. Questionnaire

A 10-item questionnaire in English was designed to collect data from EFL teachers involved in co-teaching; 70 respondents (93.33%) out of 75 subjects who received the questionnaire returned it. The respondents co-taught in 30 different secondary schools, so the researcher interviewed one administrative member from each school. The collected data were compiled and analysed in terms of percentage and implication.

2. Classroom Observations

All the co-taught classrooms were observed in November 2016, as November 2017, the third month of the school year. School generally begins the last week in September or the first week in October in Benin. Each observation lasted

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1 Département: it is an administrative or political subdivision in Benin Republic; there are 12 departments.
Trained Peace Corps staff collected the classroom observation data and interviewed the team teachers afterward. For classroom observations, the observers used two observation sheets. The first is a two-column document to record what the teacher and learners were doing, and on the second sheet, observers checked off the criteria depending on how often the co-teaching skills occurred during the lesson implementation. The collected data helped to determine the type of co-teaching used, as well as the personality and the level of collaboration of the team teachers.

3. Interviews and informal contacts

Individual interviews were conducted with the participants after the classroom observation. The interview session lasted 15 to 20 minutes. A 7-item questionnaire was designed to collect data on non-observable aspects regarding the EFL teachers and co-teaching approach. For example, teachers self-rated their general teaching proficiency skills, stated whether they enjoyed co-planning and co-teaching with a local or native English speaking teachers, and how they transferred their takeaways when they solo taught in their classroom, etc. Some questions were open-ended and additional inquiries were used to clarify answers provided by participants. The same procedure was used while conducting interviews with the school headmaster and their assistants. They were asked how they facilitated the co-teaching while designing teachers’ timetables and the kind of support they provided to the team teachers as supervisors. Relevant documents such as the “Cahier de textes” and the gradebooks were requested to confirm the information provided by school administrative members. The interviewer carefully audiotaped all the information collected from participants with their permission. Audiotaping allows to review the information in details and to grasp the message that might be long and complex.

Informal contacts consisted of telephone conversation, Peace Corps training events, and keeping in touch with the volunteers and their counterparts after the site visits. Actually, no formal data was collected through these different interactions. However, these informal contacts enabled the researcher to have a follow-up on the previously collected information and to be helpful to participants by suggesting strategies to cope with issues that might arise between the team teachers and the school administration. In the Beninese secondary schools, teachers’ timetables can change at any time when a teacher is transferred from the school or a specific recommendation is sent from the hierarchy as the system functions on a top-down modality.

IV. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

Data Collected with Questionnaire from TEFL Teachers and Their Analysis

The provided responses are grouped for analysis. Thus the responses for question N1 concerning the affiliated state department of secondary education is shown on figure 1 and 2 while questions N2,3,4, 5, 6, 7 are in table 1 & 2 and the responses for questions 8, 9, 10 are dealt with separately.

\[\text{Figure 1 showing the responses for the affiliated state department of secondary education for Peace Corps (PC) TEFL Teachers}\]

\[\text{Note. N= 30}\]

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2 Cahier de textes: a note book in which all the different school subjects teachers mention what they have taught to the learners at a given date and time.
The northern state departments are Atacora, Donga, Borgou; the middle departments are Zou –Collines while Mono and Plateau are in the south. As indicated in figure 1 and 2, the state department of Atacora has the greatest number of PC TEFL volunteers and consequently the highest number of counterparts. This region of the country is increasingly in need of TEFL teachers and even though PC tries to fill in the gap, this does not cover all the existing needs. The number gradually decreases as it goes south to end up with 5% in the state departments of Mono and Plateau. Even though Donga is a northern department, it doesn’t have many TEFL volunteers because schools do not request their service. This might be due to the fact that they do not know how to apply for a volunteer’s service or they can’t meet the housing requirement.

It is worth mentioning that Benin has had only one principal national university (National University of Benin -UNB changed to University of Abomey- Calavi- UAC) from 1970 to 2001 when a second one was created (University of Parakou- UP). The UAC is located in the Atlantic state department in the south and many learners from the northern regions can’t afford the lodging and tuition in Cotonou. This is one of the reasons why there are few learners from the north who attended university to earn teaching degrees. The Government tries to remedy this regional unbalance in education by sending qualified teachers from the south to teach in the northern public secondary schools with incentives to encourage them to serve there. Unfortunately after a few years of service, those teachers often return to the south because it offers many more opportunities. Some of the reasons why civil servants want to serve in the southern regions include: teachers can complete a degree at university while working, they can also teach in private schools, they can do one –on –one home tutoring to learners and earn extra money, and they can connect with close friends and families. As previously stated, Peace Corps Benin works closely with the Ministry of Education to remedy the shortfalls in TEFL teachers. Peace Corps can’t satisfy to all the demands in teachers due to the small number of TEFL volunteers who are sent to Benin each year.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questionnaire statements</th>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>Number of respondents and %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>male</td>
<td>7 (23.33%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>23 (76.66%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>21-26</td>
<td>29 (96.66%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>More than 26</td>
<td>1 (3.33%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qualification</td>
<td>Bachelor’s degree</td>
<td>30 (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFL teaching experience</td>
<td>TAPIF1</td>
<td>1 (3.33%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Online EFL/ESL Certificate</td>
<td>26.66%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Master’s degree</td>
<td>1 (3.33%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Which grade level do you co-teach?</td>
<td>First cycle</td>
<td>28 (93.33%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Second cycle</td>
<td>2 (6.66%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How long have you co-taught for?</td>
<td>3 months</td>
<td>20 (66.66%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6 months</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>a year</td>
<td>10 (33.33%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>more than a year</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Whom do you co-teach with?</td>
<td>a male teacher</td>
<td>28 (93.33%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>a female teacher</td>
<td>1 (3.33%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>both</td>
<td>1 (3.33%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. N= 30

1 TAPIF: teaching Assistant Programme in France
it is also helpful for modelling positive and professional male/female relationships and behaviour. 

Teachers is helpful to readily majority of the local teachers 82.5% co-plan and co-teach with a female PC TEFL volunteers. Having male and female teaching experience with at least two TEFL volunteers and could assess the approach based on their experience. The had more than a year co-teaching experience. These three local teachers had the opportunity to learn and share co-planning and co-teaching. Twelve of the local teachers (30%) had a year of co-teaching experience while 3 (7.5%) had more than a year co-teaching experience. This is why two (6.66%) of them co-teach in the second cycle.

3. Impact of co-teaching on co-teacher, learners and on the curriculum

Table 2 show that there are more female teachers (76.66%) among the Peace Corps EFL teachers as compared to the 5% of Beninese ones. This poses the problem of gender in Beninese educational system. Girls’ education has not been a priority for centuries in Benin, and girls are often denied access to education. Parents do not know the importance of educating their female children. Whenever they have the opportunity to send their children to school, they prefer sending boys. To remedy that disparity in Benin, the 1990 constitution states that “primary education shall be compulsory” and “the State shall progressively ensure that public education is free of charge” (Constitution of Benin Republic, December 1990). This constitutional decision was not applied until 1993 when girls in rural areas were exempted from tuition fees (cabinet meeting report, 1993). Currently there are no fees required in the primary school for both boys and girls. The exemption measure is extended to the middle school for girls. Nothing is concretely done to encourage women in higher education; that is one of the reasons why there are few female teachers in the secondary schools. Data presented in table 1 &2 also indicated differences in the age range of teachers who co-teach. Peace Corps TEFL volunteers are younger than their counterparts; the majority (96.66) are between 21 and 26 while Beninese teachers’ majority (92.5) are between 23 and 30. However, this age difference has less effect on the collaboration depending on the counterpart’s personality.

As far as the team teachers’ qualifications are concerned, both the Beninese teachers and the Peace Corps volunteers hold university degrees. All the TEFL volunteers were going through the TEFL Certificate Programme and already had six months of training (3 months for Pre-Departure and 3 months for Pre-Service training) before starting their teaching job. They have the necessary general teaching skills, they are qualified for the job and their teaching capacity will be strengthened through supervised assignments and classroom observations throughout their two years of service. The majority of Beninese teachers 32 (80%) didn’t go through a teacher training college before starting their job. However, the majority (95%) have more than 2 years of classroom teaching experiences which far exceeds that of the Peace Corps TEFL volunteers, (3.33% for TAPIF and 6.66% for online ESL/EFL certificate). Moreover, the local teachers have the advantage of knowing the school system better, and knowing how the learners learn, but they are left to learn on the job on their own without formalised training. This is because there are no on-going training programmes developed for teachers. The learning- by- doing process is not often effective when there is no supervision. To remedy this lack of local teacher professional development, Peace Corps requires the counterparts to attend in-service trainings provided to PC TEFL volunteers so that the local teachers can be on the same page as their volunteers. Regarding the grade level where the co-teaching takes place, the majority of the team teachers co-teach in the first cycle grades. This is partly due to the fact that the Peace Corps TEFL volunteers teach from the sixth to the eighth grade. However, they can co-teach in any grade; this is why two (6.66%) of them co-teach in the second cycle.

At the beginning of the survey, all the EFL teachers involved had at least three months of co-teaching experience which is one of the criteria to participate in the study. This enabled the respondents to provide valid information about co-planning and co-teaching. Twelve of the local teachers (30%) had a year of co-teaching experience while 3 (7.5%) had more than a year co-teaching experience. These three local teachers had the opportunity to learn and share co-teaching experience with at least two TEFL volunteers and could assess the approach based on their experience. The majority of the local teachers 82.5% co-plan and co-teach with a female PC TEFL volunteers. Having male and female teachers is helpful to readily demonstrate some vocabulary words such as man and woman and possessive his/her, etc… it is also helpful for modelling positive and professional male/female relationships and behaviour.

1. Impact of co-teaching on co-teacher, learners and on the curriculum

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It emerges from the data collected that co-teaching in Beninese EFL classrooms has a positive impact on team teachers, learners, and the curriculum. As the co-planning and co-teaching involves native English speaking teachers (NEST, PC TEFL volunteers) and non-native English speaking teachers (NNEST, Beninese EFL teachers), the combined strengths of both minimise the weaknesses and make the classroom instructions strong. NNEST know the educational culture well as they have been educated in it. They know how hard it is to learn English as a foreign language and when learners struggle with the content, they can be resourceful in the classroom. Most often NNEST know grammar rules better than NEST, so while co-planning NESTs benefit by raising their awareness about them. Gender equity in the classroom is an issue in Benin and the PC TEFL volunteers endeavour to make the local teachers become aware of it while co-teaching. The co-teaching helps Beninese EFL teachers to overcome their anxiety about English proficiency which prevents them from doing communicative activities involving more interactions among learners and turning their teaching into teacher-centred one. Generally, the team teachers learn from each other and help each other. It is also a great opportunity for novice teachers to develop professionally and enhance team spirit. It clearly shows that the approach is on win–win modality in Benin since the team teachers have a common goal which is to make their teaching effective and to grow professionally.

NESTs have a great value that they bring to the classroom which is the “communicative authenticity”. In the Beninese context, learners do not have the opportunity to practise the language outside the four walls of their classrooms. This situation is against the idea of De Souza Miranda (2017) who thinks that “learners need opportunities to be creative and express themselves while learning a new language.” If Beninese learners need to use English, it will probably be with someone from an English speaking country. So having NESTs teaching them is viewed as “accessible models”, especially for pronunciation. Moreover, NESTs and NNESTs teaching together encourages Beninese learners to make efforts because when they hear NNEST speaking fluently and easily, they definitely think they can also do it. Learners are also exposed to a variety of teaching styles, different accents, and increase opportunity for learning since they receive more attention when there are two teachers. Learners also have more time for instruction and practice because co-teaching makes classroom management easier.

Co-teaching greatly enriches the curriculum in a number of ways. We cannot teach a foreign language without including the cultural dimension. NESTs co-teaching with NNESTs help create real-world context with specific language use; in short, they represent the lively culture of the target language in the classroom. The curriculum is also implemented with genuine and creative techniques designed as a result of the synthesis of the “two minds” cooperating together. Efficient time management is another positive aspect of co-teaching as team teachers act as “one idea in two bodies” make things move quickly. By so doing, more curriculum content is covered. Also, there are sometimes errors in the existing textbooks and NESTs help to fix them.

2. School administration support to make the co-teaching successful

Making co-teaching successful requires school administration support. From the data collected, school headmasters and their assistants have been making efforts to provide active support. Twenty-nine of them (96.66%) helped to create a schedule that allows co-teaching, especially making sure it doesn’t overlap with the counterparts’ busy schedule. This high percentage is due to the fact that Peace Corps always organises a two day workshop to supervisors and counterparts prior to the service of PC TEFL volunteers in their assigned posts. It is a tight training module dealing with Peace Corps missions, goals, volunteers’ service, tips to avoid creating frustrating situations, and how to provide adequate support when necessary. Five supervisors (16.66%) reported having observed team teachers in their classrooms and provided constructive feedback. Three of them (10%) also reported serving as mediators when there was problem related to the co-teachers’ collaboration.

3. Challenges related to co-planning and co-teaching in Beninese secondary EFL classes

Discuss

As a quick reminder, Beninese adopt the team teaching approach; this strategy requires both teachers to cooperate, to co-plan since they have to deliver the same instruction at the same time (Abernethy, 2017; Sturman, 1992). It is not possible to team teach if there is no co-planning. The primary challenges to team teaching appear to be the time factor, counterparts’ motivation and their availability. Most often and as aforementioned in the method, 32 (80%) counterparts prior to the service of PC TEFL volunteers in their assigned posts. It is a tight training module dealing with Peace Corps missions, goals, volunteers’ service, tips to avoid creating frustrating situations, and how to provide adequate support when necessary. Five supervisors (16.66%) reported having observed team teachers in their classrooms and provided constructive feedback. Three of them (10%) also reported serving as mediators when there was problem related to the co-teachers’ collaboration.

Peace Corps missions, goals, volunteers’ service, tips to avoid creating frustrating situations, and how to provide adequate support when necessary. Five supervisors (16.66%) reported having observed team teachers in their classrooms and provided constructive feedback. Three of them (10%) also reported serving as mediators when there was problem related to the co-teachers’ collaboration.
document d’accompagnement¹) and don’t offer opportunities to learners on how to think out of the box. Beninese teachers are good at teaching grammatical structures and most often would like to devote two hours lesson on them while the NEST would suggest supplementing the existing material with fun activities, and games. In such a situation, coming to consensus was somewhat hard. Some counterparts had their old lesson plans that they tried to substitute during co-planning. Even though in some cases, counterparts were diligent about co-planning, rewriting everything fresh, but while team teaching, they insisted on doing things their ways. As a result the talking time was not equally shared and one of the team teachers got frustrated.

Some Beninese teachers do not perceive the importance of gender equitable practices in teaching. Consequently, they were not willing to cooperate when the NEST suggested some activities to promote them. Most of the team teachers involved in the survey were made of a male teacher, 38 (95%) for Beninese teachers and a female teacher, 23 (76.66%) for PC TEFL volunteers. This caused some frustration among three female teachers (10%) who expressed that their counterparts didn’t take them seriously and were not interested in their ideas for their classes they co-taught. The learners in some schools, all regarded the male teacher as the “real” teacher and consequently only asked him questions, only went to him for permission to leave and the co-teacher couldn’t understand why this was a problem.

V. SUGGESTIONS

Team teaching in Beninese secondary school EFL classes offers both team teachers a great opportunity to grow professionally and to develop sound human relationships. To facilitate the collaboration, the team teachers should develop a relationship of mutual respect and trust right from the beginning so that they can support each other. PC TEFL volunteers have come to Benin to teach English and want to be respected and seen as someone who can make a contribution. In the same vein, Beninese EFL teachers have spent so many years to study English language and principles of foreign language learning and teaching and who want to be seen as someone who better understands how challenging it is to learn a foreign language. In such a context, even though each of the team teachers is unique and has one’s own personality, they should make themselves useful, be extraordinary accommodating and open to collaboration to form a strong whole, using each other’s strengths and covering each other’s weaknesses in a creative way. Strong relationships are developed over time and when they come to maturity, they can make team teaching successful (Liu, 2008).

As most secondary schools in Benin have only male teachers, people culturally view the profession as a male driven one which is a stereotype. To remedy the situation it is important to train school administration members on the gender equitable practices and gender based challenges to improve the situation. Some efforts have been made regarding this but they need to be strengthened.

VI. CONCLUSION

This paper has explored the concept and practice of co-teaching in public secondary school EFL classes in Benin. Up to now, the co-teaching has been conducted between the TEFL Peace Corps volunteers and their counterparts. The paper has discussed the benefits and challenges of the approach that is used. The advantages of co-teaching in the Beninese context include but are not limited to the professional development of the team teachers, cultural exchange, designing supplemental activities, introduction of new concepts such as gender equitable practices, and critical thinking in the educational system. Team teaching is not a panacea to all problems setting back Beninese educational system since it also has some downsides. The fundamental challenges with co-teaching have to do with teachers’ personality, instability of part time teachers’ job, and to a lesser extent the lack of incentive measures.

The implementation of team teaching in Beninese secondary schools is necessary because its advantages outweigh its challenges. The government needs to encourage the approach, work closely with the pioneering institution in order to generalise it to all public and private schools. The secondary school administrative members’ scope of work should include the support to co-teaching by creating favourable schedules to team teaching, observing team teaching classrooms and helping solve conflicts that may arise between team teachers.

APPENDIX A

TEACHERS’ QUESTIONNAIRE

Below is a questionnaire designed for the secondary school EFL teachers involved in Co-Planning and Co-teaching. It is designed with regard to explore the concept and practice of Co-teaching in public secondary school EFL classes in Benin.

Your answers will be confidential and your identity anonymous; moreover, the study will not report on individual schools. Thank you for your participation.

1- Name of school_______________________ affiliated State department district office_________
2- Gender Male Female age __________
3- Qualification : Professional degree Academic degree:

¹ Document d’accompagnement: learners’ textbook
4- EFL teaching experience ________________________________

5- Which grade level do you co-teach? (please tick the appropriate box with regard to the level and cycle)
   a- First cycle grade level  
   b- Second cycle grade level

6- How long have you co-taught for:
   a- 3 months  
   b- 6 months  
   c- A year  
   d- More than a year

7- Whom do you co-teach with?  A male teacher  a female teacher  both

8- How does the co-teaching impact
   a- your co-teacher  
   b- your learners?  
   c- the curriculum

9- What administrative support can help to make co-teaching successful?

10- What are the challenges of co-planning and co-teaching in EFL classes in Benin?

APPENDIX B

Observation Sheet 1
Co-Teachers’ Name: _______________________________ School: ____________________
School District___________________ Academic Year ________________ Date: __________

Classroom observation comment
Observe for an hour. Note what the teacher is doing and what the learners are doing. Mark the progress of the lesson increments of 20 minutes. Then tick the appropriate column on the observation sheet 2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>What the teacher is doing</th>
<th>what the learners are doing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0 minute</td>
<td>0 minute</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Observation Sheet 2
Co-Teachers’ Name: _______________________________ School: ____________________
School District______________________ Academic Year ________________

Co- Teaching skills

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Co-teaching skills</th>
<th>Never</th>
<th>Once</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Often</th>
<th>Always</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Both teachers support and respect each other</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Both teachers are consistent with the adopted approach</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Co-teachers interrupt each other</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Co-teachers share roles and responsibilities equally</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The lesson delivery shows that the co-teachers plan together</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Co-teachers are flexible</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Co-teachers develop tactful ways to give each other feedback when things do not go well or when one makes a global error</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One or both teachers was/ were angry, frustrated or upset</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Co-teachers avoid misunderstanding due to cultural differences</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learners’ participation demonstrated they enjoyed being taught by the co-teachers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

APPENDIX C

Interview questions to the team-teachers

1- Could you introduce yourself?

2- How do you rate your general teaching proficiency skills: fairly good- good- very good- exemplifying?

3- What do you most enjoy while co-planning and co-teaching with a native/local English as a foreign language teacher?

4- Are you satisfied with your relationship with your teaching partner? What do you foresee as a situation that may be detrimental to your collaboration? Do you think of any strategy to counter it?

5- Based on your observation, do you think your learners enjoy being taught by a local teacher and a Peace Corps volunteer? Could you give an example?

6- To what extent do you transfer your takeaways from co-teaching when teaching alone in your own classes?

7- What are your suggestions for improving co-planning and co-teaching in EFL classes in Benin?
REFERENCES


Gbènakpon, Abel, Sekoubaou was born in Adjarra, a suburb of Porto-Novo, the capital city of Benin Republic, a French speaking country in west Africa. He grew up and went to school in Benin where he earned a secondary school teacher’s diploma from the teacher Training College in Porto-Novo in 2001 and a postgraduate diploma in TEFL in 2014 and he is currently a PhD candidate at Abomey-Calavi University in Benin Republic.

He has eighteen years of French and English Teaching experience under his belt and experience in adult teaching as well as training of language teachers. From 2004 to 2016, he has been a regional English as a Foreign Language Teachers’ Advisor and Trainer in Atacora, a northern State Department of Benin and has about sixty EFL teachers to train. In 2006, he participated in the seminar on Local Educational Administration (Sub-Saharan African Countries) II at Sapporo City Board of Education organized by Japan International Cooperation Agency under the International Cooperation Programme of the Government of Japan. He joined US Peace Corps Benin in 2006 as a Language and Cross- Culture Facilitator and became Peace Corps Service Contractor in 2016 as the TEFL Certificate Coordinator. He participated in facilitation Boot Camp in Senegal in 2016 and in the TEFL Inter-Rater Reliability conference in Washington, DC in 2017. He is the author of “The Concept and Practice of Critical Thinking in EFL Classes in Benin: Prospects and Challenges”, an article published by Studies in English Language Teaching Journal Vol. 5, N4, 2017. Pages 749-770.
Research Summary of College English Micro-lecture in China*

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Abstract—With the development of information technology, micro-lecture has gradually become the focus in the field of education and aroused extensive attention from educators. It will become a new kind of teaching mode and an approach to learning. Mobile learning, distance learning and online learning which based on the micro-lecture will be more and more popular in education. In this paper, the articles in the aspects of theories and practices of college English micro-lecture were summarized to provide some referential information for college English teaching reform.

Index Terms—micro-lecture, College English, The Flipped Classroom

I. INTRODUCTION

In the Information Age, the traditional college English teaching faces tremendous challenges. As a new teaching material, the micro-lecture is widely used in college English teaching in China, because of its advantages: conciseness, abundant resources, easy interaction, mobility, etc. In order to improve the efficiency of teaching and learning, teachers usually use micro-lectures which are short videos with no more than 10 minutes for a certain knowledge point or some kind of micro skills in teaching. Micro-lecture is not a complete teaching process, just a part of teaching. As a means of blended learning, students could learn knowledge whenever they want. And it can break through the limitations of traditional college English teaching.

As a new teaching method with great potential for development, micro-course has become a hot topic in the field of college English information-based teaching, and researchers have studied it from various angles. At present, the research results are developing in the direction of actual teaching and integration, which is of great guiding significance to the first-line teaching. However, most of the researchers carried out research based on subjective ideas with strong personal preference. Therefore, this paper summarizes research status and development trend of college English micro-lecture to provide reference for college English education.

II. BASIC ANALYSIS OF LITERATURE

Originated in the United States, micro-lecture has been introduced to China in 2010 and quickly became popular in the field of education. The articles were searched by key words “micro-lecture” and “college English” on CNKI (China National Knowledge Infrastructure) to select 711 documents including 11 master’s theses and 8 conference articles that the unrelated articles were cut out according to the correlation from January 1, 2013 to December 20, 2017.

A. Analysis of Post Trend of Articles

Figure 1 Post Trend of Articles

Figure 1 depicts the trend of research articles on college English micro-lecture in nearly five years. Compared with the study on micro-lecture in China since 2011, the research into micro-lecture of college English was two years late. In 2013, the number of published paper was only one. From 2014, micro-lecture has been gradually pay attention in college English teaching. The most obvious rise is in 2016 and in 2017 which means that the research on micro-lecture has been the attention of teachers and researchers in college English teaching.

Based on the data in figure 1 and the Price Law of scientific and technological literature analysis, it can be deduced

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that the research on college English micro-lecture is in a high-speed development period.

B. Analysis of the Number of Articles in Each University

Figure 2 the Number of Articles in Each University

Figure 2 is the paper quantity of each college or university (part of them). Hunan University of Science and Engineering was 11 and won the first place in numbers. Qingdao Huanghai University, China Three Gorges University and Changchun University of Chinese Medicine tied for the second place. Among the top 14 universities, there are 8 comprehensive universities, 2 normal universities, 2 universities of science and technology and 2 medical universities. Thus, researchers and teachers are from various universities and colleges which fully show that micro-lecture has been attracting increasing attention in college English teaching in China. Most of the papers were the research results supported by education scientific research fund. The rise of research on college English micro-lecture and its in-depth study cannot be separated from the support and promotion of education administration department.

C. Analysis of Source of Literature

The total amount of articles has been increasing rapidly in the past five years. It can be found from the figure 3 that most of the papers were published on the education periodicals, especially those in English education. For example, English on Campus 25.68%, Overseas English 12.67%, Exam Weekly 6.51%, Ability and Wisdom 5.82%. Some papers were included by college journals, such as, Journal of Hubei Correspondence University 4.79%, Journal of Heilongjiang College of Education 3.42%, and Journal of Education Institution of Jilin Providence 2.4%. However, the quantity of articles published in other kind of journals is relatively low. The core journals have fewer publications, 2 articles in 2014, 8 articles in 2015, 10 articles in 2016, and 5 articles in 2017, accounting for 3.5% of the total volume. Micro-lecture has become a hot topic in college English teaching, but overall, the number of high level articles is less and the quality of the research is not high.

III. Analysis of the Content of College English Micro-lecture Articles

The contents of research are expected to mature gradually which vary from the study on definition and theories to the course development, curriculum design, construction and application, and so on.

According to the statistical analysis of 711 samples, it was found that the study of micro-lecture of college English mainly consisted of six major categories and then they were divided into 19 sub-categories based on the emphasis of the research contents. The same articles will overlap in different categories. Through the classification, comparison and
study of the sample documents, the contents of the research on college English micro-lecture mainly involves two aspects. The first part is the basic theoretical research on micro-lecture including its development history, connotation, meaning and characteristics, and so on. The other part is the practical application containing its designing construction, application in teaching, etc.

### Table 1: Content Classification of College English Micro-lecture

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Number of Articles</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Basic Research</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Concept &amp; Characteristics</td>
<td>403</td>
<td>56.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Basic Theory</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>9.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Significance</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>18.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Literature Review</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>8.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Development Tendency</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>3.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feasibility Analysis</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>9.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Situation of College English Teaching</td>
<td>162</td>
<td>22.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technology</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internet</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>2.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mobile Learning</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resource Construction</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Construction of Resource Database</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Construction of Platform</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>1.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research on Application and Practice</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching Design</td>
<td>269</td>
<td>37.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching Reflection</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>13.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Designing of Micro-lecture</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>9.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Flipped Classroom</td>
<td>214</td>
<td>30.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Training</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>3.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Course Teaching</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>11.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evaluation</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>1.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Analysis of Competition Product</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1.1%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The specific distribution of all kinds of articles is shown in Table 1. The research in each field of micro-lecture is involved, but the development is unbalanced in general. The number of articles about basic theory, designing and application of micro-lecture accounts for a large part of all papers. And the number of related technology and evaluation standard is very few, especially the research on micro-lecture evaluation standard. Therefore, the future direction of research about college English micro-lecture can be carried out based on the relevant technology and evaluation criteria.

In terms of research contents, the articles have their own focus. In order to better display the research status about college English micro-lecture in recent years, this paper discusses it from four parts: basic research, technical research, applied research and evaluation standard.

### A. Basic Research on College English Micro-lecture

According to the theme and contents, the basic research on college English micro-lecture can be divided into the concept of micro-lecture, theoretical research, literature review, development trend and feasibility analysis, etc.

The number of research achievements in each category is shown in Table 1. They represent the following characteristics:

1. Most of the articles have clarified the concepts, meaning, characteristics, essence and influence of micro-lecture. 56.7% of the articles discussed the definition and characteristics of micro-lecture. It can be predicted that researchers’ understanding of micro-lecture has been more comprehensive and in-depth.

2. There are fewer articles (only 9%) on the theories of micro-lecture. Some related theories on teaching and curriculum design of micro-lecture were mentioned in these articles. For example, multimodal discourse analysis (8 articles), 6 articles from the perspective of cognitive linguistics, 5 articles on independent learning theory, and 4 constructivism articles. Other theories include second language acquisition, connectionism, output driving hypothesis and schema theory, etc. Some articles refer to the relationship between micro-lecture and MOOC and the flipped classroom, which is a new kind of teaching method based on constructivism in the internet era. In general, there are no systematic theoretical frameworks and no consistent and authoritative opinion on the learning theory and teaching thought involved in micro-lecture.

3. 22.8% of the articles are about the summary and analysis of the current situation of college English teaching in China. At present, the shortcomings of Chinese college English teaching are inadequate teaching equipment, improper teaching methods, monotonous teaching mode and boring activities in class. Students lack the opportunities to deepen understanding and output language through discussion. They also cannot get effective feedback on their learning from teachers. Thus, we should vigorously promote the integration of information technology and teaching.

4. There are 9.4% of the articles on the feasibility analysis of college English micro-lecture. These articles discussed the feasibility of micro-lecture in college English teaching from the aspects of teachers’ team, students’ learning characteristics, teaching environment and the present college English teaching mode respectively.

College English teachers with high degree and cultural level, they have the strong learning abilities to the information technology to apply the micro-lecture in college English teaching. With the in-depth reform of education, many college students are no longer satisfied with the traditional teaching mode, instead, most of them expect that they can choose to
learn knowledge that they are weak and interested in through autonomous learning. The flipped classroom teaching mode based on micro-lecture can meet the students’ demand and stimulate their interests in learning. From the point of development of information technology and teaching reform, the application of micro-lecture in college English teaching is feasible. Micro-lecture can solve the problems of learning in time and space. Most of articles about the feasibility analysis of micro-lecture applied in college English teaching concentrated on information resources and development of regional education information resources. However, the other feasibilities about it need us to explore and discover.

(5) There are relatively fewer articles on the literature review and the trend of development of micro-lecture. Beginning from 2013, the development and related research of college English micro-lecture are relatively short. So far, there are quite a few numbers of relevant articles.

B. Research on Related Technology and Resource Construction of College English Micro-lecture

Articles on related technologies of micro-lecture are fewer. Most of them about the construction of technical platform or curriculum construction of college English micro-lecture, the combination of network and mobile learning with micro-lecture applied in college English teaching. Therefore, it is necessary to pursue further study and develop the related technologies of micro-lecture.

C. The Application and Practical Research on College English Micro-lecture

There are many articles about the application of micro-lecture in college English teaching. For instance, some are about thoughts on some problems of various contests of micro-lecture, some are concerned about the design of micro-lecture. And the teaching mode and strategy of college English micro-lecture are considered. In general, there is no mature application mode for how to better apply the micro-lecture to the college English class and achieve better teaching effect.

1. Instructional design and reflection of micro-lecture

About 37.8% of articles refer to the strategies, methods and approaches to the college English micro-lecture, including the design and arrangement of pre-class review, new course introduction, teaching emphasis, homework and exercises, etc.

Many teachers reflected on it in various aspects. The micro-lecture is short, brief, limited in length. When faced with the complex logical knowledge, its learning effect will be inferior to other teaching modes. Knowledge of phonetics, vocabulary, and grammar is relatively independent which is suitable for making micro-lecture. In comparison, paragraphs and chapters are large and complex which require learners more time to study and are unfit for micro-lecture. It presents more challenges for teachers. In order to make and design micro-lecture, teachers need more information and time to prepare lessons. Teachers have become the main body of co-learning to help students to choose content, to use the right learning methods and to complete the learning effect evaluation, etc.

The quality of micro-lecture needs to be improved. Although its characteristics are fragment, the integration and systematization should be concerned in the teaching application. It can be flexibly applied in all aspects of college English teaching, such as, preview, introduction of new knowledge, exercises, expansion of the text. As a new kind of teaching resource, it can be an efficient and convenient assistant means of teaching. It can save the teaching time and be watched repeatedly. Learning it, students have a large autonomous space so that they can study deeply and develop their abilities to discover, analyze and solve the problems in the process of learning.

2. The design and production of micro-lecture

The articles involved in the design and production of college English micro-lecture were 9.3%. Through reading the articles, there are some main problems in its production.

(1) Some teachers without relevant education technology training and no consciousness and abilities of writing script, but directly design the micro-lecture according to the teaching plans. In this way, the college English micro-lectures have some problems, such as lacking of relevant designing script, no outstanding teaching focus, unsophisticated content, no prominent the interaction between teachers and students in classroom activities.

(2) Most of the micro-lectures are simple and low technology and resources are unevenly distributed. At present, the development and resource distribution of education in China are seriously unbalanced, which is restricted by many technical conditions of education.

(3) The design of college English micro-lecture focuses on the presentation of the learning content and ignores the integration with the real class and the learning process. In the future, the design of it will no longer focus on the content, but pay more attention to the design of learning activities.

3. Research on the teaching mode of college English micro-lecture
“The flipped classroom” as a teaching mode which based on the “micro-lecture”, the new teaching resources, has been widely applied in western countries. Whether and how they can be applied in Chinese college English teaching has gradually become the focus of domestic foreign language teachers. From the figure 4, we can see that “micro-lecture”, “college English”, “the flipped classroom” and “college English teaching” are the high-frequency words used in the articles. 30.1% of the articles discussed the application of the flipped classroom based on micro-lecture in college English teaching. A set of teaching modes suitable for college English has been gradually formed under the teachers’ unremitting efforts. And 24 articles of them mentioned other platforms to mix it with MOOC, Wechat, Unipus, micro blog, etc.

For teachers, the combination of micro-lecture and the flipped classroom will change the traditional teaching methods. The teachers’ teaching plan, class activities, or the teaching reflection after class will be more pertinence and effectiveness. For students, it can meet their needs to realize the individualized learning to choose knowledge on-demand, as well as can strengthen knowledge and speed up the process of knowledge internalization.

4. Teacher training

The research and application of micro-lecture have a profound influence on the college English staff. First, it can improve the teachers’ abilities to teach and research. Secondly, teachers’ teaching concept and innovation consciousness can be strengthened. Thirdly, it can promote teachers to learn and apply information technology in teaching.

Researches on college English micro-lecture arouse teachers’ enthusiasm for work and create an academic atmosphere with competition and cooperation. There are some significance proposed by researchers to strengthen teaching staff under the background of micro-lecture. The resources of micro-lecture as the supplement can solve the shortage of teachers. As the driving force, researchers on college English micro-lecture will improve academic level of teachers. Taking the construction of micro-lectures as an opportunity, teachers can change their teaching ideas and renew the knowledge and learn the advanced information technologies. The design of it will promote the diversity of teaching modes and methods of college English teaching. The creation of micro-lecture platform can realize the standardization of the evaluation system of college English teaching.

5. Course teaching

Designing and application with specific subjects and skills are the mainstream of study on college English micro-lecture. There are 38 articles applied the micro-lecture in the courses of listening and speaking, 15 articles of reading, 13 articles of writing and 7 about cultural introduction, as well as grammar, translation, ESP, EAP and expanding courses. It can be perceived that the micro-lecture is widely used in the courses of college English.

D. Evaluation Standard

In the lecture “Application of Micro-lecture in Foreign Language Teaching: Principles, Design and Evaluation” held by National Research Centre for Foreign Language Education in October 2014, Professor Wen (Wen Qiufang) presented evaluation of college English micro-lecture from five aspects: language, teaching methods, teaching goals, procedures and topics. The language should be brief, standardization and infectious. The designing method is clear, original and vivid in concept. The setting goals of micro-lecture should meet the teaching characteristics and requirements to maximize the teaching effectiveness. Its teaching process should be simple and comprehensive. The selected topic should be small and refined. Teachers can design and reform the college English micro-lecture according to this evaluation standard. 9 articles of all refer to the evaluation standard of college English micro-lecture. Wan Min (2014) mentioned process evaluation and termination evaluation in her paper A Study on Flipped Classroom Model in College English Teaching. In her paper, she mentioned that the evaluation of teaching effect was mainly carried out in two forms: process assessment and summative assessment. In the process assessment, the main part was students’ self-assessment in the form of questionnaire to their learning effect. Its contents mainly include the knowledge of learning, learning process and learning attitude. The summative assessment adopted the methods of final course and proficiency level examination. Guo Da-min (2016) in his The Practical Research of College English Micro-lecture
Teaching discussed multiple monitoring and evaluation system of independent study. The multiple monitoring and evaluation system of independent study is composed of several modules, including teachers' teaching monitoring, surveillance technology and self-monitoring, at the same time it can also according to student’s attitude to adjust in time, to find the most effective learning strategies, so as to achieve the desired learning effect. The establishment of evaluation system is mainly to assess student’s learning process and learning results. The evaluation can be a formative assessment, and can also be summative assessment, in the aspects of the students' learning attitude, learning methods, learning efficiency, and others.

IV. THE FACTORS THAT AFFECT THE DEVELOPMENT AND APPLICATION OF MICRO-LECTURE

In his article the Misunderstanding and Development Suggestion of Micro-lecture Construction, Hu Tie-sheng (2014) pointed out some misunderstanding in the construction of Micro-lecture in China. For instance, quite a few teachers have not enough knowledge of the essential features of micro-lecture. Teachers generally focus on making technology of micro-lecture and neglect its innovation of teaching design and teaching implementation process. The resources of existing micro-lectures are single. The micro-lecture platform is relatively backward, and learners have a single use mode for the existing micro-lectures. Most of the learners were only watching, and the comprehensive performance of the micro-lectures did not bring into play. The number of it is much, but scattered distribution. The material does not match with the textbook. There is no special, thematic and serialized micro-lecture system. New ways of studying based on micro-lecture such as mobile learning, the flipped classroom and blended learning are far from universal. As a new thing, micro-lecture is still in the construction stage, and its propaganda is not enough.

It can be summarized some factors influencing the application of college English micro-lecture through researching the articles on it. Firstly, teachers and students are weak in accepting the new technology. Because the traditional education is deeply rooted in their minds, they have poor awareness of advantages of micro-lecture. Secondly, many teachers think that micro-lecture will increase their workload and some students with poor self-control are not interested in learning micro-lecture. Thirdly, some teachers do not master the technologies of producing micro-lecture. Teachers need to be trained on the production and application of micro-lecture. The design of it doesn’t deeply integrate with the class. Fourthly, the resources of micro-lecture are single, unsystematic and lacking of excellent lectures, deficiency in uniform plan. Its utilization efficiency is low. The system and mechanism of evaluation are not perfect. Its platform is relatively backward and cannot serve the teaching well.

V. CONCLUSION

Micro-lecture, a new type of online teaching method, provides a vast teaching and learning space for English teachers and students in colleges and universities in China. Its purpose should be to improve the students’ English level and the teaching skills of teachers. The teaching process has become the embodiment of the teaching concepts and the integration of a variety of resources. It will bring challenges and opportunities to college English teaching. It is of great significance to develop students’ subjective initiative and innovative spirit and explore their learning potential by using the characteristics of “micro-lecture” and improving the College English teaching mode in China.

The research on college English micro-lecture in China is relatively late and develops rapidly in the last two years. Most experts and scholars have studied its basic theories, design and application. Relatively speaking, the studies on its relevant technologies and evaluation standards are not enough. And the latter needs to be further studied. Through the study on the articles about college English micro-lecture, it is found that the research on it in China is becoming more and more concentrated in the field of application. There is still a very large research space of its application. And we need to make further and targeted research to promote it. Micro-lecture is a trend and direction learning in the future. As a new teaching mode, it will definitely bring more influence to college English teaching.

REFERENCES

Yan Wu was born in Songyuan, Jilin Province, China in 1980. She received her Master’s degree in linguistics from Harbin Normal University in 2011. Her research interests include applied linguistics and foreign language teaching.
The Development of Intercultural Sensitivity of Business English Majors by the Multimodal Teaching Program*

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Abstract—This study is to empirically investigate the effect of the multimodal teaching program in developing Chinese learners’ intercultural sensitivity. This experiment was carried out among 31 business English majors from a local university in Southwest China within one semester. The findings indicated that the participants showed a great improvement in their general level of intercultural sensitivity, and it is worth mentioning that among the factors of intercultural sensitivity, interaction confidence and attentiveness have witnessed a greater progress than the other factors.

Index Terms—intercultural sensitivity, business English majors, multimodal teaching

I. INTRODUCTION

Foreign language learning is inseparable with cultural factors, and correspondingly intercultural communicative competence (ICC) has become the focus in foreign language teaching. Since for a long time, researchers have tried to cultivate learners’ ICC from the three aspects: the cognitive, the affective and the behavioral aspect (Chen and Starosta, 1996; Byram, 1997). And among them, one of the most influential approaches is to develop learners’ intercultural sensitivity from the affective perspective, which is regarded as the prerequisite of the development of ICC.

The multimodal teaching is to arouse learners’ curiosity, motivation and attention by decoding the meanings conveyed by the multiple media, like sounds, videos, three-digital animations as well as words (Halliday, 2000; Kress and van Leenwee, 2006). While applied in cultural teaching and learning, it can help foreign language learners have a better understanding and appreciating of the cultural differences, which can reduce the negative effect of the traditional teaching by just feeding learners on the cultural knowledge. This study, based on the previous ones, is a mixed investigation into the effect of the multimodal teaching program on Chinese learners’ intercultural sensitivity in learning the comprehensive business English course.

II. THEORETICAL FOUNDATION

A. Intercultural Communicative Competence and Intercultural Sensitivity

Intercultural communicative competence has always been a hot topic in intercultural communication research, but till now, there is still no widely accepted definition for it. Byram (1997) proposed that ICC consists of linguistic competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence and intercultural competence. In other words, it covers the knowledge about language and its culture, the skill to communicate with people from other cultures properly, and the attitude toward other cultures and the intercultural awareness. Another influential model of ICC is put forward by Deardorff (2006), who believed that ICC includes three layers of competence. The first is the essential part: respect, open-mindedness, and curiosity; the second is the necessary knowledge and skill; the third includes the adaptability, flexibility, ethnonrelativism and empathy. It can be concluded that ICC requires linguistic and cultural knowledge, sensitivity to cultural diversities, tolerance of different cultures, respect for other cultures and skills to maintain proper interpersonal relationship. Though expressed in different ways by different researchers, ICC can be found to be composed of three aspects: the cognitive ability, emphasizing the basic knowledge and understanding of culture; the affective ability, emphasizing the attitude and the emotion in the intercultural communication process; the behavioral ability, meaning the skill or the strategy in achieving successful intercultural communication.

Intercultural sensitivity is “an individual’s ability to develop a positive emotion towards understanding and appreciating cultural differences that promotes an appropriate and effective behavior in intercultural communication” (Chen, 1997). From the definition, it can be inferred that intercultural sensitivity focuses on the affective aspect of ICC, which can be further divided into six parts: self-esteem, self-measuring, open-mindedness, empathy, interaction involvement and non-judgment (Chen and Starosta, 1996). People with higher self-esteem can be more positive in intercultural communication so that they feel less depressed and stressed. A strong self-monitoring ability can enable

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one to be more attentive and more sensitive to others’ expressions so as to adjust one’s own behavior more properly. Open-minded persons are willing to show their own feelings and to be open to others’ ideas, requirements and differences. Empathy is the ability to put oneself in others’ shoes to understand their opinions and emotions. The higher interaction involvement indicates that the communicator can have a better insight into others’ message and make a proper response, while non-judgment means listening to others sincerely instead of making judgment bluntly so as to get more joy in communication.

From the above analysis, we can see that ICC is a cover term, and intercultural sensitivity is one component of it. As an affective factor, intercultural sensitivity is the precondition of the development of the cognitive ability in ICC, influencing the communicator’s willingness to understand and learn the exotic cultural knowledge. It also plays a critical role in the behavioral ability in ICC, which decides how a communicator behaves in the intercultural communication. Successful intercultural communication is achieved by communicators’ ability of intercultural awareness and the behavioral effectiveness and appropriateness enhanced by intercultural sensitivity (Chen and Starosta, 2000).

B. The Researches of Intercultural Sensitivity

Intercultural sensitivity has aroused many researchers’ attention, and the earlier pioneer studies mainly investigated its importance in ICC (Brislin, Cusnher, Cherri and Yong, 1986; Gudykunst, Guzley and Hammer, 1996). The later researches approached it mainly from two aspects. Some intended to find out the factors influencing intercultural sensitivity, like Anderson, Lawton and Rexeisen, ect. (2006). They found that the short-term overseas experience can improve the communicators’ intercultural sensitivity. Mahoney and Sehamber (2004) indicated that different courses can influence the improvement of intercultural sensitivity. Holm’s study showed that the gender and academic achievement are related with intercultural sensitivity, while the female learners have a better intercultural sensitivity (2009). Other studies were devoted to the experimental studies of the intercultural sensitivity training. Rahimi and Soltani (2011) tried to find out the teachability of Iranians’ intercultural sensitivity from the perspective of ethnocentrism and ethno-relativism. Jain (2013) used intercultural films and discussions to train students’ intercultural sensitivity. Tupas (2014) proposed that only deliberate and carefully planned program by the teacher can help with the development of intercultural sensitivity. Nick, Hofstede and Beulens, ect.(2016) used some digital intercultural tools to train and improve the participants’ intercultural sensitivity.

C. Research Statement and Questions

Benett (2004) has emphasized that intercultural sensitivity develops based on one’s experience, instead of the sole inputting of linguistic and cultural knowledge. For most Chinese learners, English is the foreign language for them to learn in schools, but there are not so many opportunities for them to contact with the English-speaking natives and to be immersed in the culture, which results in a slow development in their cultural awareness and ICC. However, in the multimodal teaching program, learners can be stimulated to observe, compare and reflect on the cultural differences in a more direct way, since the multimodal way of teaching can help with the creation of an exotic environment by using different static resources like costumes and colors, and the dynamic resources like language, sounds, facial expressions and gestures. It is believed that multimodal teaching can serve as a bridge of the learners’ existing knowledge and the new knowledge. Based on their own experience, learners can be motivated to participate in the learning process and explore the exotic language not only by the written words but also by the multimodal message received by listening, seeing and touching (Zhang, 2009).

Given the beneficial effect of the multimodal teaching, this research is to design a case study of its use in a comprehensive business English course by investigating 31 subjects’ development of intercultural sensitivity in one semester, which is to indicate the effectiveness of the multimodal teaching in cultivating Chinese learners’ intercultural sensitivity. Therefore, this study intends to answer the following two questions:

1. Can learners’ intercultural sensitivity be improved through the multimodal teaching program?
2. What are the effects of the multimodal teaching in developing learners’ intercultural sensitivity?

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

This research involved 31 participants who were first-grade business English majors all from the same class in a local university in Southwest China. Before the experiment, they were told that they would be in an experimental class for one semester which aimed to help them with the difficulties in intercultural communication, and all of them agreed to participate in the experiment at the very beginning and remained in the class until the whole course was completed.

B. Materials and Instruments

In order to compare the effect of the multimodal teaching program, intercultural sensitivity scale (ISS) proposed by Chen and Starosta(2000) was adopted to test the learners’ level of intercultural sensitivity before and after the experiment. The scale is composed of 24 five-point Likert items covering the five factors of intercultural sensitivity: Item 1, 11, 13, 21, 22, 23 and 24 are about interaction engagement; Item 2, 7, 8, 16, 18 and 20 are about respect for
cultural differences; Item 3, 4, 5, 6, and 10 about interaction confidence; Item 9, 12 and 15 are about interaction enjoyment; Item 14, 17, and 19 about interaction attentiveness. Each item gives a five-point rating scale ranging from 1 to 5: 1 means strongly disagree, 2 disagree, 3 not sure, 4 agree and 5 strongly agree. The validity and reliability of this scale has been proved by Fritz, Mollenberg and Chen (2001), and Cronbach alpha coefficient was 0.78. The teaching materials are based on the teaching textbooks, supported by video clips chosen from the Internet.

C. Procedure

Before and after the experimental class, a survey was made to look into the participants’ intercultural sensitivity respectively, and all the participants were required to finish a questionnaire of ISS within 30 minutes.

During the one semester’s course, the participants were assigned six tasks to finish within 12 weeks. Before each task, the teacher would give them the topic for the following class and the reading materials with questions. In the class, the participants would be checked about their answers to the questions of the reading material, for which the teacher did not give any direct comment. Then they would be shown one or two pieces of videos about 8-10 minutes, and after watching, they were required to find out the proofs to support their previous answers. They discussed in groups about the language use, the body movement, facial expressions and other non-verb information signs. The teacher was just a guide, a helper and a coordinator in the process. When the 20 minutes’ discussion was done, each group would send a representative to present their findings and for each task, they should choose a different presenter. Followed each group’s presentation, there would be questions from other groups. After class, the subjects need to reflect on what they had learned in class in writing forms to reinforce their learning results.

After the six tasks were completed, 20 participants were chosen randomly to make an evaluation of the class and to answer the researcher’s questions about the effect of the multimodal teaching program.

D. Data Collection and Analysis

The researcher and teacher carried out the investigation herself. Before the implementation of the questionnaire, instructions and explanations were given to make sure that all the participants understand the requirement and each item well. Thanks to the participants’ cooperation, for both the pre-experimental and the post-experimental investigation, 31 valid questionnaires were collected.

In order to make the result more objective, we adopted Statistical Packages for Social Science (SPSS) version 18.0 to analyze the quantitative data collected in this research, the result of which can show us the changes of the intercultural sensitivity of the participants before and after the experiment.

IV. RESULTS

A. The Pre-experimental Intercultural Sensitivity

With the data collected and analyzed, we got the following descriptive statistics about the participants’ intercultural sensitivity before the experiment as listed in Table I. From the table, we can see that the mean total score of the participants’ intercultural sensitivity is 80.89, which is not so high, since the full mark is 120. It can be inferred that there is still a large room for these learners to improve themselves. As for the level of respect for cultural differences, it ranks the highest among the five factors with a mean score of 3.56, which means that though these participants had not accepted any special training of intercultural communication, they still had a certain awareness of cultural differences. The mean scores of interaction engagement and enjoyment are 3.42 and 3.36 respectively, while those of interaction confidence and attentiveness are 3.23 and 3.12 respectively. For most of the participants, they rarely had any opportunities to go abroad. Therefore, they did not have enough experiences in the exotic culture and they knew little about the way to communicate with foreigners, which made them lack self-confidence in communicating with foreigners.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total score</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>80.89</td>
<td>8.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interaction engagement</td>
<td>2.14</td>
<td>4.51</td>
<td>3.42</td>
<td>0.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Respect for cultural differences</td>
<td>2.89</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.56</td>
<td>0.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interaction confidence</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.23</td>
<td>0.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interaction enjoyment</td>
<td>2.12</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>3.36</td>
<td>0.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interaction attentiveness</td>
<td>2.15</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>3.12</td>
<td>0.44</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

B. The Post-experimental Intercultural Sensitivity

The mean total score after the experimental class is 93.42 with the maximum score of 112 and the minimum score of 71. In Table II, it can be found that there is a great improvement of the participants’ total score compared with that before the experiment. The mean scores for the five factors are 4.21 for respect for cultural differences, 3.92 for interaction engagement, 3.84 for interaction confidence, 3.40 for interaction enjoyment and 3.80 for interaction abilities.
attentiveness, which forms a different rank from the pre-test one. In the rank, respect for cultural differences is followed by interaction engagement, interaction confidence, interaction attentiveness and interaction enjoyment successively. Though respect for cultural differences and interaction engagement remain the first and the second, interaction confidence and attentiveness have made greater progress than interaction enjoyment.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE II</th>
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<tr>
<td>DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE POST-EXPERIMENTAL INTERCULTURAL SENSITIVITY</td>
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<tr>
<td>--------------------------------------------------</td>
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<tr>
<td>Total score</td>
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<td>Interaction engagement</td>
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<tr>
<td>Respect for cultural differences</td>
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<td>Interaction confidence</td>
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<tr>
<td>Interaction enjoyment</td>
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<td>Interaction attentiveness</td>
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</table>

C. The Participants' Evaluation of the Experimental Class

To further prove the effect of the experimental class, we interviewed 20 participants randomly chosen from the sample. All of them took a positive attitude toward the multimodal way of teaching. They said that it was more vivid and interesting than the traditional way of intercultural learning, because in the class they gradually realized that cultural differences could be traced in different forms such as dressing styles, body movements, space between communicators and facial expressions. They also reported that they were not shy to communicate with foreigners anymore, and it was an exciting thing to know the other cultures. 18 of them believed that they could be more tolerant of the cultural differences if there was any and they were willing to understand the other side’s feelings. 16 of them claimed that they were not scared to talk with foreigners anymore and knew how to interpret the cultural clues in communication, showing a great confidence in intercultural communication. As for the question how to maintain a hospital and negotiation relation with the foreigner, 16 of them said that eye contacts was important and the pronoun “we” might be a better choice than “I”. Five boys said that before the class, they thought learning a foreign language just was a matter of learning the words, grammar and sentences, but after finishing the class, they came to know that it was a matter of learning the culture at the same time. As for the influence of their linguistic proficiency, all of the interviewees thought that their attention tended to be averted to the language itself because of their limited vocabulary and listening comprehension ability. Still one more thing needs to be pointed out: the multimodal teaching program can only create a virtual communicative atmosphere, so the interviewees also reported that they were not sure about their performance in the real intercultural communication.

V. DISCUSSIONS

Based on the analysis of the investigation and interview results, it can be concluded that the multimodal teaching program plays an important role in promoting learners’ intercultural sensitivity. By comparing the data in Table I and Table II, we can see that the general level of intercultural sensitivity has been greatly improved, not just including the average score but also the maximum and the minimum scores. According to the interview, all the participants enjoyed the way of teaching and learning, by which they can be fully stimulated and involved in observing and analyzing the cultural differences. And with the group work, they formed a better understanding of those differences. In the multimodal teaching program, the participants may become more critical through complementing the tasks, the group discussions and presentations, because they were not given answers directly but they were encouraged, attracted and guided to find out the answers themselves. It is a kind of learning by discovering, which can promote learners to explore and collaborate with teachers and peers in solving problems. Besides, learners can be more actively involved in the learning process, and correspondingly, learners’ motivation can be greatly activated (Carroll and Beman, 2015).

Respect for cultural differences was the first one in the rank of the five factors of intercultural sensitivity even before the experiment, which means that the advancement of the hi-tech does give the learners more access to foreign cultures than before. Therefore, it is not hard for them to identify some cultural differences in intercultural communication. After the experiment, their levels of respect for cultural differences are much higher. They are more open and more tolerant to the other culture, and are more willing to put themselves in the native speaker’s position to understand the cultural differences. All of these progresses have to be attributed to the advanced learning technology and the well designed tasks.

The level of interaction engagement has also been improved after the experiment, which means learners are more willing to communicate with foreigners. The multimodal way of teaching can greatly activate the learners’ enthusiasm and passion in participating in the activities, because in the learning process, they may find that there are more sources of messages which are worth observing and analyzing than they thought before.

As for the interaction confidence and interaction attentiveness, the learners also made a great progress in these two aspects. In the interview, they seemed to be more confident in deciding on the strategies to effectively communicate with others. Maybe it is because they have learned how to obtain the cultural messages expressed through careful
observations and analyses, and therefore make proper response. With these abilities, it is natural that these learners have become more confident and observant. However, it is a pity that the participants’ interaction enjoyment did not get great improvement compared with other factors. One reason may be that there learners were freshmen and their language proficiencies were not enough for them to communicate freely in English. Another reason might be that the multimodal way of teaching can create a good intercultural communication environment but it is still not real in nature. So learners could not feel the joy from a successful communication with foreigners by applying what they have acquired in the class.

VI. IMPLICATIONS AND LIMITATION

Intercultural sensitivity represents the affective aspect of intercultural communicative competence, and it may have some correlation with the other aspects of ICC. Based on the results of this research, it can be inferred that the development of intercultural sensitivity is related with that of learners’ cognitive and behavioral ability. The former can reduce the negative influence of low linguistic proficiency and help with the improvement of interaction engagement and attentiveness. The latter can increase learners’ interaction enjoyment especially by practicing the knowledge and strategies acquired. Therefore, the training of intercultural sensitivity cannot be isolated from the other aspects, and the development of ICC should combine the linguistic forms and functions, the connotations of culture with the real experience in intercultural communication.

Firstly, encourage learners to make progress by discovery learning. The classroom is where learners are required to develop their communicative ability which in turn can hardly be formed by the passive inputting of knowledge. The multimodal teaching program is one of the teaching methods which can broaden learners’ insight into a more colorful world, and stimulate their curiosity to the unknown world. The learners themselves play a more active role in the process, as long as the teacher can find a proper way to arouse their learning interest.

Secondly, create more communicative opportunities for learners. In school, teachers and learners can work together to design various activities for language use. One of the choices might be the building up of a friendly relationship with the overseas students on the campus. It is a win-win activity for both the Chinese learners of English and the overseas students in China, because in the process, the two sides can have a direct contact with and a better understanding of the foreign cultures. It is also suggestive for learners to participate in the society activities in school, like English club, English debates and English plays. In addition, the internet is a huge source where learners can have real experiences and have a lot of fun with foreign cultures, like the on-line chatting apps and the forums of English learning. Only in the real situations can learners develop their empathetic feeling and tolerance of the exotic culture better.

Thirdly, insist on culture teaching through the whole process of language teaching. It is urgent for both teachers and learners to realize that language learning cannot be separated from culture. As also can be found in this research, some learners, while learning a language, just focus on the linguistic form. In the end, they may develop a low level of intercultural communicative competence. So no matter what kind of teaching method is adopted, the teaching process should always adhere to this principle, the principle of culture teaching.

This research is a cross-sectional study of the effect of the multimodal teaching program on Chinese learners’ intercultural sensitivity, and inevitably it may suffer from some limitations. Firstly, there is a limitation of time, because the experiment lasted just one semester and we did not have enough time to know the diachronic development of learners’ intercultural sensitivity. Secondly, this research did not take into account the correlation between intercultural sensitivity and the language proficiency, so it is not clear whether learners with different levels of language proficiencies may make different degrees of improvements in the multimodal teaching program. Thirdly, the sample of this study is also quite limited and more proofs are needed to further support the teachability of intercultural sensitivity in future.

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the Biannual Meeting of the International Association for Intercultural Communication Studies, July 24-29, Hong Kong.


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Serial Verbs Constructions in Sikkanese

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Abstract—Serial verb construction (hereafter abbreviated as SVC) is a construction consisting of more than one verbs without any overt markers of coordinator or subordinator. SVC is a common phenomenon in isolating languages which lack morphological markers for syntactic processes. Sikka language (Sikkanese) belongs to isolating language with SVO type and it does not have diathesis. This research attempts to analyse the typological characteristics of Sikkanese SVCs which cover: prosodic/phonological, morpho-syntactic, and semantic features of SVCs in Sikkanese. The theory adopted in this research is typological theory which is applied by Van Stedent and Ger Reesink (2008) in analysing SVCs in East-Nusantara languages. The prosodic characteristic shows that Sikkanese SVCs fell under one intonation contour, similar to the intonation of a single clause and without being separated by a pause; morphosyntactically SVCs in Sikkanese could be categorised into independent and some belong to co-dependent type without any morphological markers; and syntactically they could be analysed into: (1) motion; (2) direction, (3) manner; (4) instrument; (5) purpose; (6) progressive; (7) modality

Index Terms—SVC, typology, phonology, morpho-syntax, and semantics

I. INTRODUCTION

Sikkanese is a regional language in Sikka District, on the island of Flores belonging to the Province of East Nusa Tenggara, in Indonesia. According to Fernandez (1996) and Sedeng (2000) this language is grouped into Ambon-Timorese languages, and is estimated to have approximately 251 and 125 speakers. Sikkanese is classified into two geographical dialects, namely: Sikkanese dialect in West Sikka and Krowe / Kangae / Tna Ali dialect, in East Sikka (Fernandez, 1996, p. 36). In addition to Sikkanese, in Sikka District, there are other minor languages: Bajo and Bugis languages used by migrants from Sulawesi, and Paluqe language used on Paluqe Island, besides Indonesian as national language. Sikkanese is used by its speakers in everyday life, which deals with customs, agriculture, commerce, and religious matters. In addition, Sikkanese is also used as a lingua franca during the transition of children learning Indonesian as a national language. Sikkanese is also used as a means of disseminating information on the results of national development in rural areas as a companion of Indonesian language (Sedeng, 2000, p. 2).

In the explanation of the 1945 Constitution, Chapter XV, Article 36, it is stated that the local languages still used as a means of communication by the local community are nurtured and maintained by the state. The guidance is based on the fact that regional languages are parts of Indonesian culture. One form of guidance and preservation of regional languages is the study of all linguistic aspects of the languages in Indonesia (Halim, 1976: 21).

Associated with the preservation of Sikkanese in the form of research, today's research on Sikkanese has been done previously. These studies lead to the study of geographical dialects, historical linguistic studies, and several studies related to the phonological, adaptation and expression of Sikkanese customs. In general, Sikkanese research related to the micro aspect is based on structural theory and so far no one has specifically examined the construction of Sikkanese verbs.

Serial verb construction (SVC) is a clause consisting of more than one verb without any markers of subordinator or coordinator. SVC is a common phenomenon in isolating languages that have no morphological markers for syntactic processes. Sedeng (2000) revealed that Sikkanese was classified into isolating language with SVO-type, and lacked passive diathesis. This language has a very minimal morphological process, and grammatical concepts to be expressed, through separate lexicon. It is the limitations of this morphological process that gave rise to the construction of serial verbs as seen in the following examples.
From the three examples (1a-c), it can be said that what is conveyed in English using one verb is expressed by two main verbs in Sikkanese: *boter "buy", beli "give", dena make "meluk" clean ", plari "elope" "neti" bring ". The verbs in the SVC in the examples are the main verbs and can appear independently in one clause.

The SVC phenomenon seen in examples 1(a-c) is very interesting to study and has been widely discussed in the literature (cf. Senft (2008), Aihkenvald (2006), Kroeger (2004), and Indrawati (2014). However, until now the concept of SVC is still interesting to be analyzed, because its characteristics are specific, depending on the language under study. Seeing this opportunity, on this occasion the researcher raised the topic of SVCs in Sikkanese, seen from its typological perspective and analysed their characteristics involving phonological, syntactic, and semantic characteristics.

II. THEORY AND CONCEPT

The theory applied in discussing Sikkanese SVC is the language typological approach proposed by Van Staden and Ger Reesink in Senft, eds. (2008) in their research entitled "Serial verb constructions in a linguistic area". They state that what is included in the criteria of serial verbs are all forms or constructions in which two or more verbs occur in a clause and none of the verbs is clearly and formally subordinate to the other. SVC often called as a complex predicate is essentially two terms syntactically and semantically similar, since the complex predicate refers to the notion of predicate which may be morphologically composed of a verb but its semantic impression is complex or composed of several verbs that are also complex in meaning. Baker (1997, p. 247) suggests that the term complex predicate refers to the notion of any complex predicate, semantically, syntactically, and morphologically. This means that the serialization of verbs is an integral part of the complex predicate.

Van Staden and Ger Reesink (2008, p. 22), stress that in SVC there is no conjunction, linkage, or "non-finite" marker between the two verbs in the SVC, both verbs can stand alone in clauses outside SVC, the serial verbs form a single predicate in a clause, and they have the characteristic of sharing arguments. Phonologically SVCs have single intonation, the verbs in series cannot be separated by a pause.

Morphosyntactically, Van Staden and Ger Reesink differentiate SVCs into four, groups namely: independent SVC, dependent, co-dependent SVC, and complex SVC.

**Independent SVC** refers to SVCs of which all verbs in the constructions are morphologically inflected, as those of a single verb in a simple clause.; **dependent SVC** is defined as a construction that is only one of its verbs being inflected, while the other is in the form with no affixes. **Co-dependent SVC**, in this SVC the serial verbs have the characteristics of argument sharing and parts of the constructions are interdependent. The first clause’s Object is the Subject of the second clause schematically, the co-dependent SVC can be described as follows:

\[
\text{(NP) V NP|obj=sv V (NP)}
\]

Van Staden noted that in East Nusantara languages, co-dependent constructions involve fully inflected verbs. For example, consider the following Taba language.

(1) N=\text{babas} welik n=\text{mot} do
3SG=bit\pig 3SG=die\text{REAL}


**Complex SVC**: in this type, two or more verbs have a set of affixes: the prefix is attached to the first verb and the suffix to the last verb in the series. This type of SVC is very similar to composition. For example, consider the Inanwatan language quoted from Van Stadent and Ger Reesink (Senft, eds., 2008, p. 27) below.

(2) Me-de-wo-re
3:SU-go:across-come-PAST
‘They came across’.

Seen from the meaning of SVCs, Van Stadent Ger Reesink finds meanings: motion , direction , changing conditions, and instrument, manner, aspects and moods.

III. METHODOLOGY

The method applied in this study involved four steps they were; data source, methods and techniques of providing data, methods and techniques of analyzing data, and methods and techniques of presenting the results of data analysis. Data source; The Sikkanese used as a population of data sources was the Sikkanese spoken throughout Sikka District. Data source in this research consisted of primary and secondary data source. Primary data sources were from native
speakers obtained both from speakers used as informants and people who were not used as informants. The data sought were in the forms of sentences used in folklores, customs, beliefs, and aspects of social and cultural life of the community. Secondary data were obtained from the results of existing research, and these data were used as comparisons.

Methods and techniques of providing data; this research is considered as field research, it means that the researchers directly went into the field to obtain data. This method is considered higher in academic degrees; in addition researchers could also directly ask the things that were considered important. The methods applied in collecting the data were observation and interview by means of recording and note-taking. Methods and techniques of analyzing data; the data that had been collected were descriptive-qualitatively analysed based on the theory of language typology. Methods and techniques of presenting the results of data analysis; the data that had been analysed were informally presented based on the characteristics of the Sikkanese SVCs.

IV. DISCUSSION

The language typology approach is an approach which aims at grouping language according to its structural features. This approach assumes that languages can be compared to each other according to their structure, and the other assumption is that there are differences between languages. In other words, language has universal features and specific characteristics that distinguish one language from another.

A. Phonological Characteristics of Sikkanese SVC

As described above, phonologically SVCs have single intonations without being separated by pauses. Sikkanese SVC can be said to fall into one intonation similar to the intonations in single clauses, there is no pause between one verb to the other. This supports what is expressed by Aikhenvald and Dixon (2006) and other linguists who argue that SVC has the intonation characteristic of a single-verb clause and not the intonation of a series of clauses. It is also explained that in many languages the clause boundary is marked by the separation of intonation or pause whereas in SVC there is no pause between verbs forming SVC. It can be seen in the following data proved by using speech analyzer and spectrograph.

\[(3a) \quad \text{Name} \quad \text{learn} \quad \text{dance} \quad \text{Prep.} \quad \text{school} \]

\('Ani learns dancing at school.'

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If the speech analyzer and its spectrophotograph are concerned, it appears that the verb *bo’u bano* ‘come and go’, between them there is a long distance indicating that there is a pause between *bo’u* and *bano*. This is in contrast with data 4a. *splender Soka* ‘learn dancing’, there is no pause between *splender* and *Soka*, and in the spectrograph there is no long distanctance.

B. Morphosyntactic Characteristics of Sikkanese SVC

Morphosyntactically Sikkanese SVCs consist of two types, namely (1) independent type and (2) co-dependent type. Both are outlined as follows.

**The independent SVCs of Sikkanese**

Sikkanese independent SVCs can be illustrated based on the following Sikkanese data;

(4)a. Robert _**G**Era _tutur _nora _Floren
Name  stand  speak  prep  Name
‘Robert stood up speaking’

(4)b. Ani _**plender** _Soka E _sEkola
Name  learn  dance  Prep. School
‘Ani learns dancing at school’

(4)c. Petrus _**Bano** _Plari e _Sekolah
Name  go  run  Prep. School
‘Petrus went running to school’

Data 5a consists of serial verbs, _**G**Era _tutur _stand up speaking_ (V1: _**G**Era_ ‘stand’ and V2: _tutur_ ‘speak’); data 3b, serial verbs _**plender soka**_ ‘learn to dance’ (V1: _**plender**_ ‘learn’ and V2: _soka_ ‘dance’); the verbs _**bano plari**_ ‘go run’ (V1: _bano_ ‘go’ and V2: _plari_ ‘run’). Data 5(a-c) are said to be independent types because each verb can stand alone when used as a single-verb in a clause. It can be proved by the following data:

(5)a. Robert _**gEra** _nora Floren
Name  stand  Prep. Name
‘Robert stood up with Floren’

(5)b. Robert _tutur _Nora Floren
Name  speak  Prep. Name
‘Robert spoke with Floren’

2. Co-dependent Sikkanese SVCs.

Co-dependent type of Sikkanese SVCs can be seen in the following data.
The SVC in data 7a, are tungs ‘take’ (V1) and obat ‘check up’ (V2). Between these two verbs there is a noun ‘mother’. The serial verbs in data 7b are dEna ‘make’ (V1) and Eli ‘fall’ (V2). Both verbs are interrupted by the pronoun, a’u me’. The SVC in data 7c is pano ‘go’ (V1) and Pake ‘use’ (V2). Both verbs are interrupted by a noun, sekolah ‘school’. The three SVCs in 7 (a-c) are said to be co-dependent because the two verbs are related to each other, and the Object argument of the first verb is co-referenced to the Subject argument of the second verb.

C. The Semantic Characteristics of Sikkanese SVCs

Kroeger (2004, p. 227) reveals that the verbs in the SVCs usually express single events, however since both verbs contribute to the meaning of the clauses therefore the resulting meaning will be more complex than the meaning of each individual verb. The diversity of meanings formed by the verbs in series such as: the meaning of instrument, manner, direction, and aspects.

Van Staden and Ger Reesink in Senft, eds.(2008, p. 36) suggest that the meaning of SVCs is determined by a small group of verbs whose meanings can be generally identified and the overall constructions are categorized according to the group of these verbs. By following this way the meanings of Sikkanese SVCs can be described in the following data.

1. Motion

Verb movements such as: mai ‘come’, balong ‘walk’, belang ‘leave’ are mostly found as V1 in Sikkanese followed by another action performed by the same Agent expressed by V2. This construction indicates that the Agent moves in a certain direction to perform the event expressed by V2 (as the destination). Cross-linguistically, SVCs expressing motion is very common as noted by Durie (1997, p. 310):

“Every serializing languages I have encountered includes a category of motion serialisation, where a verb of motion is combined with some other verbs in such a way that the motion verb comes first and the moving argument is the Agent of the second verb”. Sikkanese SVCs expressing motion can be seen in the following data:

(7a). Wae
Elder brother/sister
mai
come
A’u
1Sing
‘Elder brother/sister came to look for me’

(7b). Ina
mother
mai
neti
mu’u
‘mother came to bring bananas’

Data 8a and b showed that V1 mai ‘come’ (intransitive) is a motion verb. Mai, indicated that the Agent moved toward the speaker to show or perform the action expressed by V2, tota (as the purpose).

V2, tota ‘looking for’ (transitive) requires an Agent that is the person looking for and Patient or something to look for. In clauses 8a and b, wae ‘elder brother/sister’ as an Agent of mai (movement action), and also Agent for mai movement action with the aim of doing tota. In the data 8b, the agent of mai ‘come’ is the ‘mother’ who is also the Agent of neti ‘take’, V2 neti requires two arguments ie; Agent and Patient, Agent of neti action is ina ‘mother’ while the Patient is mu’u ‘banana’. The agent moves toward the speaker with the purpose to perform the action expressed by V2 (neti) as the goal, or the Agent performs tota and neti actions by way (manner) of mai ‘come’.

Data (8a-b), that indicated motion verbs as V1 of Sikkanese SVC had a relationship of purpose meaning or of manner. SVCs with motion V1 are very productive in Sikkanese

2. Sikkanese SVCs with direction meanings

Bair in Senft eds.( 2008, p.68) reveals that words indicating direction and space, such as seawards (direction otowards the sea), inland, above, and below are commonly found, both in Austronesian and non-Austronesian languages in the East Nusantara and Pacific. Van Staden and Ger Reesink in Senft, eds. (2008) suggest that a construction that reveals the direction semantic relationship is defined by V2 (direction verb) that indicates the direction or location of the movement or action event. Manners are shown by V1. SVCs expressing direction in Sikkaness are presented below:

(8a). Robert Bano le Na.
Name walk Prep. east
‘Robert walked to the east’.

(8b). Wairi E kran beta siro-wirang
Water Def tap drip exit
‘water dripped out’.
In data (9a-b) V2, *le na* 'to the east', and *wira sensei* 'exit' are verbs showing directions. These verbs are the main verbs in the SVC, while the other verbs are *bano* 'walking', and *beta* 'drip' are motion verbs which in the SVCs show manners semantic relation. The meaning of the relationship is *bano le na 'le na by means of bano''*, and *beta sira werang 'sira werang by beta 'dripping way'*. Data (9a) shows that, *V1 bano* 'run' is an intransitive verb that requires a subject’s argument, Robert, and *le na* is an intransitive verb that requires a subject argument. Subjects of V1 and V2 refer to the same noun, namely Robert. In data (9b), *V1, beta ’drip’* is an intransitive verb which requires a Subject argument, *Wair ‘water’*, and *sira-wirang ‘exit’* is an intransitive verb that requires one subject argument which is in the clause referring to the subject of V1. So V1 and V2 also share the subject.

3. Sikkanese SVCs expressing manners

In SVCs expressing manners, one of their verbs reveals the manners of the actions expressed by the other verbs. Generally the verbs expressing manners follow their main verbs. Van Staden in Senft eds. (2008, p. 44). In Sikkanese SVCs expressing manner with intransitive verbs as V1, the manner was generally expressed by V2, except for the purpose of stressing the manners. It was also found in Sikkanese that SVCs with manner meanings could be constructed by intransitive V1 and V2, and V1 Intransitive and V2 transitive. These could be presented in the following data:

```
(9a)  Rimu  pano  hama-hama
   3pl.   walk   Together
     ‘They walked together’

(9b)  Tatik  plari  ropo-ropo
     Name  run   Rush
     ‘Tatik ran hurriedly’
```

In data 10a., V1, *pano* 'walk' is an intransitive verb, and V2, *hama-hama* 'together' also is an intransitive verb. As intransitive verbs both require subject arguments that semantically act as Agents. In clause 10a, *rimu* 'they' is the subject of V1 and also the subject of V2. In other words, the subject of V2 is coreferenced with the subject of V1, *pano hama-hama* 'walked together' means walking by means of *hama hama* ‘together’. Thus, V1 is the main verb expressing action, whereas V2 expresses the way the action expressed by V1 is done. In data 10b., V1, *plari* 'run' is an intransitive verb, V2, *ropo-ropo* 'rush' is also an intransitive verb. As intransitive verbs both require subject arguments that semantically act as Agents. In clause 10b., *Tatik* is the subject of V1 and also the subject of V2. Therefore, the subject of V2 is co-referenced with the Subject of V1. *Plari ropo-ropo* means *running by way of ropo-ropo*. Thus, V1 is the main verb expressing action, whereas V2 expresses the way the action expressed by V1 is carried out.

Sikkanese SVCs of which meaning expresses manners with V1 intransitive verbs and V2 transitive verbs can be presented in the following data:

```
(10a) Wair  ba  daa  bak benu
      water  flow  fill  Water container
   the water flowed filling over the water container

(10b) Wari  mai  gapu  Ina
      Younger sister  come  hug  mother
     ‘younger sister came hugging mother’.
```

In data 11a and 11b, V1, *ba* 'flow', and *mai* 'come' are intransitive verbs. Meanwhile, *daa* 'fill', and *gapu* 'hug' are transitive verbs. As an intransitive verb V1 needs a subject argument that acts as an Agent. In data 11(a-b), the subject argument of *ba* 'flow' is *wair ‘water’*, and *mai, wari ‘sister’*. Meanwhile, the V2 of the two SVCs are transitive verbs which require two arguments, namely the Subject argument as Agent and the Object argument as Patient. The Subject Argument of V2 is aligned with the Subject argument of V1. The Object argument of V2 in 11a is *bak benu ‘water container’* and in 11b, the Object argument is *ina ‘mother’*. In both data the manner meanings are expressed by V2. Semantically, *baa daa* has the meaning of *ba ‘flowing’* by means of *daa ‘fill’*, and *mai gapu ‘come by hugging’.

4. Sikkanese SVCs with instrument meaning

SVCs with instrument meaning are the SVCs of which one of their verbs requires the instrument used to perform the actions expressed by the other verb. In Sikkanese SVC there is one verb that is the verb *paket ‘use’* which is used as V2 to convey instrument of doing the action denoted by V1. This can be seen in the following data:

```
(11a) Wari  pesiar  paket  Bis
      younger  travel  use  Bus
     Younger sister traveled by bus

(11b) Ina  bano  Paket  Dokar
      Mother  exit  use  horse cart
     Mother went out by horse cart.
```

Data 12a-b show that the verb, *paket ‘use’*, V2, have instrument meaning with transitive verbs that are collocated with verbs occupying V1 which behave as the main verbs. V2, *paket on these SVCs behave like adverbial of instruments and the canonical structure of the adverb in the Sikkanese clause is after the verb. As an intransitive verb, V1 requires subject argument that acts as an Agent. In 12a-b, subject arguments of the verb *pesiar is wari*, and from
Sikkanese SVCs had meaning relations of motion, purpose, direction, instrument, progressive, and modal. SVCs could be classified into independent types and some could be classified as co-dependent types. Semantically, intonations, similar to the intonation in single clauses and were inseparable by pause. Morphosyntactically, SVCs in Sikkanese showed that Sikkanese SVCs had single argument of V1 is the complement clause, subject arguments of V2 is co-referenced with the Subject arguments of V1, whereas the Object argument of V2, packet is bis ‘bus (12a) and dokar data (12b). In data 12a-b the meaning of the instrument is expressed by V2. Semantically, pesiar paket has the meaning of pesiar ‘traveling’ and bano paket means bano by instrument; horse cart.

5. Sikkanese SVCs with purpose meaning

SVC with meaning relation of purpose is an SVC of which one of its verbs indicates a goal to achieve the objective of the action expressed by the other verbs. In Sikkanese there is a verb that can be used to express the meaning, ie dena ‘make’. It can be seen in the following data.

(12a. ina hena Jajan dena tea
mother make cake make sell
Mother made cake to sell.

(12b. Karti hena Mau dena ga
Name make fried banana make eat
Karti made fried banana to eat

Data 13a-b indicate that V1, hen ‘make’ is a transitive verb requiring an object argument in this case jajan ‘cake’, data 13a, and mau ‘fried banana’ for data 13b. V2, dena (with the actual meaning make) which is in non-serialized language equal to preposition to or for is specifically used to express the purpose of the action denoted by V1.

6. Sikkanese SVCs with progressive meaning

The progressive meaning can be expressed through Sikkanese SVCs with V1 of posture or motion verbs. This supports what is expressed by Aikhenvald and Dixon (2006, p. 23) that the verb of motion or posture verb can be used to express the meaning of progressive or continuous. In Sikkanese SVCs, these motion verbs usually fill V1, as seen in data 14a-b;

(13a. Rimu Era himo a’u
3Pl stand look 1Sing
“They stood looking at me’.

(13b. Pino jano boter Buku
Name walk buy Book
‘Pino walked buying a book’

Data 14a-b indicate that the V1 era ‘stand’, and jano ‘walk’ have meaning relations that the activities expressed by V2 (himo ‘look/see’, boter ‘buy’) are in progress. Both activities in V2s are still in process and have not been finished.

7. Sikkanese SVCs with modal meaning

Some verbs such as mogang ‘ask’ and ga?i ‘want or will’ can be the V1 in Sikkanese SVCs and form a meaningful relationship of modalities to the activities expressed by V2. The data in 15a. and 15b illustrate this;

(14a. Rimu mogang hantar hama-hama
3Pl will Sing
‘He would sing together’.

(14b. Riko ga?i tata raita Oring
Name want know house 1Sing
‘Riko wanted to know my house’.

In data 15a., V1 mogang ‘will?’ and V2 hantar hama-hama ‘sing ’ are both active-intransitive form so that their subject arguments functioning as Agents are co-referenced. Meanwhile, in data 15b, V1 ga?i ‘want’ and V2 tata ‘know’ are in the active-transitive forms. They both have two arguments, namely Subject arguments and Object arguments. The subject arguments of V2 is co-referenced with the Subject arguments of V1 that is Rico, meanwhile the Object argument of V1 is the complement clause, tata raita Oring ‘know my house’ and the Object argument of V2 is raita oring ‘rumah saya’.

V. CONCLUSION

Based on the analysis on the phonological, morphosyntactic, and semantic features of the Sikkanese SVCs it could be concluded that: The phonological characteristics of Sikkanese SVCs showed that Sikkanese SVCs had single intonations, similar to the intonation in single clauses and were inseparable by pause. Morphosyntactically, SVCs in Sikkanese could be classified into independent types and some could be classified as co-dependent types. Semantically, Sikkanese SVCs had meaning relations of motion, purpose, direction, instrument, progressive, and modal.

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Teachers’ Roles in China’s EFL Classes
Adopting the PAD Mode

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Abstract—This paper reviews the shift of teacher role in light of the development and innovation of EFL instruction in China and analyses the EFL teachers’ roles in classes adopting the PAD (Presentation-Assimilation-Discussion) mode. It points out EFL teachers play a wide range of roles in PAD classes to meet students’ needs and contribute to their language learning.

Index Terms—teachers’ roles, PAD mode, EFL classes

I. INTRODUCTION

Teaching mode has been a focus of innovation in China’s English as a Foreign Language (EFL) instruction with much attention being given to teachers’ roles played in classrooms. Teachers’ roles in China have undergone great changes in the past several decades, especially those of the EFL teachers which have become very controversial with different teaching strategies and approaches introduced successively to English classes. In this paper, EFL teachers’ roles will be reviewed in light of the development and innovation of English instruction in China and new perspectives of teacher role in EFL classes using the PAD mode will be demonstrated.

II. BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

Teachers perform an undeniable and pivotal role in every educational system. Teachers’ roles in China are highly valued both by the administration and the public throughout the history. The shift of teachers’ roles in classrooms reflects not only the government’s administrative decision, but also the public’s expectation for students’ achievement as well as the teaching professionals’ understanding about teaching in different eras.

A. A Review of Teacher Role in China

The conventional notion of a teacher in Chinese history is that a teacher is a knowledge transmitter, as is concisely summarized in the very famous Chinese saying “A teacher is one who transmits truth, imparts knowledge, and resolves puzzles”. Even after the founding of the People’s Republic of China (PRC), teachers were still considered to be the authority of knowledge and wisdom as can be seen in all kinds of terms used to describe teachers, such as “the engineer of human souls”, “a bucket of water”, “a candle”, “a human ladder” etc (Cheng, 2014, p.803). This idea had significant influence on China’s education in many aspects such as curriculum design, teaching paradigm, textbook selection, teacher-student relationship and so on.

After the implementation of China’s reform and opening-up policy in 1978, how to enhance students’ creativity and innovation to meet the development of the society becomes the focus of attention and it has been brought into people’s awareness that teachers’ role as a sole knowledge transmitter is no longer appropriate and enough to help students become individuals with more critical and creative thinking. In such social contexts, teachers are expected to take on multiple roles to facilitate students’ learning and to help them become more adaptable to the fast changing world.

Various terms thus are proposed to describe the new roles of teachers, such as the designer, the planner, the guide, the manager, the assessor, the mediator, the researcher, the tutor, the participant and so on.

B. Teachers’ Roles in China’s EFL Classes

Since the implementation of the reform and opening-up policy, China’s EFL teaching has been more valued than ever before because English is regarded as a necessary tool to facilitate one’s access to modern scientific and technological advances and as a vehicle to promote commerce and understanding between the PRC and countries where English is a major language (Cowan, Light, Mathews, & Tucker, 1979, cited in Cheng, 2014, p.803). English has become a compulsory subject from primary schools to colleges and universities in China and China’s EFL teaching has gained unprecedented attention as it boasts to have the largest population of EFL learners in the world.

Influenced by the traditional idea of teacher as a knowledge transmitter, EFL teachers in China were originally supposed to be at the center of instruction in classrooms. Usually they spent “most of the class time explaining English vocabulary, syntax, and grammatical features in their native tongue (i.e., Mandarin), while students repeated and memorized them with the help of textbooks” (Hong & Pawan, 2015, p.31).Grammar-translation and audio-lingual methods were the dominant teaching methods in China’s EFL classes.
But the shortcomings of such methods were soon realized by Chinese EFL teachers and researchers. After opening up to the world, China was in urgent need for large number of people with high English proficiency to fulfill diversified purposes in political, economic and cultural arenas when communicating with English-speaking countries. However, it turned out that most college students, after at least 8 years of English learning, were still unable to communicate with native speakers of English. These students who had been spoon-fed English knowledge by teachers standing and talking on the teaching platform lacked the ability of communicating in English in real life settings. Therefore, how to enhance students’ communicative competence became the focus of the debate regarding EFL teaching. As a response to the discontent with the traditional grammar-translation and audio-lingual methods, Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) approach was introduced to China’s EFL teaching practice. In the early 1990s, following the introduction of the new English Teaching Syllabus by the State Education Development Commission of China, which states that the aim of teaching English is to develop the students’ communicative competence, great effort was made in applying CLT to English teaching in China. By the mid-1990s, CLT had become a general approach in teaching and learning of English in China. Meanwhile, EFL teachers’ role as a knowledge transmitter was greatly challenged and has been changed since then towards more diversified ones.

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) approach was originated from dissatisfaction with the traditional grammar-translation and audio-lingual methods in foreign language teaching and learning. With learner-centeredness and flexible teacher role as its striking features, CLT aims to foster students’ competence in social interactions identified as communicative competence. EFL teachers adopting the CLT approach in classes are expected to develop adequate activities and opportunities for students to use English for authentic communication purposes. Therefore, “rather than being a model for correct speech and writing and one with the primary responsibility of making sure students produced plenty of error-free sentences”, EFL teachers are expected to assume different roles, such as organizer, guide, participant, researcher, needs analyst, counselor and group process manager and so on to facilitate students’ English learning (Richards & Rodgers, 2014, p.98-99).

However, though the CLT ideology and practice have been highly influential in language teaching in many countries of the world, the application of CLT in China is not as desirable as it was expected. EFL teachers in China are confronted with monumental difficulties in applying it because of the political, social, educational, cultural, and linguistic realities.

As Richards & Lockhart (1994) points out, “Teaching is an activity which is embedded within a set of culturally bound assumptions about teachers, teaching, and learners. These assumptions reflect what the teacher’s responsibility is believed to be, how learning is understood, and how students are expected to interact in the classroom” (p.107). In China’s teaching context, most students have formed the habit since a very young age of listening to teachers’ presentation attentively and taking notes in class as a good way of learning. The lecture method is greatly valued by schools, parents and students themselves. It is convenient and lets teachers most effectively convey the important information according to the lesson plan. As students in China are assessed mainly by the scores they get in taking standard public examinations, for example the National Higher Education Entrance Examination (commonly known as Gaokao), in EFL classrooms they rely heavily on teachers for explanation of fundamental grammatical rules and syntactic, semantic knowledge to help them get high scores in exams. Therefore, without the former teacher-dominated presentation of knowledge in the classroom, students often feel at a loss as to what and how to learn. Another most often cited phenomenon in China’s EFL teaching is the large number of students in one class. Faced with usually about fifty or more students in one class, EFL teachers have difficulty in organizing proper activities and encouraging all students’ full participation in class activities. At the same time, due to the lack of tier instruction system in China, students in the same class usually vary dramatically in their English proficiency. In student-centered and activity-based EFL classes, in most cases the top students dominate the discussion and benefit from the process while those students with limited English proficiency are often marginalized and disadvantaged. Besides, “the teachers’ lack of language proficiency and culture knowledge, no familiarity with the new method, and the negative influence of Chinese educational traditions on teachers” (Liao, 2000, p.5) all pose difficulties that limit the application of CLT.

Obviously, in China’s EFL teaching contexts, the CLT approach itself cannot come into full play and accordingly teachers’ roles as described in CLT, though favorably expected, do not adequately fulfill their functions to contribute to students’ language learning and development. Therefore, how to bring CLT into full play and let teachers play adequate roles in the process of enhancing students’ English learning remains a big issue in China’s EFL teaching.

The following discussion will demonstrate a new teaching mode adopted in many EFL classes of China today, in which teachers’ roles are redefined and the CLT approach is incorporated with the traditional lecture method so as to better facilitate students’ learning of English.

III. TEACHER’S ROLES IN EFL CLASSES ADOPTING THE PAD MODE

A. The PAD Mode

The PAD mode is a brand-new teaching mode which was proposed and adopted in classroom teaching in 2014 by Zhang Xuexin from Fudan University in China (Zhang, 2014). The abbreviation PAD stands for Presentation, Assimilation and Discussion, respectively referring to three fundamental steps involved in the classroom teaching
guided by this mode. According to this mode, the time for a class session is divided into two parts, with one part of class time allocated for teachers’ Presentation of new knowledge and the other part of class time used for students’ Discussion of the topics from the previous class session. The time outside the classroom between two class sessions is expected to be used by students to assimilate what they’ve learned in the previous session, which is described as the step of Assimilation. According to Zhang (2014), “different students absorb and assimilate knowledge at different speed and in different ways” (p.9). They need to complete the process of assimilation at their own pace. The time after class is therefore provided for students to conduct the assimilation by themselves. In actual teaching practice, teachers may or may not allow students assimilation time between the presentation and the discussion steps. If what teachers present to students is relatively simple knowledge, students are arranged to carry out the discussion of the relevant topics in the same class session, immediately after the teachers’ presentation. Whereas, if what teachers present is difficult or challenging to students, discussion is arranged for the next class session, allowing sufficient time in between for students to reflect and assimilate after class. And in the next class session, the first thing to do is to organize all the students to get involved in discussion in pairs or groups. After that, teachers continue to present new knowledge designed for the session which is under way. And so on and so forth.

Since making its debut in 2014, over the past three years, the PAD mode has been gaining huge popularity in China’s middle schools and colleges. Thousands of teachers of different subjects have adopted this mode in their own classroom teaching. Research has indicated that students show more initiative, creativity, and hence more progress in their learning in classes adopting the PAD mode (Zhang, 2014; He, Zhou & Shi, 2017; Liu, 2016; Zhang, 2016).

B. EFL Teacher’s Roles in Classes Using the PAD Mode

The PAD mode is a combination of the traditional lecture method and the modern communicative method. The PAD mode used in the EFL classes combines the strengths of the traditional lecture method and the CLT approach. While retaining the lecture method as a key step in EFL classroom teaching, namely presentation, the PAD mode incorporates discussion step into the teaching process to provide students with enough opportunity to communicate with their peers and teachers. Meanwhile, the assimilation of knowledge by the individual student is given much emphasis and learner difference is fully taken into consideration so that all the students may learn and progress at their own pace.

Teaching is an activity that is composed of various instruction and learning activities. The teaching process consists of different steps. Teachers and students assume different roles in different activities of different steps. As is illuminated by Richards & Lockhart (1994), “The role of a teacher in the context of classroom teaching and learning may… be influenced by the approach or methodology the teacher is following” (p.101). In any teaching mode or approach, there exist implicitly particular assumptions about the role of the teacher and about how students should learn. In the PAD mode, students are treated not as passive receivers of knowledge, but as active learners who achieve language development through various scaffolded learning activities both inside and outside the classroom. Teachers assume a wide range of roles to contribute to students’ language learning. EFL teachers’ roles in PAD classes are discussed in the following sections.

1. A Designer

First of all, the EFL teachers adopting the PAD mode in their teaching are a designer who lays out the framework for all the learning activities and teaching materials. In addition to the general lesson plan for the English course to be dealt with, teachers also need to design carefully for each class session, making a decision about what language aspects should be presented to students, what language tasks should be given to students to help them with their assimilation after class, what kind of issues should be addressed in the discussion activities and so on. Thus, teachers give students a framework from which they can build and direct their own learning. In this designing process is involved teachers’ careful analysis of both the teaching materials and students’ needs, which is a key step to ensure that everything designed for each teaching step contributes to students’ learning of English.

2. A Knowledge Transmitter

As has been mentioned above, in China’s teaching context, teachers’ presentation of knowledge in the classroom is still hugely valued. Usually teachers are regarded as an expert who knows the what, hows and why's. When it comes to EFL learning, students rely heavily on teachers for knowledge about English grammar, syntax, vocabulary and so on. In primary schools and middle schools, even the pronunciation of new words needs to be demonstrated by teachers first with students reading after them in chorus. To accommodate the classroom teaching in China, the PAD mode reestablishes teachers’ role as a knowledge transmitter among many other roles to facilitate students’ learning. Acting the role of a knowledge transmitter, teachers perceive their students as individuals needing assistance in learning and conduct the instruction in an explicit way to ensure that students are provided with the knowledge they need for further learning. In the EFL classes adopting the PAD mode, teachers’ role as a knowledge transmitter is called into full play. At the presentation step of a session, teachers highlight the important and difficult points designed for this session and present them in a clear and logical way to help students understand. These points may include tenses, syntax, semantics or functional phrases etc. At this step, students are expected to listen attentively and try their best to grasp the important information. This step is deemed necessary for students to get a basic understanding about certain language points so that they can do the follow-up assimilation and discussion much more easily.

3. A Facilitator
‘Teachers’ presentation is valuable in promoting students’ effective learning, but at the same time, students must take responsibility for their learning through active exploration. Teachers should have the faith that students have the capability of managing their own learning. Teaching is a process of developing and enhancing students’ ability to learn. Teachers must facilitate students’ learning through various means. In the EFL classes using the PAD mode, after the presentation step, the teacher-dominated teaching disappears and learning occurs through students’ autonomous assimilation after class and cooperative group work or pair work activities of discussion in the next session. Teachers act as a facilitator most of the time. First of all, after the presentation of new knowledge teachers need to give students’ proper tasks, which are carefully designed to facilitate students’ assimilation of the language points after class and at the same time closely related to discussion activities in the next class session. Students are expected to assimilate at their own pace what has been taught in the previous session and finish the tasks after class to get ready for the discussion activities in the next session. The tasks assigned by teachers may, depending on the lesson subjects and learners’ language proficiency, range from simple ones such as memorizing new words and phrases, making sentences with the expressions they learned, and rewriting a story etc. to more challenging ones such as summarizing main points of an article, listing pros and cons for a decision and arguing about a social issue etc. Students are encouraged to use various resources to better understand what has been taught in the previous lesson. Teachers may also suggest some learning resources to facilitate their learning. Another function of teachers as a facilitator is to keep the communication going between all members of the class when they perform various activities of discussion. At the discussion step, teachers explain how the discussion activity will be carried out and once the activity is under way, teachers retreat to let students explore the issues concerned by negotiating with each other either in small groups or in pairs. Once students start their communication, teachers are expected to walk around to check on individual groups to see if they are communicating effectively and give help where needed.

4. Other Roles

Apart from the three roles discussed above, teachers in EFL classes using the PAD mode play many other roles, such as an analyst, a participant, a guide, a problem-solver, a motivator and so on. Teachers are an analyst throughout the teaching process. To design for each class session, they analyze not only the teaching materials and students’ English level, but also the classroom atmosphere and students’ needs. At the discussion step, in addition to supervising the activity, teachers also occasionally take the role of a participant within different learning groups. As part of a group, teachers listen to other group members’ ideas and share opinions with them. Teachers may also act as a guide sometimes when students have difficulty in carrying out their discussion by giving them some hints or suggestions. When students come across language problems or other problems in their discussion, teachers act as a problem solver. Meanwhile, teachers also act as a motivator when some students are too shy or reluctant to engage themselves in discussion by giving them encouragement.

All the roles discussed above may overlap. In an efficient EFL classroom adopting the PAD mode, teachers’ roles shift flexibly from time to time to meet students’ needs and support their learning.

IV. CHALLENGES FOR EFL TEACHERS

Teachers are the practitioner of teaching innovation. Any change in teaching will pose challenge to teachers. The PAD mode is an innovative strategy to address the classroom teaching in China’s context. In the EFL classes adopting this mode, teachers are faced with great challenges.

First of all, they need to take a comprehensive perspective when it comes to teachers’ roles in the teaching and learning process. Traditionally, teachers-as-knowledge-transmitters and teachers-as-facilitators present sharply contrasting perspectives of teacher role, which also indicate distinct hypotheses of how to meet students’ needs. The PAD mode combines these two options. Instead of viewing the two options as opposing camps, the PAD mode treats them as complementary opportunities for teachers to enhance students’ language learning. As a result, students can benefit both from teachers’ explicit presentation and from their own exploratory, teacher-facilitated activities of assimilation and discussion. So teachers should be fully aware of the necessity of role shift when it comes to different teaching steps to meet students’ needs.

Secondly, in the EFL classes using the PAD mode, teachers need to be equipped with time-efficient and engaging lecture skills at the presentation step as a knowledge transmitter. As time in class is limited, in the EFL classes using the PAD mode in particular, in which teachers have smaller amount of time for presentation compared with that in the traditional lecture class, teachers must have the capability to use limited time effectively. They’re expected to be both effective and entertaining in passing on to their students relevant knowledge.

Thirdly, as a designer responsible for the whole session framework, teachers in the EFL classes using the PAD mode need to attend to every detail involved in their teaching as well as students’ learning. They need to make decisions about which content to include at the presentation step, how to highlight the important and difficult points, and what kinds of activities and assignments are appropriate etc. Besides, tactful organizing strategies are also required of teachers for them to better facilitate students’ learning at the discussion step. Attending to these details is time and effort consuming and therefore poses great challenge to teachers.

V. CONCLUSION
Promoting Chinese students’ EFL learning is a complex matter. Many factors contribute to students’ success or failure in the language learning, among which teacher role is a crucial one. What roles EFL teachers should play in supporting their students inside and outside the classrooms and what strategies should be used to promote students’ learning are important issues deserving particular attention. The PAD mode takes a comprehensive perspective of teacher role and views teachers as someone who can actively contribute to students’ learning in various ways. In the EFL classes adopting the PAD mode, teachers assume different roles at different steps to meet students’ needs and various strategies are utilized to promote students’ learning of English. It is of great significance not only in better helping students develop their English proficiency but also in promoting students’ general development as social beings as they learn how to take responsibility for their own study at the assimilation step and how to cooperate with others at the discussion step.

Of course, many issues still remain to be explored about how to use the PAD mode more effectively and flexibly to serve the purpose of enhancing students’ language learning in China’s EFL classes. Especially with the development of information technology and its application to the EFL teaching, teachers are challenged to take on even more roles such as online resource provider or curriculum developer to facilitate students’ language learning. In general, regardless of the roles EFL teachers assume, they need to keep in mind all the time the best interest of students and continue to seek for better ways to promote students’ learning. The variety of roles of EFL teachers in the classes adopting the PAD mode ensures that teachers can find ways to enhance students’ language learning and help them develop as social beings.

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The Anomie and Norm of Network Language Communication

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Abstract—Network language has enriched and promoted language development on the one hand. On the other hand, the randomness of network language has made itself have a lot of irregularities and imperfections. Due to the context of network communication and the characteristics of main users, there exists the anomie from the aspects of language rules and content in network language, such as grammar, vocabulary and pragmatics, which causes the communication barriers in different communicative communities and the negative impact on the young Internet users and the development of modern Chinese. Therefore, it is an urgent problem to strengthen the research on the anomie of the network language and put forward the countermeasures to normalize the network language.

Index Terms—network language, communication, anomie, norm

The network language is a kind of language phenomenon, which is widely used with the development of network and high technology and refers to the language relating to the network and on-line communication, including network terminology, chat language and words relating to network etc. The concept of “anomie” is first proposed by Durkheim, a French sociologist, and it literally means “the lack of norm”, mainly referring to a disordered social condition that lacks regulation and institutionalization to personal desires and behaviors. Merton, a sociologist in the US, regards “anomie” as a “the absence of norm”, that is, people do not have extensive recognition of the existing social norms, so that social norms lose the authority and effectiveness of controlling people’s actions (Xiong, 2008). This paper holds that “anomie” refers to the psychological disorder of social members caused by the weakening and destruction of traditional values and social norms in the process of modernization. Anomie not only refers to individual behavior, it also involves group behavior. As a special kind of social dialects, network language appears to meet the needs of network communication, which has brought great impact on the traditional language. The positive internet language will be retained and enrich the modern Chinese, while it is an intellectually worthwhile goal for us to alert and reflect the undesirable network language.

I. THE ORIGIN OF NETWORK LANGUAGE ANOMIE

The language modal is the product of the environment, so the network environment determines what the network language is. The characteristics of network are dummy, timely and so on, which are different from the traditional media’. Due to the various functions the network language used to perform and conditions when it generated, the expression and effect of network language are also diverse, just like the difference between written language and oral language in real life. As a social dialect, network language is not isolated and has an interactive relationship with society, whose emergence has a profound social foundation (An, 2010). On the one hand, the generation of network technology and the widespread use of Internet provide the material space for generating network language. On the other hand, the sharp increase of netizen constitutes the basis of population who use network language. Under the news censorship system of traditional media, it is difficult for public to obtain space to express freely, while on the Internet where regulation is not easy to execute, netizens have gained unprecedented freedom of expression. In the network world, the lack of language regulation and fuzzy right-wrong standard break linguistic rules, and some users even ignore the tradition of language specification, therefore, the soil of the network language anomie is formed (Huang, 2008).

II. THE REPRESENTATION OF NETWORK LANGUAGE ANOMIE

Although the network language is not dissociated from the Chinese language system, it can’t fundamentally violate the basic rules and principles of voice, vocabulary and grammar, and it is quite different from the general language. The network language is vivid, free, kind and humorous, especially close to life, at the same time, is of varying quality. The network language is to the public from small. Internet users transform some Chinese and English vocabularies and link and inlay words, images, symbols freely, creating new words mixed with numbers, English and Chinese letters, which are totally inconsistent with the Chinese standard expression of the network language. Even some netizens spread vulgar, dirty and violent language on the Internet so that the problem of anomie can’t ignore any more. On the one hand, the network language has enriched the national language. On the other hand, the network language anomie has brought certain impact on national language and modern Chinese
standardization which not only destroys the purity and health of Chinese, but also has a negative impact on the development of young people (Wang & Zhang, 2009).

A. The Anomie of Phonetic Application

New and original phonetic pattern of manifestation is a common network communicative method to attract the attention of the netizens to express certain special wishes and emotions. One is the abuse of the homonym, for example, “886” refers to “拜拜了”; “3344” refers to “生生世世”. The two is the abbreviation, such as “GG” represents “哥哥”; “FB” means “腐败”; “BB (Bye Bye)” represents “再见”; “FT (Faint)” means “晕倒”. The three is the monosyllable instead of disyllable. Generally speaking, the one Chinese character has one syllable. There are some phenomena of replacing two syllables with one syllable for the convenience of typing, for example, “衣” represents “不要”, “香” represents “这样” and so on. The reconstruction of the strange vocabularies increases the misunderstanding of network information so that the ordinary people don’t know what is said. If not regulated and guided effectively, it’s easy to do harm to Chinese and cause some reading difficulties.

B. The Anomie of Lexical Application

The first one is the bilingual overlap, such as “漂漂” means “漂亮” and “东东” refers to the “东西”. Obviously, these examples are beyond the modern Chinese. The second is the combination of Chinese and English, such as “等待ing” represents “在等待之中”, “有事call我” means “有事找我” and so on. The next is the distortion of the vocabulary, for example “傅” instead of “我”, “灌水” instead of “随意写”. Four is the use of misspellings, such as “师付(傅)”, “风度翩翩(翩翩)”, 阿巴(吧) etc.. The misuse of words not only directly leads to people’s misunderstanding who are not familiar with the network language, but also increases the difficulties of communication on the Internet.

C. The Anomie of Grammatical Rules

The anomie of grammatical rules is an important representation of the anomie of network language. Netizens have greater randomness in using network language, and grammatical rules are often not followed. Grammatical deviation is prominent, such as “我百度一下”, “别忘了伊妹儿我”, “他很阳光”, “有急事, 走先” etc. These strange statements go everywhere in the network language, which violates the normal Chinese word formation and grammatical rules and undermines the integrity and purity of the Chinese.

D. The Anomie of Language Content

The use of language embodies the moral consciousness, moral standards and moral values of the individual or society. The secrecy of netizens in the virtual world leads to the improper language in some official occasions, so that we can get the catharsis of personality. In the absence of supervision and unified standard, users are free to create network language according to their preferences. Therefore, some poor taste, moral decay, vulgar expressions diffuse in the network world, resulting in the anomie of network language and the strong shock towards linguistic norms in society. Some expressions and implied content on the Internet even contain the anti-marxism doctrine which brings great negative influence on socialist morality and the network language environment, affects the healthy development of network culture, and ultimately hurts the interests of the majority of netizens.

E. Language Teaching Is Impacted

Language is associated with a nation’s way of thinking, emotion, and sub-consciousness. The network language anomie has quietly influenced and even permeated into teenagers’ thinking that pursue something new and original, so that cyber language has become a kind of word game to show off their “literary grace” and “personality”. The language anomie phenomena such as intentional typos and perverted meanings have negative affect not only on the use of Chinese for students, but also on language teaching. A large number of network languages are integrated into students’ diary, composition and even daily communication and become a new fashion that we all strive for.

III. THE CAUSE OF NETWORK LANGUAGE ANOMIE

A. The Contextual Characteristics of Network Communication Are the Objective Conditions of the Network Language Anomie

The Internet and its derived communicative approach are changing the modern life and culture. Differing from the face to face chat in reality and written communicative context, the contextual characteristics of network communication provide the soil and new materials for network language, and also are the objective conditions to language variation.

First, the convenience of the network communication is the catalyst for the anomie of network language. In the information age, in order to express ideas quickly, Internet users choose words as the first choice which can be knocked out in the fast and easy way, at the same time, the meanings of these wrong words can be understood. Therefore, this kind of word soon is recognized by Internet users.
Second, the virtuality of the network provides a fertile ground for the network language anomie. The biggest difference between virtual communication on the Internet and reality communication lies in anonymity that communicative subjects’ relationship shows. Network hides people’s real identity, so they become “no mark” subjects of network and aren’t controlled by the social role and responsibility. To a large extent, Internet has become a place where people can advocate self and create something new and original without traditional barriers. It is easy to induce and expose all kinds of ugly and evil factors in the depths of human nature. This kind of context with great free and low constraint provides a carrier for the free play of the network language (David, 1999). Internet users have been feeling of liberation and impulse, and language norms of real communications are broken from time to time so that a variety of unconventional or unorthodox languages become the normality on the Internet (Chang, 2000).

Third, the openness of network communication provides a propagation platform for network language anomie. The Internet is an open electronic space, which realizes the information communication without considering time and space, and users can freely gallop and interact with anyone in the network. Everyone can use the Internet at anytime and anywhere to communicate freely and obtain information and transmit it on an equal basis. The wide use of network language, as a communication tool on the Internet, provides a communication platform for the phenomenon of its anomie.

B. The Main Source of Network Language Anomie Is The Characteristic of the Main Body of Net Users

In the context of information society, people have some alienation representations. “The material level is represented by technology alienation and symbol alienation; the mental level is manifested as rational alienation and spiritual alienation; the institutional level includes communicative alienation and normative alienation” (Peng & Li, 2011, p.25). [7] According to the thirtieth Internet Statistics report released by China Internet Information Center in July 2012, the 56.8% of Internet users in China are beyond 29 and younger is the mainstream group of netizens. The psychological characteristic and emotional state of young netizens are consistent in a certain degree, and the use of Internet language is full of vigour and rebellious consciousness. The Internet users choose the network as the place to exchange and express emotion and to enjoy the “ideological emancipation” and the freedom of speech brought by the network. At the same time they are vulnerable to the curiosity and sense of achievement owing to destruction, deliberately alienating from the connotation and preciseness of traditional culture, and love to create the so-called fresh words and spread each other in the network communication, otherwise they will be regarded as obsolete and outdated people. The phenomenon of network language anomie is a kind of expression and refraction of young netizens’ outlook on life and rebellion (Li, 2007). “Self-consciousness” promotes young netizens to create, promote and use non-standard language, which is the main cause of network language anomie.

C. The Misunderstanding of the Language Communication Responsibility Is the Propellant of the Network Language Anomie

“Language is the most important communication tool for human beings”, this is the consensus of all sociologists and linguists. If the language can’t be used accurately, the information can’t be transferred correctly among people, and the normal communication will be affected. The state has formulated a series of laws and regulations, such as the Constitution of the People’s Republic of China and the National Language and Character Law of the People's Republic of China, to standardize the Chinese characters and language transmission. However, most teenager netizens only recognize the value of language from the “communication tool”, and think that the standardization of language is a matter of language experts. They use our native language casually in online communication activities. All kinds of non-standard network languages have a negative impact on the knowledge storage and the correct use of language for the Internet users, especially teenagers. Therefore, regulating language communication is the common responsibility of the whole society (Guo & Hao, 2006).

IV. The Significance of the Network Language Specification

A. The Nature and Location of the Network Language

The nature and location problem of the network language cause great controversy in the society and academic circles. There are many people who hold positive attitudes, while criticism and skeptics also have, even some announce that the network language destroys the traditional Chinese that with the history of thousands years, and it is the cultural garbage and spiritual pollution which must be resolutely banned. Since the social and academic circles have so different opinions about this phenomenon, what kind of scientific attitude should we hold to treat cyber language?

We think that the network language is a language variant of the general language or the universal language in the network environment, which belongs to the social dialects. Network language does not have its own independent phonetic system, grammar system and basic vocabulary, and it uses all of them in general language or national language and some special words which belong to the category of the general vocabulary. Since the essence of network language is a social dialect, it only has its own distinctive personality and characteristics in vocabulary, and it is just a kind of general vocabulary in the universal language vocabulary system and does not belong to the basic
vocabulary, therefore, we should maintain a natural attitude towards the development of the network language rather than blaming or even killing, because it is conducive not only to develop the Internet communication, but also to enrich national language vocabulary and promote the development of the national language. However, due to the rapid development of Internet, the number of netizen and the influence of network language are increasing. We must pay attention to the standardization of network language and make it develop in a right, healthy and standardized way.

In a word, our scientific attitude to the network language is to notice the guidance and strengthen the norms. Although the network language has been greatly developed, the standard work has not been done enough today, so the priority is to strengthen the specification of the network language.

B. The Significance of the Network Language Specification

The network language is also a part of the Chinese language, and it is also obliged to follow the development of Chinese traditional language. Kant thinks that [10] all languages are the marks of thought, on the contrary, the most effective way of ideological marking is to use the extensive tool-language to understand ourselves and others. Chinese language and character are the carrier and symbol of Chinese culture. It is the obligation for every Chinese citizen to inherit and carry forward the Chinese traditional culture, and to strive to maintain the uniqueness of Chinese traditional characters, making the Chinese is always the unique culture of our nation rather than a combination of countless civilization. To maintain the standardization of Chinese characters is also to maintain the dignity of China. Now, the international status of Chinese characters has been rising, and the Confucius colleges are established to adapt the international trend of learning Chinese. Foreigners begin to learn Chinese in warm today, and we, as the member of the Yellow Emperor, should set an example and use the language normatively, so that foreign netizens who surf the Chinese website can see the healthy, positive, civilized and upward content. The standardized use of Chinese language can reflect the dignity of the country and the confidence of the nation. The generalization of network language impacts the development and progress of the Chinese language, and it is also invading the campus, especially the primary and middle school students whose outlook of the world, the life and the values are forming. They do not yet grasp the language ability perfectly, and are in a critical period of language acquisition. Therefore, if they can’t often come into contact with the standard language even the uncivilized language input, which will affect their language output in the future.

V. MEASURES FOR THE NETWORK LANGUAGE SPECIFICATION

The specification of network language is to standardize the Internet terms that are illegal, unethical, and strange. Chen Yuan mentions in his sociolinguistics methodology: “variation and norm are the unity of contradiction. There is no norm without variation, and no variation can be seen without norms. Changes and norms are dialectically unified” (Kant, 2005). The writer agrees with the view that language variation can promote the development of language. In the process of language development, we cannot change without restriction. We need to guide correctly. The norm mentioned in the article is not a kind of negative change, but a specification to unreasonable part of variation in order to minimize the negative influence of network language. Therefore, norms are not mandatory, but more focus on guidance. Network language has surpassed the original use scope, which spreads from the network to our daily life, study, and work. The specification of network language can’t be limited to the Internet, and it should be the common responsibility of every person who uses the network and cares about the development of the network. The author puts forward the following suggestions, and hopes to provide some valuable references for the usage and scientific research of the network language.

A. Dialectical Treatment Is an Effective Prerequisite for the Standardization of the Network Language

On the one hand, the network language is vivid and lively, and it is the important motive force or way to enrich and develop the language. On the other hand, network language is a new thing, and has many irregularities and imperfections, some of which have affected the standardization and purity of modern Chinese and are not conducive to the construction of network civilization. Therefore, the network language must be treated dialectically and be guided in the right way, so that it can play its strengths in a specific range for the development of network communication.

First, we should guide the standardization of the network language with a tolerant attitude. Marxism believes that the language system is open and not static. It is always on the process of constant renewal and development and constantly enriches with the development of economy and society. Therefore, we should strengthen the standard guidance of network language, stop uncivilized language, actively advocate the use of network language in line with Chinese word-formation and grammatical norms, and develop the correct habit of language using.

Second, we should set up a correct concept of network language standard. “The norm is to promote development, and limiting the development is not a real norm.” (Yu, 2001, p.27) The human language has always been in the unity of opposites between norms and anomie. Chen Yuan, a linguist, said: “it is not appropriate to absorb or reject all variations of the language. The correct way is to distinguish; positive changes that are conducive to language development should be absorbed, and negative changes that are not favorable should be abandoned. Only in this
way can the language develop along a healthy road” (1994, p.115). Although we can’t stop the development of network language, the phenomenon of anomie shouldn’t be let slide.

B. Marxism’s View of Language Is the Effective Principle of the Standardization of the Network Language

Marxism’s view of language is an organic part and one of the most important contents of Marxism’s philosophy. Marxism thinks that language is the carrier of thought and a reflection tool for objective reality. In Marx’s view: language is only the expression of real life; real life is the foundation and boundary of language; the language is interpreted by life.

The standardization of the network language must adhere to the principle of Marxism’s view of language. Marx thinks: “language is the direct reality of thought, and society is dependent on language. Social production and public life without language participation are unthinkable”. Lenin points out that “language is the most important human communication tool”. Language comes into being, developing and dying along with the needs, development and extinction of social communication. The language can embody the user’s ideological quality and moral sentiment.

Network language is a relatively stable social and cultural group and its essence is a social variation in modern Chinese and the result of language change caused by social and cultural changes. The current network language anomie must be guided and standardized by Marxism’s view of language.

C. Concise Expression and Healthy Content Are the Effective Requirements for the Standardization of the Network Language

Language is a communication tool, and the concise expression and healthy content are the basic requirements for the effective communication between the two parties. Network language is also a kind of language activity, and it can be widely spread on the Internet and real life, which shows that it has strong vitality. If the content of the network language can’t be understood, it will greatly affect the communication and lose the original meaning of the language. Therefore, the network language must be able to clearly reflect the ideological content and express the true feelings of the communicators. Healthy content is an important part of the network language specification. When using network language, its content should be positive and consistent with the socialist core value system and social mainstream values, helping to improve the overall moral level of the society. Some unhealthy, low and coarse network languages will bring great negative impact on the network language environment. Hence, standardizing network language should advocate language civilization, purify the network language environment, improve the quality and appreciation ability of network language, and form the correct value orientation.

D. The Promotion of Media Literacy Is an Effective Means for the Standardization of the Network Language

Media literacy refers to people’s understanding, utilization and participation in the mass media. It includes the ability to acquire, discriminate, select, use and distribute media information, the familiarity of media, the cognitive level of information dissemination characteristics, and the ability to evaluate the media environment. In the information society, the audience’s ability to deal with information has become one of the most basic abilities of people in the modern society. Network is a new medium. It is the effective means to clean up the network environment and standardize the network language by strengthening media literacy education and improving the media literacy of all Internet users.

First, we should strengthen the moral education of the network language. Network language specification is not only a problem of language use, but also depends on the improvement of netizens’ media literacy and the enhancement of the whole society’s spiritual civilization and moral level. We should strengthen the education of the national language and moral accomplishment and make it play a role in the network society in order to build a network language and moral education system based on the excellent language culture and guide users to consciously practice moral behavior on the Internet.

Second, we should strengthen the publicity of the standard network language. In order to mobilize the enthusiasm of many parties and strengthen the propaganda of the construction of the network language civilization, this concept will be deeply rooted in the hearts of the people. We should propagate the network etiquette, advocate the language civilization, form the public opinion environment that resists the vulgar style of the Internet fundamentally, and purify the network language.

Third, we should create a civilized network language environment. Society is the external soil of the network language, and a positive network environment needs a healthy and harmonious society as the support. Therefore, actively creating a good social atmosphere and enhancing the Internet users’ awareness of Internet morality are beneficial to build Internet civilization and form a civilized network language environment.

E. The Formulation of Policies and Regulations Is an Effective Guarantee for the Standardization of the Network Language

First, we should strengthen the specification awareness of network language. Network language anomie is not only a problem of language, but also reflects a kind of cynical way of life that has a negative impact on people’s mood, thinking and habits. Therefore, Internet users’ specification awareness of network language must be
strengthened and the legal concept should be set up to standardize, manage, flourish and develop the network language.

Second, the rules and regulations of the network language should be formulated. It is high time to formulate relevant laws and regulations and limit network language anomie. It is also necessary to limit the network language use, and network vocabulary must meet the modern Chinese vocabulary and grammar regulations, especially in official documents, textbooks and news reports. The unauthorized development of network language will have a negative impact on Chinese, and it will hinder the promotion of Chinese in the world. Formulating Internet language can maintain the health and purity of Chinese.

Third, we should strengthen the information management on the Internet. Network media should take the lead in the use of standard modern Chinese, actively disseminate the concept of using correct network language, and provide a medium platform for improving the network language literacy of the whole nation. The regulatory authorities should control all kinds of bad language online from the source, eradicate their survival soil, and create a good cyberspace and clean communicative platform for netizens.

VI. CONCLUSION

Network language has sprawled and spread rapidly to all places outside the network, which is the trend of language development. In the face of this trend, what we need to do isn’t force to stop, but to reasonably regulate and guide. It is not easy to standardize the network language, so it needs the common efforts of the Chinese people who are concerned about the development of the network and language.

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Xin Zheng was born in Taiyuan, Shanxi in 1993. She received her bachelor’s degree in English from LvLiang University, Shanxi in 2016. She is currently a postgraduate studying for her master’s degree and majoring in Foreign Linguistics and Applied Linguistics in Shanxi Normal University. Her research interests included sociolinguistics, second language acquisition and cognitive linguistics.
Abstract—The aim of the current study is to investigate the perceived learning challenges as well as the coping strategies employed by Nursing and Health Sciences (NHS) students at Al-Hussein Bin Talal University (AHU) in dealing with general and medical English as a foreign language in the learning process. Princess Aisha Bint Al-Hussein College of Nursing & Health Sciences (PAC) at AHU needs to address these challenges to meet the low-level grades of its students. A three-part questionnaire was used for data collection over a time period of three consecutive academic semesters. It is a 26-item self-reported questionnaire with a 5-point Likert-type scale. Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) was used for statistical analysis. The reliability of the scale was tested using Cronbach alpha. The outcomes showed that the students struggle with the issue of limited language proficiency. This problem, then, which the study's outcomes present is twofold: firstly, due to the students' lack of knowledge and proficiency in general English and secondly, because of students' lack of proficiency in medical English. Actually, students are not only burdened by the fact that they lack the proficiency of general English but further by their unfamiliarity with medical English.

Index Terms—Nursing, Health Sciences, English Language, challenges, coping strategies, Al-Hussein Bin Talal University

I. INTRODUCTION

English holds a prominent and prestigious position being the universal or world language that is used as the language of communication and instruction in many contexts globally, and it is therefore a necessity. In this specific vein, a recent joint study by the British Council and The University of Oxford asserts that “there is a fast-moving worldwide shift from English being taught as a foreign language (EFL) to English being the medium of instruction for academic subjects” (Dearden, 2014, p. 2). In Jordan, alongside the official language, Arabic, English is predominantly considered to be the second language of instruction. It is the compulsory foreign language to be taught in the Jordanian public and private schools, starting from the elementary school where students start to study English in KG1 until the last level of the secondary education. Regardless of this formal teaching of English, the level of competence is very low amongst students upon joining university study. This is due to the dominance of Arabic daily conversations and the lack of enough exposure to English speaking and use in daily life during this stage. In a study to examine the general difficulties faced by Arab students in Jordan, Saudi Arabia and Egypt Suleiman (1983) argues that the prevalent dissatisfaction with the entire output of Arab learners in English subjects was due to, among many others, inadequate essential principles in curriculum conception and design, lacking in-classroom approaches as well as the slow progress in the students’ communication skills (cited in Intakhab Alam Khan, 2011, p. 71).

Furthermore, English is used as a language of instruction in the areas of science and technology (medicine, engineering, pharmacy, health sciences and nursing, computer science and information technology, biology, physics, chemistry, etc.). Thus, if a student is enrolled in higher education institutions to specialise in one of these subjects, s/he is expected to use English widely and extensively since the learning process based completely on U.S and British textbooks.
Predominated by these expectations and requirements, Health Science education is graded as one of the most enduring and challenging trainings to pursue. The language challenges a health science student encounters during his/her undergraduate years are numerous. English language as a foreign language utilised as a medium of instruction is one of the challenges that stresses nursing and health science NHS students. Coping with medical English as an instrument for learning is another challenge for NHS students and almost a second language in itself. NHS students are usually challenged by the fact that they have to learn, study, negotiate, participate and respond to examination in English during learning at college.

According to the discussion above, this study aims to explore the perceived language challenges as well as the coping strategies utilised by NHS students at AHU. It addresses the language challenges experienced by students using English as a foreign language in the learning process. According to the researchers’ knowledge, this study is considered to be one of the pioneering studies that deal with this issue in Jordan.

II. BACKGROUND

Students of medical and health related professions in higher education institutions in Jordan are taught in English. Students’ expected level of English that allows them to be accepted at the university is supposed to be satisfactory. The universities assess students’ level of English to study any university programme by examining the competency of English in general. Students outside the university do not use English in their daily life. Nevertheless, in clinical settings and during practice and training they communicate with the staff and their clinical instructors in English and mainly use the medical terminology. Medical terms are Latin in origin and purely English. The patients’ charts and documentation of the practice is usually written in English. The programme’s exams are offered in English. On the other hand, communication with patients and their relatives usually proceed in Arabic, as well as the routine and informal daily conversations among staff.

When the health related programmes curriculum in Jordan was designed, it was mainly based on American programmes as the instructors were qualified there. The instructors mainly adopted programmes of their institutions where they did their doctoral degrees. The curriculum was not based on attracting international students; neither to prepare national students for the global labour market; nor to raise the profile of the institution (Doiz, et al., 2011, p. 347). Regardless of that, the graduates of the medical and health related professions programmes are prepared mainly to work in Jordan and in the region where Arabic is the native language of the population. Therefore, the implementation of English as medium of instruction raises diverse questions regarding the linguistic competence of the teachers’ to deliver the courses in English, the students’ understanding of the course content of knowledge, and the skills and attitudes or the possible effect of English medium instruction on the quality of the programmes and their outputs (Doiz, et al., 2011, p. 347).

III. LITERATURE REVIEW

A considerable amount of research has been done and demonstrated the several challenges English-as-a-Foreign Language (EFL) students in the specialisations of Nursing and Health Sciences encounter during their learning process. Language is viewed as a challenge in several studies which implemented quantitative reports (Guhde, 2003; Labun, 2002; Sanner, Wilson, & Samson, 2002; Shakya & Horsfall, 2000; Starr, 2009; Veal, 2012; Villarruel, Canales, & Torres, 2001; Villarruel & Peragallo, 2004; Yoder, 2001). Starr (2009) contends that language, including reading, writing, comprehension, and communication, is one of nursing education challenges which significantly impacts resources, academics, and cultural issues with English as an additional language (EAL). Students who have only a conversational command of English but lack the basic English skills needed to be successful in the academic and scientific setting.

Most of these studies have dealt with EFL students in English speaking countries focusing chiefly on nursing students. Glew, (2013); Guhde, (2003); Salamonson et al., (2011); Sanner & Wilson, (2008); and Shakya & Horsfall, (2000) have done studies applied on nursing students in Australia and the United States and have found that EFL nursing students are inclined to have difficulties with general and medical English, which may impact their academic performance and also require more efforts than students who are native speakers of English. Glew addresses the challenges of using academic English as an additional language experienced by students during their nursing studies in the Australian tertiary learning setting. He contends that students’ success in a nursing programme necessitates EAL students to fulfill significant literacy skills in English and academic language through their learning process. In particular, Glew (2013) has considered the education significances for nursing programmes and developing literacy skills through the preregistration phase “to meet the English language skills standard for nurse registration and presents intervention strategies for nursing programmes” which propose to build EAL student capability in using academic English (p. 101). Moreover, according to Boughton et al. (2010) and Jeong et al. (2011) EFL students need to demonstrate a high level of academic standing to fulfill their commitments in the nursing programme and perform at the anticipated level in the clinical positions. Students working in the clinical setting encounter difficulties in interacting with colleagues, patients and their families. In considering international students’ experience of second language and
academic stress, Khawaja et al. (2017) observe that international nursing students often encounter second language anxiety and are even subject to academic stress particularly with reference to its spoken aspect (603).

Unfortunately there is a serious lack of research done on the challenges EFL students encounter in NHS education when English is the language of instruction in non-English speaking countries in general and in Arab countries in particular. In fact, a study has been done by Suliman and Tadros (2011) to examine the strategies used by nursing students to cope with English as a foreign language medium of instruction especially when Arabic is the mother tongue. Their study has been applied to students in the College of Nursing at King Saud Bin Abdulaziz University for Health Sciences in Saudi Arabia. The study argues that nursing students’ success in college is extremely reliant on their ability to cope well with their stress of studying in English and surmount the difficulties facing them in communicating orally and in writing in English. The study shows how nursing students adopted and incorporated a number of coping strategies to assist them overcome their learning difficulties including “self-controlling, seeking social support, planful problem-solving, and positive reappraisal” which change over the course of the study and used according to the stressful situation and the challenges experienced each time (4). Abushaikha et al. (2014) has conducted a study on Jordanian male nursing students that explores the challenges students encounter during the course of their study. The study investigates the several academic difficulties that male students faced with English as the language of instruction highlighting issues such as “preparing for examinations, demanding clinical rotations, difficulties in registering for courses online” (Abushaikha et al, 2014, p. 265).

EFL students in NHS programmes are usually subject to challenges most importantly language difficulties; both in general and medical English which hinder their academic progress in the educational setting. The issue of language difficulties among college students has been a topic of interest and a key concern of researchers for several years; because a lot of the research has been done in English speaking countries. Olson (2012) identified the several reasons for EFL nursing students’ often struggle in nursing programme and among them are the language barriers. Olson classifies the reasons in four categories but identifies the issue of “English language deficiency” as the most important and salient barrier. She contends that “language barriers were identified as the single most significant obstacle facing the EFL nursing student” (26).

Philips and Hartley (1990) pointed out that the language difficulties nursing students encounter may influence their academic achievement. They have remarked that for students to succeed in the healthcare environment, they must master the four language skills. They also noted that, in the medical field, more challenging is the students’ need to learn the medical terminology and how incorporate it in their learning process in addition to the requirement to be skilled in the language itself. In other words, proficiency required in everyday language is utterly separated from the one required in medical language. In this particular vein, Guhde (2003) asserts that EAL students “must learn medical terminology” in order to obtain a higher level of textual as well as oral communication as academic problems are often directly connected with language difficulties (p. 14).

Hemming and Nandagopal (2012) have conducted a survey on the medical curriculum of EFL students in the premedical years in a country where Arabic is the mother tongue. Students were asked to recognise all unknown words in the text. They emphasise that the success in medical studies “requires an understanding of both technical (scientific/ medical) and non-technical (general) vocabulary” (p. 486). They assert that ESL medical students find difficulties in understanding technical words rather than non-technical words. They add that the reason behind the difficulty that Arab ESL students facing in comprehending scientific/ medical statements are due to the weaknesses in their understanding of general vocabulary. In this respect, Glew (2013) contends that “[h]aving an adequate knowledge of academic language and proficiency in English for tertiary studies can determine the success of EAL students in a nursing programme” (p. 102). By the same token, Wang, et al., (2008) observes that universities offering education for these students “may not fully appreciate the student’s needs and are therefore inadequately prepared to provide them with a tailored, quality educational experience” (p. 140). Furthermore, Suliman and Tadros (2011) affirm that despite the fact that universities can provide nurse education programmes that satisfy the teaching and learning needs of home students (native speakers of English), they may be devoid of the adult literacy programming ability to efficaciously improve the English and academic language skills of EAL students for nursing. In the same context, Crawford and Candlin (2013) assert that state that one of the language challenges ESL students encounter during their learning process relates to the higher level of academic English demanded in higher education, in addition to the medical language used in healthcare. They confirm that the nature of the tasks which include analysis, synthesis and evaluation is another challenge, along with the requirements discussed above (pp. 182-183).

According to the preceded discussion, English is frequently viewed as a challenge for English-as-a-Foreign Language (EFL) students as several studies and scholarly work observe its impact on the academic achievement of NHS students. The previous studies investigate the issue of English as a significant academic challenge concentrating on specific language skills. Students do not only require basic English skills but also need to be successful in the academic and scientific setting. In addition to the previous studies, this study will consider the various challenges NHS students face with using general and medical English as a medium of instruction, which may influence their academic performance and also require more efforts than students who are native speakers of English. The study will also expose to the strategies used by NHS students in coping with English as a foreign language medium of instruction when Arabic is the mother tongue.
IV. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Research Questions:
The study purported to answer the following research questions:
RQ1. What are the challenges faced by NHS students at AHU using English as the language of instruction?
RQ2. What are the predominant strategies utilised by NHS students at AHU students to cope with English as a foreign language?

Research instrument and data collection method:
A three-part questionnaire was used for data collection. Part one is intended to obtain background information of demographic factor. It comprises five questions covering the subjects’ age group, their gender, specialisation, their level of study, and whether or not they passed the English Language Level Test. Part two investigates the English language challenges that face NHS in PAC at AHU during their learning process. Finally, part three presents the strategies utilised to address the challenges.

It is a 26 item self-reported questionnaire with a 5-point Likert-type scale. The scale indicates the level of which each of the items is utilised by the respondents, using the following response scales: 1= strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = Neutral, 4 = agree, and 5= strongly agree. The reliability of the instrument, using Cronbach’s alpha, demonstrates an acceptable degree of stability.

This descriptive structured questionnaire was used over a time period of three consecutive semesters. A translation of the questionnaire into Arabic is made aimed at making it more accessible to the participants, whose native language is Arabic.

Population and sample:
A convenience sampling was recruited from NHS students of different levels in their nursing education at the time of data collection. Students in Nursing, Radiology, and Medical Analysis educational programmes participated in this questionnaire. Of the 300 students who were invited to take part in the study, only 204 students responded with acceptable inclusion criteria for the analysis. This number represents about 61.2 % of response rate. Table 1 presents the demographic profile of the sample.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Attribute</th>
<th>No. of Participants</th>
<th>Percentage %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>8.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>187</td>
<td>91.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>&lt;20</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>53.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>21-25</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>46.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Specialisation</td>
<td>Nursing</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>46.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Radiology</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>17.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Medical Analysis</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>35.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level of Study</td>
<td>1st</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>6.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2nd</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>33.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3rd</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>36.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4th</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>22.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5th</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Did you pass the English Language Level Test?</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>61.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>38.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Reliability of the instrument
Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) was used for statistical analysis. The reliability of the scale was tested using Cronbach alpha. The questionnaire’s internal consistency and clarity were measured was measured by a test employed on 15 students using test–retest with two-week interval in between. The table below shows the coefficients and the internal consistency, which is 0.77 for the challenges and 0.81 for the coping strategies. These ratios demonstrate stability and are considered suitable for the purposes of this study.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Coefficients</th>
<th>Internal Consistency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The challenges faced by (NHS) students at (AHU) using English as the language of instruction</td>
<td>0.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The strategies utilised to address the challenges faced by NHS students at AHU using English as the language of instruction</td>
<td>0.81</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Results and Discussion
RQ1: What are the challenges faced by NHS students at AHU using English as the language of instruction?
To answer this question, the means and the standards deviation of the challenges faced by NHS students at AHU using English as the language of instruction were calculated.
As indicated in Table 3, the respondents’ mean scores on sixteen items ranged from 4.12 to 3.24. Two of the top sixteen items which received the highest mean scores (ranked thirteenth and eighth) corresponds with the challenges: “The unavailability of English training sessions held on campus” (m = 4.12) and “The Lack of an English course specified for the Faculty of Princess Aisha Bint Al-Hussein’s students” (m = 4.00), whilst the last two lowest items which ranked third and fourth correspond with the “Fear of studying texts written in English” (m = 3.24) and “Inability to understand texts written in English” (m = 3.24). Those results are attributed to the lack of English training courses whether at the university level or specific to the students’ discipline. The students, therefore, encounter the fear of studying in English which also render in their struggle and even inability to understand texts written in English. Moreover, students are also challenged by both their tendency to memorise data in test preparation and reliance on the translated form of exam questions in order to understand them. They depend on memorisation in the way of test preparation and they memorise medical terms without distinguishing what’s requested. Their teachers recommend that students in exams memorise and provide general information about terms without providing specific answers.

It is noted that nursing students require to enhance their general and medical English levels. This finding is supported by Starr (2009) who has observed that the challenge of language has a direct impact on students’ success or failure particularly as these students are required to learn both general English as well as the technical language practiced in health. Starr argued the ineffectualness of the additional English classes notably the simplicity of content in addition to the nature of context which does not meet students’ needs. He has noted that students do not only need to learn English, but also technical English and medical terminology. Table 3 demonstrates that all the means are high and, hence; the predominant challenge that encounters NHS students is the need to have English training sessions held on campus to improve their English. The table also shows that NHS students need special or additional English course specified for them. On the other hand, the study found out that the two lowest challenges confront NHS students are related to the fear they display while studying texts written in English as well as the inability to understand texts written in English. This finding may hint the students’ attempt to avert thinking about their fears of studying and understanding English texts. In addition, it may be indicative of the students’ restless efforts to overcome their fears and handle stressful situations.

**RQ2: What are the predominant strategies utilised by NHS students at AHU students to cope with English as a foreign language?**

To answer this question, the means and the standards deviation of the strategies utilised to address the challenges faced by NHS students at AHU using English as the language of instruction were calculated (table 4).

The findings, as observed from Table 4, show that the means of the coping strategies utilised by NHS students to address the challenges they experienced, rank from 4.54 to 3.47. The predominant coping strategies are indicated in “I reject the idea of failing my studies because of the English language” (4.54) and “I try to do my best to overcome the language problem and to get away from the idea of dropping the course” (4.53). The adopted strategies suggest that the majority of NHS students at AHU are revealingly ambitious since they effortlessly attempt to considerably cope with their English struggle. This is apparent in their determination not to consider English as an obstacle in completing their study. It also appears in their persistence to overcome the language barriers and defy the thinking of failing or dropping the course.
On the other hand, the two lowest strategies adopted by the respondents associated with joining English courses to improve English (3.48) and the student’s attempt to speak in English outside lectures (3.75). The students’ lack of initiative to join English courses in order to improve their English correlates with the predominated challenge of the unavailability of English training sessions held on campus. This is actually due to not only the fact that AHU does not offer or accommodate English training sessions on campus but also to the unavailability of training councils or centres offering English courses in the city of Ma’an, where AHU is located. Furthermore, living where English is not a mother tongue brings respondents further challenges in practicing English both on and off campus.

Table 5 illustrates variant differences in means and standard deviations of the study’s investigation of the challenges NHS students at AHU encounter due to difference in group attributes; gender, Age group, respondent’s specialisation, level of study, and whether or not they passed the English Language Level Test.

The female students are found out to be less challenged than males. This variance may be attributed to cognitive linguistic abilities and the fact that females usually present faster language development (Berglund, Eriksson, & Westerlund, 2005; Hoff, 2013). Moreover, the differences in the challenges are seen in favor of the age group (21-25). This outcome correlates with students’ academic levels of study. On the other hand, there are no differences attributed to variations in students’ areas of specialisation (Abushaikha et al., 2014; Hoff, 2013). According to students’ responses, these language challenges were not specific to particular academic departments; rather, these challenges were common reoccurring phenomena in all departments. The differences between third and fourth-year students are noticed in favor of third-year students. Advanced students are found to be less challenged than beginners. This may be attributed to their endurance and persistence to overcome their language challenges which they continued to build throughout their study. This finding is made evident by the students’ answers elicited by the questions in part three of the questionnaire.

Furthermore, there are differences between the students who passed the English Language Level Test and those who did not, and they were in favor of those who did not pass the test. The students’ failure to successfully pass the English Language Level Test may be attributed to the students’ unfamiliarity with computerised tests that are limited by time. The time students allowed to complete their test seems not to be enough. On the other hand, the test given measures only general English skills and cannot be considered as an effective tool to measure the students’ knowledge of medical English. The students who failed the test are apparently less challenged by using English as an additional language and managed to do better in their studies. This indicates the inefficiency of the English Language Level Test to evaluate the students’ true levels of medical English. Students who fail the test are usually requested to take pre-nursing English

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>#</th>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>I reject the idea of failing my studies because of the English language</td>
<td>4.54</td>
<td>.646</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>I try to do my best to overcome the language problem and to get away from the idea of dropping the course</td>
<td>4.53</td>
<td>.732</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>I instil confidence in myself and the perseverance to achieve my goal</td>
<td>4.49</td>
<td>.608</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>I encourage myself to speak in English even when I am afraid of making a mistake</td>
<td>4.13</td>
<td>.924</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>I attempt to write in English</td>
<td>4.09</td>
<td>.886</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>I watch television programmes and films in English</td>
<td>4.05</td>
<td>1.040</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>I attempt to translate some texts during my free time</td>
<td>3.94</td>
<td>1.011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>I attempt to build up relationships with students whose English is better than mine</td>
<td>3.94</td>
<td>1.128</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>I attempt to speak in English outside lectures</td>
<td>3.75</td>
<td>1.170</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>I join English courses to improve my English</td>
<td>3.47</td>
<td>1.237</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>4.09</td>
<td>.551</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4: The Strategies Utilised to Address the Challenges Faced by (NHS) Students at (AHU)

Table 5: English Language Difficulty as Illustrated by Participants’ Attributes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>The challenges Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3.28</td>
<td>3.74</td>
<td>.529</td>
<td>.593</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age group</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>19</td>
<td>187</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;20</td>
<td>3.57</td>
<td>3.84</td>
<td>.612</td>
<td>.556</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21-25</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3.75</td>
<td>95</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Respondent’s specialisation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3.67</td>
<td>.641</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nursing</td>
<td>3.67</td>
<td>3.69</td>
<td>3.81</td>
<td>.664</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Radiation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Laboratory</td>
<td>3.81</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.69</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.641</td>
<td>3.65</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>level of study</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1st year</td>
<td>.611</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1st year</td>
<td>3.63</td>
<td>3.63</td>
<td>.536</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd year</td>
<td>3.62</td>
<td>3.62</td>
<td>.683</td>
<td>69</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd year</td>
<td>3.67</td>
<td>3.67</td>
<td>.571</td>
<td>74</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4th year</td>
<td>3.56</td>
<td>3.56</td>
<td>.475</td>
<td>48</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Did you pass the English level test?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>.644</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>3.64</td>
<td>3.60</td>
<td>.512</td>
<td>78</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5 illustrates variant differences in means and standard deviations of the study’s investigation of the challenges NHS students at AHU encounter due to difference in group attributes; gender, Age group, respondent’s specialisation, level of study, and whether or not they passed the English Language Level Test.
courses. In this particular vein, a study done by Veal (2012) on the factors affecting linguistically diverse nursing students’ and native English speakers’ academic success including language abilities, asserts that the pre-nursing English courses do not primarily measure the student’s ability to comprehend reading in a social and academic setting. However, the differences are still an issue that needs more elaboration probably by a future study focusing on this issue and the correlation with the medical English.

V. RECOMMENDATIONS

On the light of the results of this study, the researchers recommend that the English Language Level Test is seen as generic and lack specificity regarding students’ particular departments and academic needs. Therefore, a review of the test’s purpose, nature and quality of questions is required. In addition, the researchers observe the necessity of devising special instruction ESP course; zero-credit compulsory module which can address the students’ specific needs and meet their particular technical purposes in the English academic context. It is recommended that Al-Hussein Bin Talal University should follow some of the universities in gulf countries and should design ESP course for health sciences students, as for example University of Sharjah in which students of Science in Nursing (BSN) and Medical Laboratory Sciences should undertake a total of 3 credit hours of a course named as English for Medical Sciences.

Students are required to be competent in the language employed in their settings (e.g. medical English) rather than general English. Therefore, the study suggests that some particular language skills of NHS students at AHU can be met through the modification of the teaching strategies and curricula. Finally, more studies are necessitated in association with the issue of challenges NHS students encounter when English used as a medium of instruction in other Jordanian universities.

VI. CONCLUSION

The purpose of this study was twofold: (1) to identify the several language challenges NHS in PAC at AHU experience during their learning process and (2) explore the strategies utilised by students to address them. Apart from preceding studies, which have chiefly focused on language challenges ESL students encounter while studying Nursing in non-English speaking countries, this study addresses the language problem of ESL students in Nursing as well as Health sciences.

The difficulty of using general and medical English is a prominent issue challenging NHS students while completing their studies and participating effectively in the academic environment. This issue seems to be associated with the higher level of academic language demanded in this subject area along with the medical language used in Health Sciences. For NHS students at AHU, the issue of limited language proficiency is of two parts. It may be due to the students’ lack of knowledge and proficiency in general English and because of students’ lack of proficiency of medical English. Actually, students are not only burdened by the fact that they lack the proficiency of general English but further by their unfamiliarity with medical English.

The study addressed the challenges NHS students at AHU encounter during their education and identified strategies utilised in response. The study also advocates a few recommendations that attempt to significantly decrease the challenges and overcome the English weaknesses by giving nursing students the academic support needed. Success in learning and coping with English as a foreign language medium of instruction will produce nurses who are competitive and accordingly contribute to better career opportunities and solve the global nurse shortage. The study’s findings provided new insights to the current knowledge of the educational experiences of undergraduate NHS students in a developing country. Understanding the challenges as well as the applied coping strategies from the viewpoints of undergraduate NHS students will efficiently help NHS instructors to improve their understanding of their students’ educational experiences and elucidate their roles and responsibilities in coping with these issues. Further research is, however, required done to enhance the understanding of the academic challenges and the coping strategies nursing students employ while learning using English as a foreign language medium of instruction.

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The Problems and Suggestions on Education of Transition from Kindergarten to Primary School in Zhoushan City

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Abstract—Education transition from kindergarten to primary school is an educational process, and it is also an important turning point in child development. Physical and mental developments of children are different in kindergarten and primary school. It is important to make a smooth transition from kindergarten to primary school, in order to promote sustainable development and improve education quality.

The Learning and Developing Guidelines for 3-6 Child stipulates Kindergarten should work in close cooperation with family and community, connect with primary school, make good use of all education resources, and create favorable conditions for child development together. Our research group took six months to survey the implementation of education of transition from kindergarten to primary school in Zhoushan. Using the methods of field trips, interview and questionnaire, our group gathered the real, effective information and data to identify the problems about transition, and give some reasonable suggestions.

Index Terms—transition from kindergarten to primary school, preschool education, Zhoushan

I. INTRODUCTION

In September of 2015, Zhejiang Provincial Education Office issued the guideline about the education of transition from kindergarten to primary school, which indicated that kindergarten can't teach children the content of primary school curriculum. However, the guideline is not consistent with children's cognitive ability required by primary school. So cram schools are playing an important role in this process, but they are uneven in educational qualification, reputation, teaching level, teaching environment, safety, and charging standard, which become a focus in Zhoushan and generate a great influence on the quality of primary education.

What's more, because of the special geographical location, unique population structure and rapid development speed of Zhoushan, it is urgent to find out suitable solutions based on the reality. With the establishment of Zhoushan Archipelago New District, we need to solve these problems to improve the development speed. On the basis of these related researches, this project will focus on the practical problems of education of transition from kindergarten to primary school in Zhoushan, and propose corresponding suggestions and solutions to improve the education quality of Zhoushan.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Overview of Foreign Studies

On the whole, foreign countries begin studying the education transition from kindergarten to primary school earlier, and some achievements have been made in relevant fields.

1. About the Content of Education Transition

The National Education Goal Panel (NEGP) of US argues that school readiness of children should embody five fields consisting of physical health and sports, learning style, social development, language development and cognitive and common knowledge fields. The five fields has got the international acknowledgement, but different countries have

different descriptions according to national conditions.

2. Parents’ Concept about Education Transition

As the first teacher of kids, parents have big influences on children’ adaption that are reflected on behavior habits, character formation, interpersonal interaction and so on. According to the survey of these parents whose children lay in the stage of transition from kindergarten to primary school, McIntyre comes to the conclusion that the parents who are willing to invest energy and money on children, compared with those parents do not understand and have no intention to understand the knowledge of the transition, tend to finish the work of transition more successfully, but study shows that parents are completely unaware of the expectations of the school. Meanwhile, he concludes that if parents' opinions are in line with the school's view, children can make full preparation with the help of parents, and vice versa. (McIntyre, 2007).

B. Domestic Research Review

In recent years, China attaches greater importance to the education transition from kindergarten to primary school. The research results are becoming increasingly prominent.

1. About the Content of Education Transition

Qiyun Sun and Dingwei Hu (2000) point out that children’s logical thinking, language expression, observation ability, and creativity should be cultivated during the transition from kindergarten to primary school. Xiuru Zhang (1995) advocates that primary school should cultivate children’s study habit and life habit, meanwhile, in order to lessen the burden, school can teach in the form of sub-division teaching, so that children can have a positive attitude to school. Xiaoping Yang (2004) illustrates that the cohesion of Chinese curriculum should start from course objectives, course content, course organization, curriculum implementation, and course evaluation.

2. Parents’ Concept about Education Transition

According to the study about the educational concept of parents and kindergarten teachers, Lingling Li (2013) argues that they have realized this transition is a good guarantee for children study, both parents and teachers agree that. But it is generally acknowledged that Chinese parents emphasize more on intellectual education and underestimate moral education, aesthetic education and sports. Meanwhile, Chinese parents who have different occupations, education backgrounds, and incomes have different educational concepts. The concepts of parents are closely related to the state of children during the transition from kindergarten to primary school. Houyu Wang (2012) concludes some major problems after study, such as excessive emphasis on grades, ignorance of children’s comprehensive development; unscientific educational concepts, which result in that children cannot adapt to the change of learning environment.

III. RESEARCH METHODS AND DATA

A. Sample

Our group carries out questionnaire investigation in 10 kindergartens and primary schools in Zhoushan city in Zhejiang province. We randomly select about 360 parents and teachers in different grades of kindergarten. A total of 360 questionnaires were collected by using online questionnaire. As for the parents and children primary school, we mainly use the method of interview.

Among the respondents, 54.44% children are male, and 45.56% children are female. 17.22% children are from junior class of kindergarten, 46.67% children are from mid-class of kindergarten and 36.11% children are from senior class of kindergarten.

B. Research Method

By using the methods of questionnaire (the content of the questionnaire covers the condition of children, including the gender, family structure, education and the parents, including the attitude, worries and suggestion to transition from kindergarten to primary school), on-the-spot investigation and interview, we collected the information and data in order to find out the differences and vulnerabilities.

C. Research Results and Data Analysis

| TABLE 1 |

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Degree</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Rate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>very important</td>
<td>264</td>
<td>73.91%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>important</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>22.36%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>less important</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3.33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unimportant</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From table 1, it's easy to notice that 96.27% parents attach much attention to the transition. 3.73% parents pay less attention to it, and no parents think it unimportant.
From table 2, as for the content of the transition from kindergarten to primary school, habit formation, learning interest and living ability rank the top 3. According to degree of the importance, the last three are reading Chinese characters, writing Chinese characters and arithmetic. For teachers and parents, the concept of preparation has been converted from merely learning specific knowledge to comprehensive preparation. Most teachers and parents consider that school readiness should be comprehensive, which consists of living habit, learning habit, learning ability, self-care ability, rule consciousness, test consciousness and physical quality, instead of only studying Chinese characters and Pinyin.

From table 3 and table 4, it's easy to notice that 67.5% parents are willing to let their children get access to primary school curriculum. As for the way of learning, 47.93% parents choose to teach the children by themselves, and 52.07% parents choose to learn at cram school.

Table 5 shows that kindergartens pay more attention to cultivate better learning and life habits and social adaptability for children during the process. Most kindergartens lead children to visit primary school campus, and then join in the class, in order to experience different life and environment. However, many interviewees express that the kindergartens only organize this kind of activity once or twice in the second semester of senior grade, which only lasts half a day. Therefore, these activities have no substantive effect at all.

2 A kind of pronunciation rule
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Difficulties</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Rate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>longer class time</td>
<td>219</td>
<td>60.83%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>change of the schedule</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>28.33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>change of teaching style</td>
<td>136</td>
<td>37.78%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>making new friends</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>24.44%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lack of interest to subject</td>
<td>164</td>
<td>45.56%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>peer pressure</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>17.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>incomprehension of the course</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>33.33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unable to keep up with the teacher in class</td>
<td>207</td>
<td>57.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unable to put away learning tools</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>36.11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unable to take notes</td>
<td>188</td>
<td>52.22%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>others</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>6.11%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6 shows that the biggest worry for the parents whose children is going to enroll is that children cannot behave themselves well and then have difficulty in keeping up the pace of teacher. Therefore, most parents let the children study pinyin, Chinese characters and simple math before enrollment. And that’s the reason why many cram schools enjoy the popularity among the parents.

IV. DISCUSSION ABOUT THE PROBLEMS

A. Superficial and Unilateral Practice of Parents and Teachers

In the interview, when asked about the suggestions to the transition, most parents voice that the kindergarten should add the primary school curriculum to the teaching content to a certain degree, such as Pinyin, sums and literacy. And in this way they can avoid spending extra money on cram school. However, the tendency to teaching primary school curriculum in kindergarten becomes more and more popular in a few kindergartens (especially private and township kindergartens), and they will design the course related to the primary school curriculum to satisfy these parents and attract students.

Our research found most parents have realized the importance of the transition, and pay attention to children’s comprehensive education. The transition is not only preparation of knowledge but also the preparation in life habit, study habit and study ability. But in practice, parents engagement is not enough and put too much emphasis on children’ grades.

B. Lacking of Scientific and Effective Joint between Primary School and Kindergarten

Kindergarten and primary school are totally different, one focus on games, and the other centers on learning knowledge. During the transition from the kindergarten to primary school, the key to success is to realize the child’s own role conversion. If we can’t achieve that, children will run into a great deal difficulties after entering primary school. Therefore, the primary focus should be on the seamless connection between kindergarten and primary school. But the two sides have not set up an intact and valid system to handle the problem. And Cram schools spring up in response to this condition, which makes the problems more complicated to handle.

Besides, the Education Bureau in Zhoushan states that kindergartens can’t teach kids courses which belong to primary school teaching content. It means kindergarten teachers shouldn’t teach kids arithmetic, pinyin and Chinese characters. However, when kindergartens invite primary school teachers to guide the work, some of them assert some definite requirements to children: first of all, children must master Pinyin and add and subtract within 20. Besides, some primary schools request children to know less than 300 Chinese characters. We interview a number of teachers to obtain the teaching process of pinyin, they express that the teaching cycle lasts for only one month. Because they have known that most children had learned before enrolling. Therefore, the stipulation of Education Bureau runs counter to the reality. That’s the reason why parents worry and fear.

C. Lacking of Valid Communication and Cooperation between School and Family

Parent is the first and lifetime teacher of children, so the transition needs parents’ participation. Our research finds that school and family lack of valid communication and cooperation in course of the interview. School invite parents to join in some activities such as parent forum, parent meeting, and so on, but low frequency, poor efficiency, and formulaic burdens also exist now.

Besides, due to traditional concept and diversified nurturing attitudes, many parents pay more attention to advanced training rather than lifelong development, so children are requested to master the textbook knowledge that will be taught in the first grade of primary school. The result is children have trouble in adapting new surroundings. At the beginning, they are inattentive in class and careless in homework because they think it is so easy. Then they develop bad learning attitudes and habits. Finally, with the increasing difficulty in study, children will be left behind for lacking a good learning habit. In fact, these parents generate more pressure on kindergarten and primary school in pedagogical practice, some even become obstruction during the transition.
V. SUGGESTIONS

A. Respect Children's Right of Speech, Design and Implement Preschool Education Programs from Child's Perspective

Children's right of speech has been recognized as an increasingly important part that deserve to be protected. Convention on the Rights of the Child (commonly abbreviated as the CRC or UNCR) allows us to take a fresh look at children as individuals, family members and members of the society who have rights and obligations appropriate to their age and stage. School-age children have already obtained a certain level of awareness and emotional attitude, they have their own views on the preschool education, and are able to put forward their own solutions to the problem in the process. However, schools and families tend to overlook children’s right of speech without realizing children’s ability to solve problems by themselves.

In preschool education, as adults, we should listen more to the voices of children and provide them with some discourse space, so that children can experience a sense of respect, a sense of ability as well as a sense responsibility and rights.

B. Kindergarten and Primary School Should Work together to Achieve a Seamless Connection and Pave the Way for Children to Graduate from Kindergarten

Education transition from kindergarten to primary school is a bi-directional joint connection between kindergarten and primary school, which demand the both sides to establish an equal and cooperative relation with each other to promote a smooth transition. In the past, the burden of this transition was mostly laid on the kindergartens side who make adjustments to their timetable, and occasionally organize a visit to primary schools. In addition, primary school teachers should also make effort to communicate with kindergarten teachers to study their educational theories, explore teaching methods, study children's psychological conditions, and actively explore ways and means suitable for young children. In order to smoothly transition, teachers should make efforts to strengthen the ties between the two parties. They should use diversified teaching and learning forms to gradually realize the curriculum convergence through small steps so that young children can adapt themselves to the transition more easily.

Concerned about the conditions of our country and this city, we can strengthen the connection between teachers of kindergarten and primary school from the following two aspects: the first one is to convene "question-and-answer meetings" to provide a platform in which teachers from both sides are able to talk and discuss, and on this basis, amend and perfect the kindergarten class plan; the second one is to organize informal discussion, experience introduction and mutual lectures to provide chances for the kindergarten teachers and primary school teachers to be familiar with the education methodology and characteristics of the other side and learn from each other.

C. Strengthen Parents’ Centrality in Preschool Education and Strengthen the Bonds between Families and School

As children’s first teacher, parents are the key members of preschool education. During the transition to primary school, it is a crucial period for the establishment of positive parent-child relationships in the family. Parents not only know their children's early experiences, but also have a more comprehensive understanding of their children's sociality, emotion regulation, learning foundation and self-management. What’s more, parents are full of expectations for schooling and teaching, they are willing to engage in preschool education and offer practical help to teachers.

In the future training of kindergarten teachers, efforts should be made to highlight the core point of "home-school co-education.", which means that parents and teachers should have mutual contact and should be encouraged to communicate with each other. Parents should also be invited to participate in preschool education activities so that parents and teachers are able to guide each other and work together to help children adapt to the new environment as soon as possible.

D. Learn from Advanced Foreign Experience to Improve the Quality of Preschool Education

1. Formulate a scientific assessment system and employment standards and combine the training of teachers.

The United States develops a system of joint training of teachers of kindergarten and primary school, that is, a combination of kindergarten teachers training and primary school teachers training. Teachers' qualifications obtained after graduating from university cover the lower grades of primary schools and kindergartens. What’s more, Japan also organized such kind of joint training and kindergarten teachers of Japan could participate in the examinations prepared for primary school teachers. At present, the training of kindergarten teachers and secondary primary schools in our city is separated. Lacking of understanding hinders the progress of convergence and urges us to take lessons from overseas training methods, and combine the training of kindergarten teachers with those of lower grades in primary schools. In the process of joint training, kindergarten teachers and lower primary school teachers can enhance their understanding and reach agreement on curriculum.

2. Enrich the curriculum organizations and pay attention to the continuity of the curriculum.

The theory of "Teaching Stage" formulated by French experts divides the preschool children and elementary school students into three stages: the stage of enlightenment education, the stage of basic study and the stage of in-depth education, in which the training objectives, curriculum plans or assessment criteria are interrelated and indivisible. Japan implemented a program of establishing schools that provide successive education during the kindergarten and
primary school period. In its guideline on education in 2002 promulgated by the Ministry of Education promulgated "life lessons" for first- and second-year elementary school students, the most prominent feature of this course is its comprehensive inquiry, letting children explore all aspects of life in a variety of ways. The kindergarten curriculum in Britain and Sweden also attach great importance to the individual differences of young children by teaching students according to their different aptitude and characteristics, they pay much attention to the transition and integration of courses. Our city should also start to pay attention to the transition of kindergarten and primary school curriculum. For example, when organizing activities, we can expand related topics of kindergarten curriculum, set some theme activities such as "I want to go to primary school" and "Primary school in my eyes" so that children can perceive rules of primary school through activities and avoid the emergence of a knowledge fault. On the elementary school side, we should also adjust course content and activity form, adding interesting and inquiry-based activities to help children to cultivate their self-learning ability.

3. Create an environment suitable for the development of children to ensure environmental convergence.

Some states in the United States have kindergartens attached to primary schools so that young children can get acquainted with primary school environment, primary school life which is helpful for them to solve various adaptation problems caused by environmental changes. In addition, their activity room is basically the same as that of the lower primary school. The tables and chairs are arranged in a horseshoe shape. A small group of children sit around a table for operational activities or games. The instructor guides the collective activities quite flexibly and children can move freely according to the needs of the teaching content, sometimes teacher-centered, sometimes whiteboard-centered. Primary schools in our city should also show continuity in setting up their environment. For example, we can create science corners and art corner in the lower grades of primary school classrooms. Of course, the materials put on the corner of the activity area in primary school classrooms should be slightly different from those in kindergartens, showing progressiveness to meet the needs of children’s development.

E. Bring Government Management and Supervision into Full Play

Preschool education is inseparable from the supervision, guidance and scientific management of the government and other education departments. We should learn from the experience of France and Japan, hiring educational consultants who have professional knowledge in both primary school and kindergarten. About the educational system, we should pay more attention to the organizational problems such as the number of teaching days, the number of class hours, and the student-staff ratio.

In addition, the government and education authorities can exert their influence through formulating policies by establishing clear, detailed and comprehensive laws and regulations to strengthen legislative guarantee so as to promote the implementation of preschool education. Government departments should also strongly encourage and support preschool education institutions to develop into a new stage that are not totally similar to "elementary schools", so as to create a new atmosphere in the early childhood education. Educational departments at all levels should strive to promote the balanced development of compulsory education and ban all types of enrollment examination and interview at primary school.

VI. CONCLUSION

In this paper, the author discussed the status quo of the education transition from kindergarten to primary school and made corresponding suggestions. The problems have been received worldwide attention and a large number of researches conducted by developed countries have provided a lot of excellent experience for this topic.

American kindergartens are basically attached to primary schools, with children from 4 to 6 years old, as the "primary school ladder". For children aged 5 years before the first grade of primary school, the preparation of education for one year is mainly to promote the development of all aspects of children and prepare for entering primary school. On education content, it is emphasized that education content should meet the requirements of the times, and it will carry out education for children in mathematics and natural science.

Switzerland and Britain respect for the needs of the parents, and two grades in kindergarten are set in the same environment as the first and second grade of primary school. And Japan implements the transition from the perspective of lifelong education, and sets its goal to develop life skills and learn basic things.

Transition from kindergarten to primary school makes a good preparation for children both in mental and physical aspects, whose essence is to help children transform to formal primary education successfully and fit new environment, thus they have a balance between body and mind and then become a generation of all-round development in future. To achieve the goal, kindergarten, primary school and family should make concerted efforts.

All in all, the transition from kindergarten to primary school is a huge project, which is related to children’ sustainable development. We should consider it under the background of lifelong education, instead of regarding it as a problem between the two education stages. Each party should plan as a whole, put children in the first place and strive for the smooth transition in Zhoushan city.
APPENDIX. QUESTIONNAIRE

幼小衔接教育情况调查问卷

尊敬的家长：

您好！“孩子就要上小学了，需要做些什么样的准备工作？”这是每一位即将入学儿童的家长所关心的话题。现就舟山幼小衔接教育情况进行如下调查，以方便您对孩子入小学是否做好准备有所了解，也便于我们的课题研究学习。希望您在百忙之中能抽出半小时左右的时间如实填写此问卷，以便于我们能收到最为真实详细的第手教育资料。

请您根据自己的实际情况认真完成全部题目。在确定的选项上打“√”或按要求填写。
十分感谢您真诚的合作！

一、基本资料
1、孩子性别：（1）男 （2）女 年龄：________岁
2、孩子就读的学校（幼儿园）：___________________
3、孩子所在的年级：（1）小班 （2）中班 （3）大班
4、您的家庭结构： （1）三口之家 （2）三代同堂
5、平时孩子的起居生活由谁照料？ （1）父母 （2）祖辈
6、学前阶段谁主要负责孩子的教育问题？（1）父母 （2）祖辈

二、幼小衔接教育情况调查
1、您觉得“幼小衔接”工作对于幼儿入学的重要程度是
1) 非常重要 2) 重要 3) 一般 4) 不重要
2、您觉得幼小衔接工作都包括什么？（可多选）
1) 知识储备 2) 多认字 3) 写字 4) 做算术 5) 拼音 6) 学习能力 7) 学习兴趣 8) 生活能力 9) 习惯养成 10) 社会交往能力 11) 上学的愿望
3、您觉得您的孩子对拼音（认读写）、汉字（认读写）、数学（1——100 的认知；20 以内的加减法）的掌握程度是
1) 很好 2) 一般 3) 比较吃力
4、您的孩子对上小学的态度是怎样的？（ ）
1) 向往 2) 无所谓 3) 恐惧
5、您会因为自己的孩子马上要上小学了，便想让他们学一些接近小学的课程吗?
1) 是 2) 不是
如果是，采用何种方式？1) 自己教 2) 培训机构学习
6、您的孩子即将上一年级，最令您担心的事情是什么？（可多选）
（1）上课时间长，怕孩子坐不住。（2）早上上学早，起不来。
（3）不习惯老师的教学风格。（4）孩子不知道如何结交新朋友。
（5）孩子不喜欢做功课。（6）孩子和同学比较成绩。
（7）听不懂老师的话。（8）动作慢，跟不上学习节奏。
（9）不会整理、保管自己的学具。（10）不会听课做笔记。
11）其他：如______________________

7、您孩子所在的幼儿园开展了哪些幼小衔接活动？（可多选）
1) 带孩子参观小学校园，走进一年级学生课堂，熟悉小学学习和生活环境
2) 培养入学儿童良好的学习能力和生活习惯
3) 培养入学儿童的社会适应性
4) 改进教学课程内容，适当增加小学课程
5) 邀请小学老师或校长进园指导幼小衔接教育工作
6) 邀请您共同探讨孩子如何步入小学的安排或参加一些相关的幼小衔接活动
7) 其他________________________________________

8、您希望幼儿园对课程有所改进吗?
1) 希望 2) 不希望
如果希望，有哪些______________________

9、您会为孩子的幼小衔接做哪些准备？希望幼儿园或小学为您孩子的幼小衔接做哪些准备工作？

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Applying Output-drive, Input-enabled Hypothesis in College Students’ Intercultural Communication Competence: A Case Study of Sichuan University of Arts and Science

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Abstract—Nowadays, globalization has already changed the whole world than anyone could imagine. China adopts an open mind to the change for globalization, and spares no effort to participate in international economic cooperation, which means more opportunities for Chinese students to study and work abroad. Therefore, it is not necessary but a must to cultivate college students’ intercultural communication competence. This paper is to conduct a survey in Sichuan University of Arts and Science, involving 180 non-English Major freshmen. By the combination of qualitative and quantitative analysis, this paper is to discuss the problems existing in the process of cultivating college students’ intercultural communication competence, such as: insufficient output of students’ language competence, and inadequate input of culture knowledge , and probe into the reasons for those problems. Meanwhile, this paper also put forward some solutions about how to cultivate college students’ intercultural communication competency with the perspective of output--driven, Input--enabled Hypothesis.

Index Terms—intercultural communication competence, output--driven, input--enabled Hypothesis, college English teaching, culture

I. INTRODUCTION

How to communicate with people from different cultural backgrounds? In the past, only diplomats, expatriates, and transnational travelers need to consider this problem. With the rapid development of society, especially the appearance of globalization, people in long distance are drawing closer to each other. Almost no country is made up of single nation and single culture; consequently, people will communicate with people from different cultures every day. After reform and opening up policy, China spares no effort to participate in international cooperation, and joined the WTO in 2001. Later, many multinational companies have established branches in China, offering a large number of jobs to people from different countries; meanwhile, many Chinese get the opportunities to study and work abroad. However, because of different social backgrounds, social systems, and customs, people have difficulties in understanding and communicating with each other (Petrakis, 2013). Although learning a foreign language, especially English is the best way to solve this problem, language learning and culture learning cannot be separated, as Mak (2010) asserted that language learning is a deep, conceptual activity which involves explicit analysis of language and culture. According to Milena (2017), understanding the ways in which culture shapes our attitudes about ourselves and others, developing critical awareness of ethnic, racial, gender and other inequalities and discrimination, and strengthening of individual responsibility, sensitivity and solidarity are essential in order to respect each culture for the development of humankind.

The key to make them understand each other is to get to know each others’ different cultures, therefore, culture learning is not a necessity but a must for a foreign language learner to obtain intercultural communication competence. However, until now it is still very hard to give a unanimous definition of Intercultural communication, and many scholars offer their own definition of this term. Stella Ting-Toomy (1999) offers her understanding of this term in her book Communicating Across Culture:“Intercultural communication is viewed as a symbolic exchange process between persons of different cultures. The general goal of effective intercultural communication is to create shared meanings between dissimilar individuals in an interactive situation”. Then, what is intercultural communication competence, for Janet and Milton Bennett, intercultural communication competence is the ability to communicate effectively in cross-cultural situations and to relate appropriately in a variety of cultural contexts (Schoeffel, 2014).

Nowadays, English has already become the most widely used language in the world. Therefore, English has become one of the required courses for contemporary Chinese college students. The intercultural communication competence of Chinese college students is the combination of English teaching and communication competence acquisition. General
Office of the Ministry of education issued *College English curriculum requirements* in July 2007 which pointed out that College English teaching in China was an integrated teaching system, at the guide of foreign language teaching theory, with English language knowledge and practical skills, and intercultural communication as the main content, together with a variety of teaching methods and teaching strategies (General Office of the Ministry of education, 2007). From curriculum requirements, it is not difficult to see that the cultivation of intercultural communication competence of college students should be one important goal of contemporary college English teaching. So how is the intercultural communication competence of current college students? And how to cultivate their intercultural communication competence effectively?

The paper is to analyze the problems in the process of cultivating college students’ intercultural communication competence and probes into the reason for those problems, based on the survey conducted in Sichuan University of Arts and Science which involved 180 non-English freshman. The Survey objectives are to find the problems existing in the process of cultivating students’ intercultural communication competence, and suggest solutions with the perspective of “Output- Drive, Input-Enabled Hypothesis”.

II. METHODOLOGY AND SURVEY DATE ANALYSIS

This thesis conduct a survey in the form of questionnaire, involving 180 non-English freshmen of Sichuan University of Arts and Science who are chosen randomly. By the combination of quantitative and qualitative analysis method, the date from questionnaire are analyzed to get to know the basic situation of the intercultural communication competence of the freshmen in Sichuan University of Arts and Science, furthermore, get a glimpse of the intercultural communication competence of Chinese college students of and offer suggestions to those problems.

A. Research Objective and Participator

The research objectives are to analyze: 1). current college students’ intercultural communication competence of Sichuan University of Arts and Science; 2). problems existing in the formation of intercultural communication competence and reasons for those problems; 3). the cultivation method of intercultural communication competence for Chinese college student.

This survey is conducted in the form of questionnaire. Questionnaires were distributed to 180 non-English major freshmen from Sichuan University of Arts and Science chosen randomly. All participators have already acquired certain English language ability because they have already learned English 7 or 10 year before entering College.

B. Research Methodology

This research employs both qualitative and quantitative analysis methods. The questionnaire is divided into four parts, and includes 29 questions, with the hope of exploring students’ intercultural communication awareness, language competence, intercultural attitude, and intercultural communication competence. In this survey, 180 questionnaires are distributed, and 172 valid questionnaires are collected, and the recovery rate is 95.5%. All participators are anonymous. All those strategies ensure that the data from questionnaire are credible.

C. Analysis of Survey Data

1. Evaluation and Analysis of Intercultural Communication Awareness

   There are 4 questions in this part, which evaluates students’ intercultural communication awareness.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PARTICIPATOR’S RESPOND ON THE ATTITUDE ABOUT INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A. Strong will to have intercultural communication experience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B. Want to have intercultural communication experience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C. Refuse to have intercultural communication experience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D. Not sure</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PARTICIPATOR’S RESPOND ON PERSONAL ABROAD EXPERIENCE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A. With abroad experience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B. Without abroad experience</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As seen from Table 1, most participators are looking forward to have intercultural communication with people from American and Britain (70%), and 26% participators have strong desire to experience intercultural communication. While only few participators refuse to have that experience (6%). 24% participators are not sure if they want to interact with people with different cultural background. The low degree of disagreement shows the necessity of offering more opportunities for student to have intercultural experience.

Generally Speaking, from table 2, most participators have no abroad experience, and only 5% of them have overseas experience. The surface reason for this is that school authorities don’t provide enough abroad projects to meet students’ needs. However, after a second thought, the deep reason is that if they want to participate in those projects, the ability of communication in English is a must, while most of them are lack of this ability. The examination-oriented education in
senior high school makes Chinese students focus on reading and writing, and ignore listening and speaking. However, listening and speaking weigh more than reading and writing in cross-cultural communication. Although many participators have already accumulated large vocabulary and mastered important English grammar before entering University, they still find it is very difficult to communicate in English. In intercultural communication, they can only use simple words like “Thank you”, “Goodbye” to have daily communication, and nothing more than that.

2. Evaluation and Analysis of English Language Competence

There are 5 questions in this part, which evaluates students’ four comprehensive ability of listening, speaking, reading and writing.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE 3</th>
<th>PARTICIPATORS’ RESPONSE ON LISTENING COMPREHENSION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A. completely lost of track of the radio programmer and TV series</td>
<td>55%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B. Get a part of the radio programmer and TV series</td>
<td>35%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C. Not sure</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE 4</th>
<th>PARTICIPATORS’ RESPONSE ON ORAL ENGLISH COMPREHENSION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A. Have Difficulty in using English to express himself</td>
<td>42%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B. Not sure</td>
<td>46%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C. With the ability to use English to express himself</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE 5</th>
<th>PARTICIPATORS’ RESPONSE ON READING COMPREHENSION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A. With the ability to read English Newspaper and Magazine without referring to dictionary</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B. Not sure</td>
<td>30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C. Have Difficulty in reading English Newspaper and Magazine without referring to dictionary</td>
<td>63%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3 demonstrates that most participators are lack of the necessary listening ability, because they (count for 55%) agree that they cannot follow the radio program and TV series from Britain and America. At the same time, and 35% of them are not sure whether they can or not. The reason behind this data is that students are short of basic listening training.

From Table 4, it is easy to see that 42% participators agree that they cannot express themselves clearly in English, and 46% of them are not sure about it. The reason behind this data is that English teaching in China gives priority to vocabulary and grammar for long time, which makes teachers spend much time in explaining vocabulary and grammar in class, and give after-class exercises to strengthen their language knowledge acquired in class. This teaching mode causes many English teachers emphasize the input of linguistic knowledge, but neglect to create opportunities for students to use language in simulated language environment , that is, the output of language. This kind of teaching mode ignores the essence of language learning. Consequently, teachers tend to equate English learning with vocabulary and grammar learning. Students take notes in class, and memorize words and grammar after class. For long time, this teaching mode of emphasizing input and ignoring output makes students unable to use English in language environment.

Table 5 demonstrates that more than half of the participators agree that they cannot read English newspapers and magazines without dictionaries and other auxiliary tools(count for 63%), at the same time, 30% participators are not sure whether they can or not. Only 7% of them can read English newspapers and magazines without dictionaries .The reason for this phenomenon is that when explaining words in class, teachers pay attention to the denotation and ignore the connotation, in other words, the cultural background behind word? However, it is the connotation of a word that makes a sentence difficult to understand. So when reading the original English newspapers and magazines, participators find that they cannot really understand the meaning of the article even there are no new words.

3. Evaluation and Analysis of Intercultural Communication Attitude

There are 7 questions in this part used to evaluate participators’ intercultural communication attitude.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE 6</th>
<th>PARTICIPATORS’ ATTITUDE TOWARDS INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A. Interested in other countries lifestyles and willing to communicate with people from other cultures</td>
<td>86%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B. Avoid communicating with people other cultures</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C. Not Sure</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As seen from table 6, most participators agree that they are interested in other countries’ lifestyles and values (count for 86%). They long to communicate with people from different cultures. Only 5% of them avoid intercultural communication. The above data show that the vast majority of them have a positive attitude towards intercultural communication, looking forward to enjoying their intercultural communication. More than half of the participators respect their counterpart’s ideas in the process of intercultural communication, and willing to their behaviors to adapt to their counterpart’s culture, at the same time they try to avoid prejudice and Prejudice in the process of intercultural communication. The above data indicate that most participators are with intercultural awareness. They are aware of the difference between their culture and other cultures, and willing to encounter these differences in an open manner.

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4. Evaluation and Analysis of Intercultural Communication Competence

There are 12 questions in this part used to evaluate participators’ intercultural communication competence.

**Table 7**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participators’ Response of Intercultural Communication Knowledge</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A. Do not know what to say in intercultural communication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B. Know what to say in intercultural communication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C. Not Sure</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 8**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participators’ Response to Western Custom</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A. Know nothing about Western Custom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B. Have a good understanding of Western Custom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C. Do no care</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 9**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participators’ Response to Western Non-Verbal Communication</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A. Know nothing about Western Non-Verbal Communication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B. Have a good understanding of Western Non-Verbal Communication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C. Not Sure</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 10**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participators’ Response to Western Space Language</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A. Know nothing about Western Space Language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B. Have a good understanding of Western Space Language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C. Not Sure</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As seen from table 7, 19% participant do not know what to say in intercultural communication, and 76% of them are not sure if they know what to say in intercultural communication. The above data show that most participators are without the ability to have intercultural communication. Because non-English teaching in Colleges is still examination-oriented, teachers focus on explaining language knowledge, ignoring the culture behind language, especially the culture and custom in intercultural communication. Students are used to memorizing vocabulary and the rules of grammar, and do not pay attention to the cultural knowledge related to intercultural communication.

From table 8, 9 and 10, it is not difficult to see 84% participators don’t know western customs, and 74% of them don’t know western non-verbal communication, meanwhile, 53% of them have no idea of the appropriate body distance in western culture. The above data show that most of them have not mastered the related knowledge of intercultural communication, and the reasons for those problems result from teachers’ misunderstanding of English teaching goal. Their interpretation of English as grammar and vocabulary learning makes them ignore the essence of language teaching, a tool for communication. Consequently, they do not realize the importance of cultivating college students’ intercultural communication competence.

Language is the carrier of culture, so it cannot be talked without culture. In *language and culture*, English education experts Deng Yanchang, Liu Runqing(1998) said that learning a foreign language not only need to master the pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary and idioms, but also need to know the way they use to look at things, to observe the world; and the way they use to reflect the thought, habits and behavior of their society. Nowadays, most college students can speak English, but that does not mean that they can use English to have intercultural communication, because language competence is just a part of intercultural communication competence. Although some teachers have already realized the importance of imparting cultural knowledge, they are still unable to impart enough culture education that because they are lack of cultural knowledge.

### III. Suggestion on Cultivation of College Students’ Intercultural Communication Competence at the Perspective of Output-drive, Input-enabled Hypothesis

Professor Wen Qiufang, from Chinese foreign language education research center of Beijing Foreign Studies University, proposed a new hypothesis “Output- Drive, Input-Enabled Hypothesis” in foreign language teaching. In this new hypothesis, output is defined as the drive of language acquisition, and also the objective of language acquisition; while input is defined as the mean to complete the task output and lay foundation for possible language output in the future, rather than simply as the ability to understand and accept knowledge. (Wen Qiufang, 2014) This paper is to discuss the training method of intercultural communication for college students from the perspective of this new Hypothesis.

#### A. Introduce Cultural Knowledge into Class Teaching

After fully aware of the importance of cultural education in cultivating college students’ intercultural communication, teacher should adjust teaching content intuitively; instead of just focusing on language knowledge explanation in the class, they should introduce language knowledge into class teaching. Because in the process of intercultural communication, many misunderstandings arise from people's different understanding of the same word for the same
word may contain opposite connotation. Therefore, teachers should guide students to understand the connotation of English vocabulary, that is, the loaded cultural meaning of word. Chinese are proud of being the descendants of dragon, because dragon is the symbol of power in traditional China culture. However dragon is the symbol of evil in western culture, like the one depicted in the England Epic poem Beowulf. Beowulf lead his people to kill the evil warrior dragon in attempt to defend their home. If students understand the different cultural connotation of the same word in China and Western countries, they will know why Westerners fell puzzled when Chinese call themselves the successors of dragon. There are huge differences in the use of color in China and western countries. For example, red is the symbol of happiness in China, a color often used in Wedding occasion, while in western countries, white symbolizes purity and innocence, a color often used in Wedding occasion. If lack of those cultural differences, they are easy to misuse color words in intercultural communication, which may cause conflicts during intercultural communication. What’s more, there are many words from the Bible, Greek mythology and literary masterpieces in English. Only with the knowledge of the cultural connotation behind these words, students can use these words in intercultural communication properly. At the same time, there are differences in the choice of topic for daily communication in different countries. Westerners prefer to talk about weather, sports, and pets, while seldom mention family, income and other sensitive private topics. Chinese is willing to talk about family, income, children, while seldom mention disease, death. Therefore in the process of intercultural communication, students must be careful when it goes to choose appropriate topics; otherwise it is likely to lead to the failure of intercultural communication.

B. Combine the Methods of Input and Output in Culture Acquisition

Many English learners believe that language acquisition must be based on a large number of listening and speaking practice, which also goes to the acquisition of culture knowledge. Therefore, many English learners believe that the best way to acquire culture knowledge is to listen to teacher attentively in class, read novels, magazines in English version or watch original English movies after class. Obviously, a large number of culture knowledge input, especially reading novels in English version, watching original English movies can arouse students’ enthusiasm to culture acquisition, but there is a big difference between the acquisition of culture knowledge and intercultural communication competence, that is to say, culture knowledge acquisition does not mean that students can use those knowledge properly in intercultural communication, as social and cultural school believes that foreign language learning should not separate learning and application, and learning should be integrated into the acquisition and utilization of culture knowledge (Firth, A & J. Wagner, 2007). Teacher should not only explain the cultural knowledge in class teaching, but also provide practice opportunities for students to output their acquired culture knowledge, in this way: students can obtain the intercultural communication competence. Otherwise, the culture knowledge acquired by students will only be the knowledge in their mind, for it never has the chance to be used in the actual language environment. For example, teacher can divide the whole class into 4 groups, each group with 10 students, and then assign different intercultural communication tasks to each group, such as 1) your boss send you to airport to meet your potential customers, how to communicate with them; 2) you take part in an international business negotiation in representation of your company, how to invite the other party to have dinner the end of the negotiations, and how to choose the appropriate topic at dinner; 3) you want to invite foreign teacher to go to a restaurant, how to invite him; 4) imagine you study abroad as an exchange student, during the spring festival you want to invite some foreign friends to dinner at home, how to prepare this gathering. After assigning different tasks, teacher can take 3-5 minutes to describe each task in detail and make a brief introduction of relevant background knowledge. Each group is given 10 minutes to prepare. They can allocate each one’s role at their own will and collect data for simulated situation practice. Finally, teacher should give each group 5-6 minutes to perform their intercultural communication task in front of all students. Then teacher should give his own comments, point out the problems in student’s intercultural communication performance, and put forward methods for improvement. After class, teachers should arrange appropriate simulated situation training to enable students to further consolidate their acquired culture knowledge.

C. Cultivate Students’ Consciousness of Intercultural Communication

Students are the recipient of intercultural communication. Therefore, their ideal of English learning should be changed, that is to say, they shouldn’t simply equate English learning with examination. College student need to know that the acquisition of intercultural communication competence is an important part of language learning. Meanwhile, they should realize why people from different areas have different customs, custom and value is because they have different cultures. Therefore, when interacting with people from different places, if they do not have culture awareness to tolerant those cultural differences, they will fail in cross-cultural communication. College student should put themselves and others on an equal position, learn to stand in others’ position to think problems in intercultural communication. For example, when Chinese people having meals with friends, they usually rush to pay the bills to show their hospitality, while foreigners will be surprised to see this and feel puzzled why most Chinese are so eager to pay bill. Because when foreigners eat together, they like to split the bill and pay their own part, which makes Chinese feel they lose face. Therefore, if they don’t know the difference between others and themselves, Chinese people will feel that foreigners are too mean, and Foreigners will think Chinese are so strange.

IV. CONCLUSION
The ultimate goal of College English Teaching is to cultivate college students’ intercultural communication competence, which is also the most important language ability in the new era. Therefore, university teacher, as the organizer of foreign language teaching, should give up traditional teaching method, give priority to cultivating students’ intercultural communication competence in their teaching, improve teaching methods, adjust teaching contents, and provide more opportunities for students to practice their intercultural communication competence. Secondly, teacher shouldn’t stop their way of absorbing the knowledge of culture from other countries in order to impart enough culture knowledge to students in class. Finally, as the recipient of intercultural communication competence, students should be open to cultural differences, cultivate their cultural awareness, and participate in intercultural communication practice actively.

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Professional Role of Tour Guides and Theoretical Consequences of Intercultural Communication

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Abstract—Intercultural communication between tour guides and foreign tourists, taking place in a number of tourist attractions in Tana Toraja, Indonesia, is a form of communication used to share information from various cultures and social groups. This factual condition of intercultural communication proves that; Firstly, none of the five informants (tour guides) selected which duties to perform as explicitly mentioned in the first theoretical consequence of intercultural communication by Sunnafrank (1989, p.44). As mentioned in the first theoretical consequence of intercultural communication, although intercultural communication is difficult, tour guides are unlikely to avoid it because it is assigned by the company hiring them, in addition to the fact that they already have professional competence as a tour guide, mastering international languages, cultural product knowledge and information related to tourist destinations. Secondly, in the communication process, none of the tour guides and foreign tourists reduced their communication intensity despite finding negative results. These two facts are the characteristics of intercultural communication between tour guides and foreign tourists in Tana Toraja, Indonesia. In terms of linguistics, findings lead to verbal forms used, both as the consequences of language relativity as well as the preferences of cultural experiences of each foreign tourist.

Index Terms—intercultural communication, professional role of tour guides, theoretical implication

I. INTRODUCTION

In today's modern era, the development of information-communication technology and transportation enables people around the world to interact intensively. Intercultural contact is inevitable. The world has become what McLuhan (1964, p.33) called the "Global Village". This intercultural contact does not necessarily go smoothly as there are cultural differences between people who interact. These include differences in languages, norms, and expectations that complicate the communication between people from different cultures or nations.

Such interactions are made possible by increasing and unhindered human mobility. Humans can easily travel to different parts of the world to visit new places, experience new cultures, meet different people, and explore business opportunities. In the dynamics of this relationship, there is an interaction, through which intercultural communication takes place. In the context of intercultural communication, an intermediary language is needed, known as lingua franca.

In practice, the role of English as a lingua franca is irrefutable. However, the complexity and fluctuation of intercultural communication situation cannot be easily overcome through the use of English. Various linguistic phenomena occur within the sphere of intercultural communication. The greater the intercultural differences are (and, therefore, the greater the difference in communication is), the more difficult it is to communicate. This difficulty can lead to, for example, more communication errors, more utterance mistakes, more misunderstanding, more misperceptions, and more frequent bypassing.

The greater the intercultural differences are, the greater the uncertainty and ambiguity in communication are. In the communication process, everyone will try to reduce this uncertainty in order to properly decipher, predict, and explain what they are communicating. Reducing uncertainty and ambiguity requires more time and effort for communication to be more meaningful.

The above paragraph shows that language is a reflection of culture. In other words, language represents certain characteristics of every culture. Therefore, languages of the world vary greatly in terms of their semantic characteristics and structural features. Characteristics of language, according to Sapir (1916, p.27), affect human cognitive processes. This underlies the fact that people who use different languages perceive and think about the world differently (language relativity).

In intercultural communication involving tour guides, verbal barriers in the form of polarization are still found. In this case, the reality is polarized. For example, a foreign tourist communicating with his guide polarized the following value: “...Ternyata, prosesi Rambu Solo’ itu berarti tinggi. Apa ini tidak berarti pemborosan?” (“... Apparently,
Rambu Solo' is a very expensive ceremony. Does this not mean waste? "). This example of verbal interaction shows the tendency of the tourist to take increasingly extreme position in terms of categorizing Rambu Solo' ceremony (polarization).

Another barrier in verbal interaction of intercultural communication can indicate indiscrimination. The term “indiscrimination” rests on the principle that verbal formulation can be trapped away from the undoubted potential of distinctive characteristics. The form of verbal formulation of indiscrimination is illustrated in the choice of the word "keras" (rough) in: "...Pak Carles Hutagalung itu orangnya kera ya?" ("... Mr. Carles Hutagalung is a rough man huh?!"). The information supporting the statement includes only information about Carles Hutagalung’s ethnicity who comes from Batak Tribe, and visual information obtained from the acquaintance process that lasted for 20 minutes. Although it seems easy to overcome, this symptom can generally be avoided when it has become a barrier to intercultural communication.

In order to maximize interaction, in intercultural communication, as in other forms of communication, each participant in the communication process will undoubtedly seek to maintain interaction. The thesis presented by Sunnafrank (1989, p.44) implies that there are three implications in intercultural communication. First, someone will interact with others that he/she expects will give a positive result. Since intercultural communication is difficult, then perhaps some people will avoid it. Thus, for example, someone will choose to speak with others who have much in common with him/her rather than with those who are very different from him/her. This principle is certainly not applicable in intercultural communication involving tour guides. Tour guides, in performing their duties professionally, cannot select which duties to perform as indicated by Sunnafrank. Any tour guide, whatever their cultural backgrounds, should be able to establish communication professionally.

Second, if intercultural communication gives positive results, every participant in the communication process will continue to engage in it and as much as possible improve the quality of their communication. However, if the result is negative, participants in the communication process will tend to reduce the intensity of communication. The negative prospect of this principle can not necessarily be applied due to professional role of tour guides. Even if encountering any communication barriers, a tour guide should be able to organize and explore his/her competence as a professional guide to achieve a positive communication situation.

Third, participants in the communication process will make predictions about which behaviors will induce positive communication results. For that, participants in the communication process will try to predict the results of their communication through, for example, the choice of topics, positions to be taken, nonverbal behaviors to be displayed, and so on. Participants then do what they think will give positive results and try to avoid what they think will lead to negative results. In this context, a tour guide should adorn his/her communication competence with this kind of prediction skill.

The profession of a tour guide in the domain of tourism has been so rapidly developed in the last two decades. In Indonesia, as a leading development domain in every period of national leadership, the development of this profession in tourism has reached the stage of establishing nationally certified competence standards since 2012. For this purpose, the central and regional governments, through their relevant networks (Ministry and Department of Tourism), actively organize education and training for this profession.

In fact, in general, the certification of every profession that demands standardized competence has been required through the National Agency for Professional Certification (BNSP). Professional tour guide certification is specially organized by the Institution of Certification for Tourism Professions (LSP) spread throughout Indonesia on the basis of BNSP license. Since it is urgent and relevant to maintain and improve the professional competence of the tour guides, this profession is licensed to empower it through a professional association called the Indonesian Tourist Guide Association (HPI). This association also provides education and training of tour guides.

The development of the professional competence of tour guides suggests that a number of principles in intercultural communication theoretically confirmed as imperative theses seem to fall and require further arrangement. The three theoretical consequences of intercultural communication by Sunnafrank (1989, p.44) seem to no longer be able to explain the empiric reality of a tour guide as a competent professional. In fact, empiric reality of professional tour guides oppose the first and second principles of intercultural communication consequences by Sunnafrank (1989).

The taxonomy process of the objects of this research lies in the concept of Communication as the grand theory, the concept of intercultural communication as the middle theory and linguistic relativity as the operational theory to solve language phenomena; verbal forms in intercultural communication between tour guides and foreign tourists:

**Intercultural Communication and Theory of Language**

Intercultural communication is communication that occurs between people who have different cultures. McLuhan (1964, p.33) states that the world today has become a "Global Village" so that interconnection becomes absolute. This intercultural contact does not necessarily go smoothly as there are cultural differences between people who interact. These include differences in languages, norms, and expectations that complicate the communication between people from different cultures or nations.

Communication is a process of using signs and symbols that bring meaning. Thus, the continuity of communication depends on the various signs and symbol systems used. This principle reveals the gap where the intermediary language (lingua franca) occupies an important position in intercultural communication. The lingua franca used in intercultural
communication might be a language coming from the culture of one of the participants in the communication process or not be the language spoken by both parties in the communication process.

Language studies can be initiated when the participants have the same interpretation of the meaning of symbols used in intercultural communication. The situation implies that intercultural communication can only take place and can be said to achieve its purpose if the cultural backgrounds of each participant in the communication process support the symbol systems used. The situation arises from the basic assumption that differences in communication are profound and related to semantics (Wierzbicka, 1991a, p.69).

The most common issue in terms of meaning in intercultural communication is when there is a difference in giving meaning to symbols due to different cultural backgrounds. Meaning is reality, while reality is encoded into culture (language). The phenomenon behind the premise emphasizes that there is not only a space for language study in intercultural communication, but intercultural communication is really a matter of language and culture. (Wierzbicka, 1991a, p.69).

The exposition above is an index that can lead to an understanding that the root of intercultural communication is language, especially sociolinguistics. The phenomenon of language in intercultural communication is even seen as a treasure that presents the richness of linguistics, both as art and science. Sapir (1968, p.19) has proved that there is a convergent perspective through the study of the phenomenon of language and culture, which is known as cultural theory of language.

Sapir (1968,19) emphasizes that the background of the linguistic (or grammar) system of any language is that it is not only a reproduction tool for conveying ideas, but also the one that forms ideas, forms and guides individual mental activity, for analyzing impression, synthesizing mental activity in communication. The formulation of ideas is not merely an independent process and a rational activity, but a distinct grammar different among other grammars.

Hence, language is cultural. In fact, language rules vary widely from one culture to another. Therefore, individuals from different cultures will be different in the way they perceive the world. For example, some languages have so many terms for 'snow', while some other languages do not even have a single term, especially for those the speakers of which have never seen it.

According to Sapir (1968, p.37) and Whorf (1956), the language of a culture will be directly related to how we think in the culture. This assumption is in line with the anthropological view of cultural relativity, which states that since different cultures have different languages and different worldviews, then they also have different beliefs and values.

Theory of Intercultural Communication

Referring to the discussion of the nature of communication, we know that identification of similarities is an important aspect of the process of information exchange. In accordance with the concept of "overlapping of interests", similarity is a sort of framework in communication. In order for the parties involved in the communication process to understand each other and thereby communicate effectively, they must have something in common in terms of background and experience. The term commonly used to describe similarities between parties in the communication process is "homophily". In other words, homophily is the degree of similarity in certain things such as beliefs, values, education, social status, etc., between two interacting individuals.

This belief makes it possible to achieve the same perception and meaning of an object or event. However, what about the intercultural communication that is based on the assumption of cultural differences? In terms of the basic principles of communication explained earlier, these differences would tend to reduce or inhibit the occurrence of effective communication. If the messages conveyed transcend cultural boundaries, what the sender means, in a certain context, will be interpreted in another context by the receiver. In this intercultural situation, there will be little or no "co-orientation, which is a requirement for communication in general". This co-orientation means that between the two communicating parties there should be a similarity in terms of orientation to the topic of their communication (Saral, 1979, p.395). It can also be said that based on the principles of homophily, people tend to interact with others whom they have something in common with in terms of social characteristics.

Dodd (1982, p.168-170) proposes a classification of homophily dimensions as follows: (1) Homophily in appearance; (2) Homophily in background; (3) Homophily in attitude; (4) Homophily in value; (5) Homophily in personality. However, in terms of the importance of intercultural communication, differences do not rule out the possibility of communication between individuals or cultural groups. Differences are even seen as the framework or matrix in which communication occurs. In this respect, the theory presented by Grannovetter (1973) is relevant: "The strength of weak ties suggests the importance of heterophily relations in the exchange of information. In communication, there seems to be a balance between similarity and difference between what is considered as usual and new.

A basic proposition states that the power of information exchange on communication (between two people) has to do with the degree of heterophily between them. In other words, people will receive new, informational things, through weak ties. In line with the above concept, there is a concept of equifinality in system theory that in any given system, the same goal can be achieved, although different starting points and processes have been employed. Similarly, in terms of interpersonal relationship, an idea mentions that two people will act the same even if they have received or experienced a very different stimuli (Bennet, 1998, p.117).

In relation to the foregoing, Dodd (1982, p.176-177) holds that in communication, the essence of a social system can affect the principle of homophily in the search for information, especially in modern society. In that view, it is
emphasized that people are looking for technically more skilled individuals who can show an increasing degree of innovation. In this case, such a heterophile situation may occur if difference is not too large, known as optimal heterophily. Tolerance to this difference is possible, because in the relationship of two people who are perfectly homophile, their knowledge of innovation will be the same. Ideal circumstances in polarized information acquisition include; heterophile in terms of knowledge, but homophile enough in terms of characteristics or other variables, such as socioeconomic status.

Thus, if the potential effect of these differences on communication is recognized or acknowledged, other problems may lie in the means, strategies or techniques of communication employed. In intercultural communication, individual differences can be made bigger by cultural differences. The perception of these cultures is the starting point of the most basic assumption of intercultural communication, namely the need to recognize and acknowledge differences to be bridged through communication.

Communication as Convergence Process;

When related to symbolic interactionism of the dynamic and ongoing process of social interaction, there is a communication model that views communication process as an exchange of and sharing of information over a period of time. With this communication model, an approach, which is not bound to the rules or boundaries of a particular culture, is achieved, but can describe the reality of society.

Communication in this case is seen not as a communication from the sender to the receiver, but as a circular or cyclical communication. Parties involved in the communication process alternate roles as senders or receivers termed as transceivers, until finally achieving goals and mutual interests or understanding. Thus, communication always implies the existence of interconnectedness.

Verbal Language in the Context of Intercultural Communication

Both verbal and nonverbal languages as a form of message used by humans to make contact with the reality of their environment have similarities; (1) Using symbol system; (2) produced by individuals; (3) Others also give meaning to the symbols produced.

Based on this similarity, intercultural communication can be interpreted as a process of mutually giving meaning to the symbols conveyed between interacting individuals. Sarbaugh (1979, p.72) attempts to relate this process with the notion of communication. He defines communication as the process of using signs and symbols that bring meaning to others, as the following assumptions: (1) The continuity of communication depends on the various signs and symbol systems used; (2) Communication takes place only when the participants have the same interpretation of the meaning of symbols used in intercultural communication; (3) The most common issue in terms of meaning in intercultural communication is when there is a difference in giving meaning to symbols due to different cultural backgrounds.

Signs and symbols are the tools and materials used in interaction. The ability of human beings to use symbols makes them unique, which distinguishes them from other living beings. However, this unique ability and the process of performing a truly complex symbolization are usually underestimated, except in the face of difficulties, after which succeeding in finding "the right words" to describe something.

The discussion of the concept of symbols must begin with an understanding of the concept of signs. A sign is an element used to represent another element. All things used as a sign are different from the things they represent. Faules & Alexander (1978, p.28-30) classify the signs into: (1) natural signs, and (2) artificial signs. Natural signs are physical phenomena used to represent other phenomena. For example, the leaves are dry and falling, or the cold indicates the beginning of autumn. Artificial signs are phenomena created to represent other phenomena, for example, traffic lights that indicate when to start or to stop driving.

The main difference between natural signs and artificial signs lies in their basic nature. Natural signs are active and artificial sign are interactive. Active signs are used for personal interpretation, whereas interactive signs used by two or more people are considered to have been able to represent something. For example, someone shows us that an orange with thin, not hard and smooth skin, will taste sweet and watery. It turns out that we can prove it by choosing and eating an orange that has these signs. This experience can be passed on to others so that they are not wrong in choosing oranges. The way to do so is not to bring oranges to everyone, but simply using words (artificial signs) to explain the signs to others (interaction). For ourselves, the orange itself is physically an active natural sign, used to make personal interpretations. For the next person, the orange is already an artificial sign.
Artificial signs can be divided into signals and symbols. Signals are artificial signs that generate predictable responses by receivers. Signals are artificial signs that are expected to result in a mutually recognized response. For example, traffic lights showing the red light on will produce an automatic response to anyone who sees it to stop driving or at least a prediction that they will stop driving. Thus, in this case, it is clear that people have been conditioned to respond equally to a signal.

As other kinds of artificial signs, symbols generate degrees of uncertainty because of the ambiguity experienced by the receiver and thus ruling out the possibility of prediction of the response to them. The response to symbols is learned but not conditioned. The learned response is always based on the unique experience of each person. The application of the learned response can be described as stimulus-organism-response (S-O-R). In contrast, conditioned response describes the state of the stimulus to the response (S-R). In other words, filtering the stimulus through the response is to distinguish symbols from signals. Signals generate conditioned response and symbols result in learned response.

Such a difference leads to the conclusion that all artificial signs begin as symbols and some of the symbols are repeated and reinforced repeatedly to form signals. As a result, the difference between signals and symbols must be based on the functional response rather than on the elements and the inherent nature that they contain. Therefore, it is not possible to compile a list of signs that can be classified as signals or symbols. In this case, the context in which signs are conveyed is of paramount importance in determining the interpretation of the person of them (Figure 2).

The following scheme presents the categorization and differentiation of signs:

![Figure 2. Signs Categorization and Differentiation](Source: Faules & Alexander, (1978, p.30))

Referring to the scheme, symbols can be said to have the following qualities: (1) A product of human activities; (2) Representing various concrete and abstract parts of reality; (3) Having rules for their use; (4) Being arbitrary and due to being merely representative of something else beyond them, their meaning may vary for others.

Symbols can be classified into; (1) Verbal symbols, as spoken and written words (2) Non-verbal symbols, as a form of language/behavior without words. Therefore, the use of symbols in the process of intercultural communication can be viewed from the dimensions of verbal and non-verbal processing.

The most common form of human verbal language is the spoken language. Written language is a way of recording spoken language by making signs on paper as well as on copper sheets and others. This writing allows humans to record and store knowledge so that it can be used in the future or transmitted to the next generations.

Language consists of symbols (words) and rules of use, so in learning another language (second language), the two things must be taken into consideration. In addition to words, the rules also differ in each language. Spoken language consists of symbols and sounds that can represent objects, feelings, and ideas.

Therefore, human skills and abilities affect the use of sounds and signs in place of objects and feelings. They include four activities, namely receiving, storing, processing and disseminating symbols. It is wrong to say that words have meaning in themselves. In this case, what has meaning is the person who uses them. Words simply generate meaning to those using them. Therefore, words can be the same, but they are different in meaning. These basic assumptions suggest that there is no such thing as "real" meaning because everyone, through his or her personal experience, determines the meaning of a symbol subjectively. Humans can have the same meaning only to the extent that they have the same experience or can anticipate the same experiences.

Culture teaches people to name things, people, and ideas in terms of their practice, use and importance. Usually, important things are given a specific name or label. For example, in a community who consume rice as staple food, there are special words that describe different kinds of rice. Another example, Eskimos have a variety of special terms for different types and forms of snow. Similarly, French people have very detailed and varied names to describe various foods and wines.

According to Sapir (1968, p.19) and Whorf (1956), language serves not only as a mechanism for communication, but also as a guide to social reality. In other words, language not only describes perceptions, thoughts and experiences, but also determines and shapes them. Such a principle is not much different from the subject of sociolinguistic studies (sociology of language) that examine the relationship between language structure or speech performance and social structure (in the form of interaction).
II. RESEARCH METHOD

The primary data was collected through interviews. Meanwhile, the secondary data was collected by recording the conversation between tour guides and foreign tourists at natural and cultural attractions in Tana Toraja, and through document review. Data sources include; five tour guides and twelve foreign tourists coming from different countries.

III. DISCUSSION

Intercultural contact put forward differences in language, norms, and expectations so that they are theoretically identified as communication barriers. Sunnafrank (1989, p.44) conceptually determined the barriers to intercultural communication into three consequences of intercultural communication. However, the factual reality of intercultural communication of tour guides shows different characteristics and tendencies. This research directs its purpose to this issue by utilizing seven indicators of study. Determination of the study at the same time indicates the presence of tendencies different from the established theoretical consequences.

Referring to the definition proposed by Lauring, Jakob and Selmer (2011), Liliweri (2011), intercultural communication between tour guides and foreign tourists, Tana Toraja, Indonesia, is a form of communication used to share information from various cultures and social groups. This factual condition of intercultural communication proves that; firstly, none of the five informants (tour guides) selected which duties to perform. They will guide tourists of any nation in the name of professional duties. This is different from the first theoretical consequence of intercultural communication by Sunnafrank (1989, p.44). Similarly, all foreign tourists selected their guide without any consideration.

As mentioned in the first theoretical consequences of intercultural communication, although the intercultural communication is difficult, the tour guides are unlikely to avoid it because it is assigned by the company hiring them, in addition to the fact that they already have a professional competence as a tour guide, mastering international languages, cultural product knowledge and information related to tourist destinations. Secondly, in the communication process, none of the tour guides and foreign tourists reduced their communication intensity despite finding negative results. These two facts are the characteristics of intercultural communication between tour guides and foreign tourists in Tana Toraja, Indonesia. It seems that the factual condition that characterize the object of the study suggests its implication of opposing to two of the three consequences of intercultural communication by Sunnafrank (1989, p.44).

The distinctiveness of intercultural communication setting between tour guides and foreign tourists in Tana Toraja, Indonesia, although not consistent with the first and second theoretical consequences of intercultural communication, still shows some findings of communication barriers in verbal forms. The findings of these verbal forms are present as the consequence of language relativity as well as the preferences of the cultural experiences of each foreign tourist. These verbal forms maximize their influence on the communication process between both parties and indicate barriers to intercultural communication. Of the seven theoretical indicators used in the identification of the factual problems of this research, only six were found indicating communication barriers that were dominantly played by foreign tourists. The seven theoretical indicators used in the identification of the factual problems of intercultural communication are all things that hinder the occurrence of effective communication (Chaney and Martin, 2014, p.11).

The forms of intercultural communication barriers found include; (1) Two forms of verbal polarization. Both are viewed in socioeconomic perspective. Verbal polarization is present as a form of comparison between the realities of Ma'nen ritual in Tana Toraja, observed with knowledge possessed by informants. This is the managerial aspect of organizing the cultural event. To the informants' knowledge, interesting cultural events such as Ma'nene ritual should get financial support from the local government. This is deemed necessary because the local government has already scheduled it in the regional tourism calendar, and because the informants sees the local government interest in this context. Otherwise, the informants would consider the Ma'nene ritual to be wasteful, as in the following excerpts of the interview:

"...according to your explanation, this event (Ma'nene) is a family event, which is to clean and replace the ancestral body clothes by the descendants. Is the entire cost of Ma'nene's party borne by the descendants of the family? ...............

"...I think, because in this modern era, the tradition has been used as a tourist attraction by the government, the government participates to finance such cultural events. But if not and self-financed by family members, does not this mean waste? " (April 12, 2016, 11:00 am).

(2) Intentional orientation; There are two types of Intentional Orientation found, seen from psychological condition. An informant, a female tourist, experienced a panic attack when looking at creepy pictures. Another informant was a male tourist who was not pleased to be in a traffic jam while traveling to Kampung Lolai tourist attraction known as "Land in the Cloud". Cultural experience serves as a reference for Mrs. "M"’s reaction. Thus, photographs of the deceased’s body considered creepy actually serve only as a mere stimulus. Similarly, the meaning of the verbal symbol in Mr. "EK”’s statement is a derivation of cultural experience. Traffic congestion is a stimulus. The two verbal forms expressed by both informants are the apologies of their own psychological conditions, as the following data reveals:

"...I don't want to see this picture.... (Mrs. "M" screamed as she threw a picture of the deceased's body in the Rambu Solo' ritual she had just seen). (June 27, 2016, 13:15 pm)

"... we should turn to other attractions. The situation is getting less comfortable." (26 April, 2017, 10:00 am).
(3) Description and inference: Data on Description and Inference appears with non-figurative-non persona language background and others with literary style. The two types are very different but show the effort to show the quality and weight of strong inference. Through its linguistic capacity as a cultural experience, the tendency to build reality into the structure of scientific logic is the workings or language skills of informants as academics in shaping the reality of the Ma’nene tradition they perceived. Similarly, the inference form of description and inference in literary language is the ability and the workings of an artist’s language in shaping the reality of the Toraja figuratively, as the following data presents:

"... Yes, I must accept that fact as a proven fact through my vision. Therefore, I also mention that although it is still difficult to establish the logical structure, but because I witnessed it myself, then I must accept it as fact. At that time, even my body was shaking and sweating watching it. So fantastic! (April 28, 2017, 11:23 am).

"... of course only the word "fantastic" I can say to package and legitimize the fact that a pair of corpses are able to walk by themselves to their graves after they have been cleaned and changed. Because only able to annotate the facts into a word "fantastic" then, meaning and explanation more than that, I have not get. You are right; it is an inferential statement that does not support descriptive logic." (April 28, 2017, 11:45 am).

"... for me everything is a work. It could be a human work, it could be a work of nature or god. Therefore, when witnessing Kete ‘Kesu, I immediately chuckled in awe. Consciously or unknowingly, intentionally or unintentionally, in my opinion, Kete ‘Kesu is a masterpiece of Toraja People. My imagination even captures the message that the great work (Kete ‘Kesu) is about humanity. (April 28, 2017, 21:00 pm).

"... If so, Tongkonan for the Toraja People, is not merely a place to live. Moreover, Tongkonan represents the life guidance for Toraja People. Which means the houses are not shaped Tongkonan here and there, not the original Toraja?

"... as I make that statement, my focus is the fact of the Torajans who deeply respect the noble values of their culture and religion and the facts about the Tongkonan house that contain the noble values of culture and religion as well as the facts about the condition of the houses in this city (Makale) which is dominantly modern and only a few form Tongkonan." (April 29, 2017, 21:41 pm).

(4) Evaluative error pattern; The verbal form of Evaluative Error Pattern comes with a tendency to bypass in evaluating reality. This is based on the explanation received about the values contained in Tongkonan as objects of Toraja cultural material. The informants tried to understand that Tongkonan contains substantial meanings that provide guidelines of the ethical-religious and social life of Toraja people. The verbal form of Evaluative Error Pattern is based on differences in the informants’ cultural perceptions, causing differences in interpreting information about the Tongkonan concept provided by the tour guides. This communication barrier by Chaney and Martin (2004) is referred to as an obstacle arising from differences in cultural perceptions that individuals have about something in the communication process, as the following data illustrates:

"... If so, Tongkonan for Toraja people, is not merely a place to live. More than that, Tongkonan represents the guidelines of life for the people of Toraja. That means the houses are not shaped Tongkonan here and there, not the original Toraja huh? (April 29, 2017, 11:00 pm).

(5) Language relativity: The verbal form of language relativity embodies its indication through the six verbal forms found as evidence of the nature of language. Language relativity, in this case, is relevant with the nature of the language referred to as arbitrary by Ferdinand De Saussure (1966). Through the Signifiant and signifie dichotomy, De Saussure (1966, p.67) asserts the absence of a mandatory relationship between language symbols (in the form of sounds) and the concept or meaning referred to by a symbol.

(6) Static evaluation; The form verbal of static evaluation comes from psychological condition. The psychological condition underlying the presence of the verbal form of static evaluation can be explained through the thought of Triandis (1994) that the relationship between culture and human development includes the tendency to form psychological condition such as disappointment. The cultural experience of the informants does not tolerate the complained incident so that their statements serve as an extended reaction with anger over the treatment they receive, as the following data illustrates:

"... I'm not comfortable with that second driver. Just now, when about to leave, he was shouted almost right in my ears, telling the tourists to get on the bus. I think that attitude is inappropriate and makes me uncomfortable. Please transfer me to another bus." (June 27, 2017, 11:29 am).

Indiscrimination; the verbal form of indiscrimination occurs from the informants’ statements followed by a tendency to feel annoyed and disappointed. Psychological condition of being "disappointed" allows the presence of the verbal form of static evaluation, the mechanism of which is very possible for anyone. Every human being, with any cultural and linguistic backgrounds, has his or her own way of carrying out the mechanism of indiscrimination thinking. It can be explained through the thought of Triandis (1994) that the relationship between culture and human development includes the tendency to form psychological condition such as anger or disappointment. In terms of the cultural experience of informants, an incident should have not happened if the hotel staff was disciplined in performing their duties. Cursing and swearing as habits of people in developing and developed countries are a way to vent disappointment, as the following data shows:

"... My red-colored bag is not on the bus! I ask the hotel clerk, do you see my bag put into the trunk of the bus or left at the hotel? He just answered did not know. Supposedly the hotel clerk informed us of every guest’s belongings put in
the bus luggage. Hotel services should include surveillance of guest goods as we are still staying at the hotel. I am fed up with this. shit! third country service. "(April 26, 2017, 10:00 am).

IV. CONCLUSION

The seven verbal forms found indicating barriers to intercultural communication occur in empirical realities that deny the first and second theoretical consequences of intercultural communication by Sunnafrank (1989, p.44). This is a theoretical implication of this research. All the data related to verbal forms found is a reinforcement and reaffirmation that the involvement of differences in language, cultures and expectations in naming reality as an effort to communicate the intent and purpose of communicant and communicator in turn is still a significant barrier to intercultural communication between tour guides and foreign tourists.

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On Building a Specialized Chinese-English /English-Chinese Electronic Dictionary for Chinese Business English Learners*

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Abstract—Based on needs analysis, this paper studies the needs of Business English (BE) learners on acquiring business terms. An online questionnaire was conducted on full-time undergraduate business English majors and international business majors in the School of International Business English at Guangdong University of Foreign Studies and 254 valid questionnaires were collected. The finding shows that a customized specialized C-E/E-C electronic dictionary is in great need during the 4-year-learning process of BE learners, while disadvantages of existing C-E/E-C electronic dictionaries are spotted. According to the data collected from the survey, author discuss the disadvantages of existing Chinese-English/English-Chinese (C-E/E-C) electronic dictionaries and tries to put forward improvement suggestions on building a specialized C-E/E-C electronic dictionary from the perspective of BE learners. This research will help business-English term teaching and specialized C/E-E-C electronic dictionary compiling.

Index Terms—needs analysis, electronic dictionary, Business English term, Business English learner

I. INTRODUCTION

“In 2006, Business English was approved by the Ministry of Education as an undergraduate major. Since then, Business English major has been successively introduced into 216 colleges and universities in China” (Zhong et al., 2015, p.4). From then on, Business English (BE) related researches, accordingly, have always been hot topics, of which the study of BE dictionary is a significant part. The BE learners mentioned in this paper mainly refer to full-time undergraduate BE major students in China. “The first two years of BE major students are filled with intensive English teaching and training courses with business background teaching materials so that the BE program can equip students with knowledge and skills of English, and meanwhile, pave the way for the next stage of business-course teaching in English” (Zhang, 2011, p.9) After the English learning and training courses of the first two years, majority of BE learners may have laid a solid foundation of general English knowledge and opt to further attach greater importance to the accumulation of business related knowledge in English. Furthermore, electronic dictionary has become a heated trend for both English learner and teacher. Therefore, during this learning process, in which BE learners are going through the middle phase from learning language to acquiring business related knowledge in English, a specialized Chinese-English/English-Chinese (C-E/E-C) electronic dictionary that can serve as an encyclopaedia for them to acquire business related knowledge is in great need.

II. NEEDS ANALYSIS ON BUSINESS ENGLISH LEARNERS

Needs Analysis refers to such methods as introspection, interviews, questionnaires and so on so forth that can be carried out to investigate the needs of the target object. Target Situation Analysis (TSA), proposed by Hutchinson and Waters (1987), can be employed to investigate the future requirements and to which the learners’ attitudes. While Present Situation Analysis (PSA), put forward by Allwright (1982), can be used to spot learners’ current deficiency in knowledge and skills. And Learning Situation Analysis (LSA), mentioned by Hutchinson and Waters (1987), includes teaching resources, learners’ knowledge, skills, study strategies and learning motivation. “Just as no medical intervention would be prescribed before a thorough diagnosis of what ails the patient, so no language teaching program should be designed without a thorough needs analysis” (Long, 2005, p.1) Similarly, words serve as fundamental bricks for learners to learn a foreign language and the acquisition of business terms is the first step for BE learners to have further study on business related knowledge. Therefore, only if the BE learners’ needs are clearly observed and taken into consideration, can compilers develop an electronic dictionary that is of great help for them on going through the 4-year courses in an efficient and effective way.

This survey was conducted on full-time undergraduate students who were business English majors and international business majors in the School of International Business English at Guangdong University of Foreign Studies in June.

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2017. The reason why business English majors and international business majors in International Business English Program at Guangdong University of Foreign Studies were chosen as study subjects is because that the SEIB in GDUFS is the first one in China to launch the Business English program on the undergraduate, postgraduate and doctoral levels, hence, those business English majors and international business majors can be regarded as representatives of the majority of BE learners in China.

The questionnaire was designed based upon previous interview findings and 254 questionnaires were issued and collected and 254 were valid.130 were business English majors and 124 were international business majors, and 60 freshmen, 67 sophomores, 70 juniors and 57 seniors. This questionnaire was designed to study the needs of BE learners on business terms study and serve as reference for compilers to build a more BE-learner-friendly specialized electronic dictionary for Chinese BE learners.

Questions involved in the questionnaire and interview, including one-choice questions, multiple-choice questions and open questions, were designed based on such kinds of analysis mentioned above as Target Situation Analysis (TSA), Present Situation Analysis (PSA) and Learning Situation Analysis (LSA) to study (1) the relation considered by BE learners between the acquisition of business terms and that of business related knowledge; (2) current deficiency of BE learners in business term knowledge; (3) the objective conditions that limit the effective acquisition of business terms; (4) the current situation of the usage of electronic dictionary of BE learners; (5) the disadvantages of electronic dictionary in terms of business term study; (6) requirements on further function and information concerning business terms that are expected to be provided by electronic dictionary.

III. FINDINGS

With the analysis of the data drawn from the questionnaire attached, this part discusses the findings from the needs of BE learners on business terms study and the disadvantages of existing electronic dictionaries so as to pave the way for the further suggestions on building a specialized C-E/ E-C electronic dictionary for Chinese BE learners

A. Needs of Business English Learners on Business Terms Study

“Learners were seen to have different needs and interests, which would have an important influence on their motivation to learn and therefore on the effectiveness of their learning” (Hutchinson et al., 1987, p.8). Compared with other English learners, BE learners have their own specific needs on learning English, especially for the acquisition of business terms. Therefore, it is needed to see what is the current situation of these students and what are the needs required to be met.

(1) There are few statistically differences between the needs of business English majors and international business majors in SEIB, while there are some differences among their needs from different grades. The author sets the first and second questions to collect the background information of majors and grades of the objects, aiming to explore whether there are different needs between business English majors and international business majors and among that from 4 grades. The differences will be demonstrated and expounded in corresponding paragraphs.

(2) Majority of BE learners reckons that there are close and significant relation between the acquisition of business terms and that of business related knowledge. The study shows that 94.49% of the study subjects (showed in Q3) reckons that it is needed to attach great importance to the accumulation of the knowledge of business terms at their current stage, which means that business terms are always on the top of the list for BE learners at each grade and they can never stop acquiring them during their 4-year-studying process. In addition, over 95.66% of BE learners (showed in Q5) do not think they have accumulated enough knowledge of business terms at the current stage. And accordingly, it can arrive at the reason why 63.39% of them (showed in Q6), claims that they feel difficult when studying business courses and 94.88% (showed in Q7) insists that the previous accumulation of business terms can be of great help on studying those courses.

| TABLE 1 Q3. DO YOU THINK IT IS NEEDED TO ATTACH GREAT IMPORTANCE TO THE ACCUMULATION OF THE KNOWLEDGE OF BUSINESS TERMS AT THIS STAGE? |
| --- | --- |
| Option | Percentage |
| A. yes | 94.49% |
| B. no | 3% |

| TABLE 2 Q5. DO YOU THINK YOU HAVE ACCUMULATED ENOUGH KNOWLEDGE OF BUSINESS TERMS AT THIS STAGE? |
| --- | --- |
| Option | Percentage |
| A. not enough | 40.94% |
| B. not very enough | 54.72% |
| C. relative enough | 3.94% |
| D. enough | 0.39% |
Q6. DO YOU FEEL DIFFICULT WHEN STUDYING BUSINESS COURSES?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Option</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A. not difficult</td>
<td>1.57%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B. not very difficult</td>
<td>20.87%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C. relative difficult</td>
<td>53.94%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D. very difficult</td>
<td>9.45%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E. did not attend these courses</td>
<td>14.17%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Q7. DO YOU THINK THE PREVIOUS ACCUMULATION OF KNOWLEDGE OF BUSINESS TERMS CAN BE OF GREAT HELP ON STUDYING BUSINESS COURSES?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Option</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A. yes</td>
<td>94.88%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B. no</td>
<td>5.12%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

BE students think they should pay more attention on the study of Chinese/English equivalents, disciplines and application fields, collocation and direction, encyclopedic information in Chinese, and encyclopedic information in English, and at the meanwhile, they should focus the most on disciplines and application fields (76.38%) and the least on pronunciation (28.35%) of business term. Besides, as they have stepped to the next studying stage, fewer and fewer of them, showed in table 6, would focus on pronunciation. The study also shows (in Q8) that 69.69% considers that it is hard to distinguish the business meanings from a general word and the different usages of synonymous business terms. And 53.15% thinks they merely know the simple translation of business terms without knowing the application situations, 52.76% merely know the Chinese/English equivalent of the business terms and 40.94% feels it is hard to handle the meaning of business terms itself. This shows the difficulty on learning business term itself.

Q4. THE KNOWLEDGE OF BUSINESS TERMS AT THIS STAGE SHOULD BE FOCUS ON

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Option</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A. pronunciation</td>
<td>28.35%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B. Chinese/English equivalents</td>
<td>64.57%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C. disciplines and application fields</td>
<td>76.38%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D. collocation and direction</td>
<td>71.26%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E. encyclopedic information in Chinese</td>
<td>53.94%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F. encyclopedic information in English</td>
<td>62.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G. others</td>
<td>1.18%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>X</th>
<th>Y</th>
<th>Freshman</th>
<th>Sophomore</th>
<th>Junior</th>
<th>Senior</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>pronunciation</td>
<td>53.33%</td>
<td>29.85%</td>
<td>18.57%</td>
<td>10.53%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Q8. THE DEFICIENCIES ON THE MASTERING OF BUSINESS TERMS THAT YOU THINK YOU HAVE ARE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Option</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A. hard to handle the meaning of business terms itself</td>
<td>40.94%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B. hard to distinguish the business meanings from a general word</td>
<td>69.69%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C. merely know the Chinese/English equivalent of the business terms</td>
<td>52.76%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D. merely know the simple translation of business terms without knowing the application situations</td>
<td>53.15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E. hard to distinguish different usages of synonymous business terms</td>
<td>69.69%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F. no deficiencies</td>
<td>1.18%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G. others</td>
<td>0.79%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(4) Though business-term-learning process is obscure and hard to master, BE learners think the difficulty is also caused by the shortage of available additional learning materials that can be of significant support during the learning process. The study shows from Q9 that students think that the reason why they failed to learn business terms effectively, to a great extent, is because that the meanings of many business terms are close to each other (73.62%), it is hard to tell them apart and those terms are required to be used in specific situations with strict standards (73.62%). What’s more, the features like wide range of fields (67.32%) and obscure connotations (51.18%) of business terms also win many votes. Compared with the difficulties brought by the business term itself, the objective condition like the shortage of learning materials concerning the knowledge of business terms, which accounts for 86.61%, wins the most votes for hindering BE learners from learning business terms effectively. What’s more, the reason of scattered online resources taking up 60.24% and the reason of current dictionaries failing to provide needed information occupies 51.97%, which also indicates that there are plenty of work could be done to better support BE learners.
Q9. THE DIFFICULTIES OF BUSINESS TERMS THAT HINDER YOU FROM LEARNING BUSINESS TERMS EFFECTIVELY ARE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Option</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A. business terms cover a wide range of fields</td>
<td>67.32%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B. business term itself is obscure and hard to master</td>
<td>51.18%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C. the meanings of many business terms are close to each other and hard to tell</td>
<td>73.62%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D. business terms are required to be used in specific situations with strict standards</td>
<td>73.62%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E. no difficulties</td>
<td>1.18%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F. others</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Q10. THE OBJECTIVE CONDITIONS THAT HINDER YOU FROM LEARNING BUSINESS TERMS EFFECTIVELY ARE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Option</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A. the attached glossary of business terms in textbook is too simple</td>
<td>38.98%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B. lacking learning materials concerning the knowledge of business terms</td>
<td>86.61%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C. current dictionaries fail to provide needed information</td>
<td>51.97%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D. related online resources are scattered</td>
<td>60.24%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E. others</td>
<td>2.36%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(5) Such information concerning business terms as belonged disciplines or fields (74.41%), encyclopaedic information (70.47%), Chinese/English equivalents (60.02%), English definition (65.75%), Chinese definition (58.66%), sentence examples (48.43%), and differentiation among synonyms/antonyms (44.09%) are highly required by BE learners, while the pronunciation (37.4%) and synonyms and antonyms of business terms (38.58%) are in rather low demand (showed in Q11). Still, students at higher grades tend to attach greater importance to the encyclopaedic information while less to the pronunciation about business terms.

Q11. WHEN LOOKING BUSINESS TERMS UP IN A DICTIONARY, YOU WANT TO OBTAIN SUCH INFORMATION AS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Option</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A. pronunciation</td>
<td>37.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B. belonged disciplines or fields</td>
<td>74.41%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C. Chinese/English equivalents</td>
<td>60.02%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D. Chinese definition</td>
<td>58.66%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E. English definition</td>
<td>65.75%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F. synonyms/antonyms</td>
<td>38.58%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G. differentiation among synonyms/antonyms</td>
<td>44.09%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H. encyclopedic information</td>
<td>70.47%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I. sentence examples</td>
<td>48.43%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>J. others</td>
<td>0.79%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(6) The application of electronic dictionary has become a heated trend for BE learners when they are trying to search business terms. In addition, they expect that electronic dictionary can serve to be of great help for them to acquire business terms, as well. When looking business terms up in a dictionary, 93.31% of BE students (showed in question 12) would choose electronic dictionaries. What’s more, 91.14% of them regards convenience, 79.32%, timely update of the word library, 69.62%, rich information resources and 62.03%, strong connectivity among related information (shown in question 14), as its superior advantages.

Q12. WHEN LOOKING BUSINESS TERMS UP IN A DICTIONARY, YOU TEND TO CHOOSE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Option</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A. printed dictionary</td>
<td>6.69%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B. electronic dictionary</td>
<td>93.31%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Q14. WHEN LOOKING BUSINESS TERMS UP IN A DICTIONARY, YOU THINK, COMPARED WITH PRINTED DICTIONARY, THE ADVANTAGES OF ELECTRONIC DICTIONARY ARE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Option</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A. convenience</td>
<td>91.14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B. almost all the target words can be found</td>
<td>48.52%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C. the word library can be updated timely</td>
<td>79.32%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D. rich information resources</td>
<td>69.62%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E. strong connectivity among related information</td>
<td>62.03%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F. others</td>
<td>0.84%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Therefore, during the learning process, in which the focus is shifted from acquiring knowledge of English to studying concepts of business in English, Business English (BE) learners need a specialized C-E/E-C electronic dictionary so that their business related knowledge can be structured efficiently and effectively.

B. Disadvantages of Existing Electronic Dictionaries

The electronic dictionary mentioned in this paper mainly refers to online dictionary and offline dictionary (like apps).
“The term electronic dictionary (or ED) can be used to refer to any reference material stored in electronic form that gives information about the spelling, meaning, or use of words” (Hilary et al., 2000, p.839). Nowadays, in order to acquire the knowledge of business terms, BE learners in China are able to choose such mainstream electronic dictionaries “Adopts the users’ perspective and investigates the effectiveness of electronic dictionaries for different categories of users, in particular students and translators” (Granger, 2012, p.12). It cannot be denied that those electronic dictionaries are well-developed for English learners in China. However, it could be concluded from Q13 and Q15 that they do have some disadvantages when being employed during the learning process by BE learners.

**Table 13**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Option</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A. cannot find the target word</td>
<td>41.18%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B. information provided is unprofessional</td>
<td>70.59%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C. directions are not expounded in detail</td>
<td>64.71%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D. the arrangement of information is messy</td>
<td>23.53%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E. no differentiation among synonyms/antonyms</td>
<td>17.65%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F. others</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 14**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Option</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A. cannot find the target word</td>
<td>40.94%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B. too much information and the information arrangement is messy and even overlapping</td>
<td>72.44%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C. information resources are not reliable and sometimes there are some mistakes</td>
<td>84.25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D. business meanings of general words were not collected sometimes</td>
<td>72.83%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E. disciplines of business terms were not tagged sometimes</td>
<td>70.87%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F. merely Chinese/English equivalents were provided sometimes</td>
<td>70.87%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G. general meanings and business meanings of a general word were gathered together, which leads to time-consuming searching process</td>
<td>76.77%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H. no differentiation provided among synonyms/antonyms</td>
<td>64.57%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I. no encyclopedic information and it’s needed to further baidu the definition of target business term</td>
<td>65.35%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>J. others</td>
<td>0.39%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(1) Existing electronic dictionaries are developed to satisfy the needs of all users rather than to merely emphasize on the demands of BE learners. They manage to gather huge number of vocabulary and example sentences through all kinds of electronic resources to ensure that each user can, at least, find the equivalents, definitions and examples of his or her target words. Nonetheless, they try to satisfy the needs of learners from all walks of life, but it turns out that they cannot perfectly meet the demands of everyone, which vary from person to person. As a consequence, for BE learners, these mainstream electronic dictionaries can only serve the basic needs of looking simple equivalents of words up, since the general and specialized definitions of a certain word are mixed together, some miss the specialized meanings that this word contains and some even do not mark which subject this word belongs to.

(2) The knowledge that BE learners is provided by existing electronic dictionaries is fragmented, overlapped and even unprofessional information. Some BE terms merely have their Chinese or English equivalents and lack the further definitions and examples. In addition, although developers tend to share interesting and valuable Business English related news and articles with BE learners, those contents are fragmented rather than being systematically composed. And what BE learners is able to obtain from those news and articles is business related information rather than knowledge. Besides, equivalents, definitions and examples are gathered and displayed separately without a unified and systematic arrangement. In order to provide all-round and professional information of a word, these electronic dictionaries combine their own equivalents and definitions of a certain word with that from different kinds of dictionaries and websites together rather than integrate these information and delete the overlapped parts. In order to look a business term up in these electronic dictionaries, it is needed for BE learners to click link to link and sometimes there is even no approving results displayed on the screen. Hence, this may lead to a time-consuming searching process and make it harder for BE learners to find out the knowledge they long for efficiently and effectively.

(3) There is no explanation and comparison among synonymous business terms. The information of synonymous business terms is displayed in existing electronic dictionaries in an isolated way. In addition, even if BE learners look target terms up in these electronic dictionaries respectively, it is hard to spot the differences between these words. However, it is the differences of different entries, whether Chinese one or English one, that matters significantly in economic activities. In business situation, there are not only specific words but also general words with business meanings that are employed as Business English terms in different business situations. What’s more, in certain cases, different business terms may have the same Chinese expression but they are required to be applied in different situations. These concepts are clear for experienced businessman, while ambiguous for callow BE learners. Therefore, this confusion of concepts may become a barrier for BE learners to integrate their knowledge and practice. And it is needed for those specialized electronic dictionaries to offer explanation and comparison among synonymous business terms for BE learners.
IV. SUGGESTIONS

As the paper has analysed above that existing electronic dictionaries have their disadvantages and cannot fully satisfy the needs of BE learners. Then it is significant to build a specialized electronic dictionary of C-E/E-C according to the needs of BE learners and the features of BE terms.

The focus is still on user-friendly, while it is supposed to be narrowed down to the perspective of BE learners. For BE learners, their needs is far beyond more words and more interesting functions. “Effective Second Language Acquisition (SLA) needs the assistance of new generation teaching dictionaries. And being encyclopaedic and specific are significant direction for future teaching dictionaries development” (Zhang, 2009, p.36). Therefore, during this learning process, the BE learners need a specialized C-E/E-C electronic dictionary that can serve as an encyclopaedia to help them to form their business related knowledge structure so as to digest those intricate knowledge efficiently and effectively in future study. And the suggestions on building a customized electronic dictionary of C-E/E-C business terms for BE learners are as follows:

(1) Building a professional and specialized database. In order to build a professional and specific database, it requires the focus on the dictionary itself and the coordination among developers, lexicographers and professionals from general English teaching and Business English teaching. “In mainland China, electronic dictionaries were developed with electronic technology as basis. Products in early period were developed independently by information technology enterprises, and their commercial object was evident” (Zhang, 2007, p.4).

Nowadays, though developers have invited professionals to work on compiling dictionary together, they pay more attention to develop extra attractive functions rather than to the dictionary itself, and their emphasis is still on attracting visitors, drawing investments and increasing profits. Moreover, It is required to ensure that BE learners can, at least, find the Chinese definitions of his or her target words. “The invention of wiki technology has brought about one of the most spectacular changes in lexicography, i.e. the integration of collaborative or community-based input” (Granger, 2012, p.6) The developers of these dictionaries can also invite learned users to offer definitions for words without authorized definitions. In this way, so long as BE learners look their target words up in the dictionary, there would demonstrate relevant definitions and sentence examples.

(2) Besides, updating timely is significant for a specialized C-E/E-C electronic dictionary in that business terms need to be updated every now and then so that it can catch up with the development trend of economy and technology in this information age. What’s more, since business covers a wide range of fields, there generated a great diversity of terms derived from those fields. “(International) Business English, an inter-discipline program, takes English as the carrier and linguistics, management, economics, science of law and psychology as major courses” (Zhang et al., 2008, p.103).

According to Oxford Business English Dictionary for Learners of English, which was published by Huaxia Publishing House in 2011, business terms can be further divided into following subjects as accounting, commerce, economics, HR, insurance, IT, law, marketing, stock exchange, technical, transport, etc. And Fuertes-Olivera (2012, p.404) reckons that “business/economics is a very broad subject field that can be broken down into around forty different sub-fields.” And it is due to this feature, the collection of BE terms are required to vacuum up the newest information and snap the representative terms so as to enable BE learners to keep pace with the changing times.

(3) It is also supposed to group terms that will be applied in the same register and provide learners with specialized equivalents, detailed definitions and practical examples. In order to provide learners with specialized equivalents, detailed definitions and practical examples, it is needed to combine resources from existing printed dictionaries, electronic dictionaries and learning websites with prudent selection and systematic arrangement. “Usually, the study of lexicography does not include the practical needs and cognitive ability of dictionary users, which, to a great extent, would influence the using effect of dictionaries” (Huang et al., 2008, p.90).

From the perspective of BE learners, this dictionary, firstly is developed to directly provide BE learners with a specialized and professional equivalents for those classic business terms and general words with business meanings. And then it offers detailed definitions and practical examples so as to help BE learners to obtain the information of target terms in an effective and efficient way. It may be able to, accordingly, be of great help on the knowledge construction phase of BE learners. “During the translation process of law related terms, the mere reference of general bilingual dictionaries is not enough. It is necessary to look them up in specialized Chinese and foreign language dictionaries” (Zhang, 1997, p.68).

(4) Moreover, making comparison among synonymous business terms for BE learners is of great importance. In business situation, there are not only specific words but also general words with business meanings are employed as

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Business English terms. In addition, both specific and general content of a certain word would be involved. “Business English is usually presented as a hybrid that mixes specific and general content and is concerned with the teaching and learning of the strategic communication system in the business domain” (Fuertes-Olivera, 2012, p.402). And because business activities are carried out in different and specific situation, it can be sure that the definition of a business term is certain so long as it is properly used in that situation.

In order to make comparison among synonymous business terms for BE learners, the professional guidance of professionals who study on BE teaching and BE practicing is required. It cannot be denied that merely professionals of general English cannot distinguish clearly words from words applied in business situation in that Business English covers a wide range of fields and business terms are of great specialty, like jargon. Therefore, this requires the assistance of teachers who are familiar with business concepts and are experts at BE teaching as well.

V. Conclusion

Nowadays, it cannot be denied that those mainstream C-E/E-C electronic dictionaries have been well-developed in China. However, they do have some disadvantages when being employed by BE learners during the learning process and a specialized C-E/E-C dictionary for Chinese business English learner is in great need. This paper studies what improvements are required to be done by the developers from the perspective of BE learners. Further study is suggested to be focused on those specific business terms, for business term itself is the core of the specialized electronic dictionary. Especially for the standardised translation of business English terms, standardised definition and translation of business Chinese terms, and business meanings of general words, phrases and collocations as well.

APPENDIX

商务英语专业及国际商务专业学生商务术语学习需求和电子词典使用情况调查

本问卷旨在对我院（广东外语外贸大学国际商务英语学院）商务英语专业及国际商务专业学生的商务术语学习需求和电子词典使用情况进行调查。希望本次调查结果能对未来电子词典的发展以及商务英语专业和国际商务专业学习者在商务术语上的学习有所帮助。本问卷仅用于科研学术研究，对于个人信息我们将严格保密，请您根据自己的实际情况放心填写。非常感谢您于百忙之中抽出时间填写调查问卷!

说明：1. 商务术语：指在商务场合中使用的具有商务专业特色的词汇，包含专有名词以及具有商务含义的普通词汇（如：future n. 通义为：未来；商义为：【证券交易】期货）。2. 电子词典：指能提供中英文释义的网络在线词典以及离线词典App。（如：有道，海词，金山词霸，必应等）3. “【】”为学科标注符号，如：【证券交易】。

第1题 你的专业是 [单选题]
A. 商务英语专业
B. 国际商务专业

第2题 你所在的年级是 [单选题]
A. 大一
B. 大二
C. 大三
D. 大四

第3题 你认为现阶段是否应该注重商务术语知识的积累 [单选题]
A. 是
B. 否

第4题 你认为该阶段商务术语知识的学习重点应放在 [多选题]
A. 术语的语音
B. 术语的简单中/英文对应词
C. 术语的学科分类及使用领域
D. 术语的用法及搭配
E. 术语的中文百科知识信息
F. 术语的英文百科知识信息
G. 其它

第5题 你觉得自己现阶段商务术语知识的储备如何 [单选题]
A. 不充分
B. 不太充分
C. 较为充分
D. 很充分
第 6 题  在学习商务专业课（如会计学、营销学、管理学等）时，是否感觉吃力？[单选题]
A. 不吃力
B. 不太吃力
C. 有点吃力
D. 很吃力
E. 还没上这些课

第 7 题  你认为前期对商务术语知识的积累是否能够有助于后期商务专业课的学习？[单选题]
A. 是
B. 否

第 8 题  你觉得自己在商务术语知识的掌握上有何不足？[多选题]
A. 难以掌握商务术语本身的意思
B. 难以辨认普通词汇的商务含义
C. 只知道术语的简单中/英文对应词但不知道其背后的含义
D. 只知道术语的简单释义但不知道其使用领域及场合
E. 难以区分各个术语近义词的不同用法
F. 没有不足
G. 其它

第 9 题  你认为学习商务术语知识的难点在于？[多选题]
A. 商务术语涉及领域广
B. 商务术语本身晦涩难懂
C. 许多商务术语概念接近，易混淆
D. 商务术语有限定的使用场合，使用标准严格
E. 无难点
F. 其它

第 10 题  你认为限制你有效学习商务术语知识的客观条件在于？[多选题]
A. 课本里所附的术语表过于简单
B. 缺乏对这方面具有针对性的学习材料
C. 现有词典无法提供所需的知识信息
D. 与此相关的网络信息资源较为分散
E. 其它

第 11 题  在查阅商务术语时，你希望能从词典中获取哪些信息？[多选题]
A. 术语的发音
B. 术语所属的学科或领域
C. 术语的简单中/英文对应词
D. 术语的中文释义
E. 术语的英文释义
F. 术语的近/反义词
G. 术语的近/反义词辨析
H. 术语的百科知识信息
I. 相应的例句
J. 其它

第 12 题  在查阅商务术语时，你更倾向于使用纸质词典还是电子词典？[单选题]
A. 纸质词典
B. 电子词典

第 13 题  在查阅商务术语时，你认为电子词典的劣势在于？[多选题]
A. 有时查不到想查的词
B. 信息不够权威
C. 用法不够详细
D. 信息排列重复、杂乱
E. 无近义词辨析
F. 其它

第 14 题  在查阅商务术语时，你认为电子词典的优势在于？[多选题]
A. 使用便利
B. 想查的词基本都查得到
C. 词库可随时更新，词量更丰富
D. 信息来源广
E. 相关信息之间的链接性强
F. 其他
第15题 在使用电子词典查询商务术语时遇到的问题有 [多选题]
A. 有时想查的词查不到
B. 信息量大，分布杂乱且有重复现象
C. 信息来源不可靠，有时甚至有错误
D. 有时存在非收录普通词汇的商务释义的情况
E. 有时存在未对某些商务术语所属的学科进行标注的情况
F. 有时仅提供术语简单的中/英文对应词
G. 普通词汇的通义与商义混放，检索过程耗时
H. 无近/反义词辨析
I. 术语的百科知识信息，查到词的意思后仍需进一步百度释义
J. 其它
第16题 希望电子词典增添哪些信息或功能 [多选题]
A. 提供该术语所属的学科信息
B. 提供与该术语属同一语域的词汇信息
C. 提供近/反义词辨析
D. 对某些特定术语附以图表进行解释
E. 链接术语的百科知识信息
F. 其它
第17题 为了能更好的满足商务英语/国际商务专业学生的需求，你对现有电子词典有哪些改进建议？ [选填题]

REFERENCES


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An Analysis of English Vocabulary Learning Strategies

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Abstract—Vocabulary is one of the three elements of language, the building material and the basic of language. To communicate with others fluently, the first premise is that we must have a certain amount of vocabularies. Facing so many words to learn, it's necessary to investigate the vocabulary learning strategies. The paper mainly studies the strategies of English vocabulary learning. Firstly it introduces the importance of vocabulary learning. Secondly, it explains the significance and purpose of the study, and does the survey to the current problems of students’ vocabulary learning. Thirdly, it gives the definition and classification about the vocabulary learning strategies. Then, in the paper some factors which affect the strategies of vocabulary learning are listed. Finally, it points out the specific strategies of vocabulary learning and gets some opinion about it. It is hoped that this paper can offer some help for students' English vocabulary learning, and expand students’ vocabulary. Also, it can improve students' interest in vocabulary learning and make vocabulary learning easy.

Index Terms—vocabulary learning strategies, English learning and teaching, learning efficiency, vocabulary learning belief

I. INTRODUCTION

All the words in a language make up what is generally known as its vocabulary. The term “vocabulary” is used in different senses. Not only can it refer to the total number of the words in a language, but it can stand for all the words used in a particular historical period, e.g. Old English vocabulary, Middle English vocabulary and Modern English vocabulary. We also use it to refer to all the words of a given dialect, a given book, a given discipline and the words possessed by an individual person. English is one of the world’s highly developed languages. Naturally the English vocabulary is one of the largest number vocabularies in all the languages. Vocabulary learning as the foot-stone of the whole language learning, lays the foundation for students learning English vocabulary and using various English learning strategies rationally.

Language learning strategies became the main research theme in the 1970s; and vocabulary learning strategy has been the main component. Studies made by O’Malley and Chamot (1986) confirm that most language learning strategies can be used for vocabulary tasks.

Vocabulary is one of the three key factors for language learning. It is the basic to make sentences and express thoughts and meanings, and a key requirement of language communication, so a big amount of stable vocabulary is significant and essential.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Chapter two mainly introduces the importance of English vocabulary learning and describes the research situation at home and abroad.

A. Importance of English Vocabulary Learning

In the trend of globalization, internationalization of language is unavoidable. English will undoubtedly play the most important role. It includes three elements: pronunciation, vocabulary and grammar. It is obvious that vocabulary is the most essential and liveliest part of the three elements.

B. The Research Situation at Home

Since the late 1990s, Chinese scholars have studied vocabulary learning strategies, mainly through two aspects, the first is that the research results of vocabulary learning strategies are introduced from abroad: The second is that carry out research on vocabulary strategy in China. For example, Wang Chuming (1992) studied English dictation strategies through introspection and reflection. Yao Meilin, Wu Jianmin and Pang Hui (2000) investigated the English vocabulary strategy of junior three students by questionnaire and oral report. It is found that students are mainly general and mechanical, rather than specific. The level of memory strategy is not high. When students encounter complex memory tasks, they mainly choose the mechanical repetition strategy and the other strategies are complementary.

Wen Qiujiang (1997) studied different learning strategies adopted by successful learners and unsuccessful learners, and then carried out comparative analysis. Liu Shaolong (2003) studied the influence of schema on listening strategy by
means of sound thinking. Some other scholars have conducted in-depth research on foreign language vocabulary memory.

Gu Yongqi and Hu Guangwei (2003) studied students' vocabulary learning strategies and the relationship between vocabulary and English achievement through investigation. Students in the first year of college were trained for half a year, and the students' vocabulary learning strategies were understood twice by means of questionnaire survey. Students were asked to take the vocabulary test and IELTS test twice. Chen Xiaotang (2006) found that after the training of students, the types and frequency of vocabulary learning strategies are higher than before, and the relationship between vocabulary concepts and behaviors is also enhanced. The research also found that the use of different vocabulary strategies was not significantly related to the change of vocabulary and English performance.

Wang fei-fei (2016) studied the current situation of English vocabulary learning in secondary vocational schools and understood the role and potential of cooperative learning in English vocabulary teaching in secondary vocational schools. It is found that cooperative vocabulary teaching can help secondary vocational students to learn English vocabulary and improve the effect of vocabulary learning. At the same time, it is believed that some students have some negative behaviors in cooperative learning, but group cooperative learning has extensive application potential in secondary vocational schools.

C. The Research Situation Abroad

Foreign research on vocabulary learning strategies started in the 1960s, at first research focuses on the study of individual, by studying the learner's behavior to observe their effect the change of learning a language. It was later discovered that successful language learners were not necessarily positively correlated with their intelligence, but rather with their own efforts and mastery of learning strategies.

The famous linguist Wilkins comments: “Without grammar, little can be expressed; without vocabulary, nothing can be expressed”(Wilkins, 1978, p.111). Word knowledge is a necessary competence, and it is important for production and comprehension in a second language. In the importance of vocabulary in communication. He indicates, “No matter how good one’s grammar is and how beautiful one’s pronunciation is, but if one has no enough vocabulary to convey one’s own feelings or to understand others’ opinions, one still cannot communicate with others in the language”. As an essential and fundamental building block of language, vocabulary learning is a key aspect of language learning, whichever curriculum or syllabus we are following and whichever model of language we are applying. The four traditional basic language skills of reading, writing, speaking and listening are all based upon the students’ vocabulary knowledge.

Chamot (1986) found that successful language learners use group activity strategies more frequently to learn vocabulary. Chamot in the study found that high school English learners use in vocabulary learning strategies than heard that communication strategies used by more diverse, because vocabulary learning is the nature of the relative separation. On the other hand, the use of higher level strategies may make learners realize the importance of vocabulary. O’Malley (1986) found that students don't like to active control strategies, such as: (imagery, inference, the Key word Method), instead, they are more inclined to adopt the strategy of repetition. Learners prefer simple mechanical repetition to sophisticated strategies. The use of a higher level strategy may be the learner's awareness of the importance of vocabulary. Vocabulary learning through dictionaries is also an important learning strategy, especially for language learners at the primary stage. Besides, people who are good at using dictionaries can continue to learn outside the classroom, so they can improve their ability to learn independently.

III. RESEARCH DESIGN

A. Research Purpose

The current study is concerned with the question: Why do students have problems with vocabulary learning? Before we tell students what to do with their vocabulary learning, we must know what they are doing, that is to say, which vocabulary learning strategies they are using. The current study is undertaken for this purpose. The researcher tries to find the reason why students have problems with their vocabulary learning and get some information about vocabulary learning strategy in order to make some suggestions about vocabulary strategy training.

B. Research Significance

Vocabulary is the basic component of language, and a fundamentally important aspect of language development.

To students, effective learning strategies can not only maximize their vocabulary size to make learning meaningful, but also enhance students learning autonomy. Of course, it can also build up self-confidence and self-study ability.

To teachers, the result of the present study can provide teachers with problems on students' vocabulary learning. It is far better to spend time on strategies that the students can use to deal with these words than to spend time on individual words. So it is clear that if a teacher wants to help student students cope with vocabulary, particularly in their reading, they would better teach them some strategies first.

C. Research Methods
Using questionnaire survey of vocabulary learning strategies of the second grade non-English major students in a university to finish the quantitative empirical investigation. Through the comparison of vocabulary learning strategies of good students and poor students, it analyzes the relationship between vocabulary strategies and vocabulary scores. Finally, it makes the conclusion: for the students investigated in this study to use a wide range of strategies to learn English vocabulary, cognitive strategies were used more frequently than met cognitive and social/affective strategies.

IV. THE RESEARCH INTO SOME RELATED ISSUES

This part will introduce some related issues. It will have a detailed review, including the definition and classification of vocabulary learning strategies. And it will illustrate some influencing factors of vocabulary learning.

A. Definition of Vocabulary Learning Strategies

Definitions of vocabulary learning strategies have different opinions. An often-quoted definition of learning strategy is given by Oxford. Learning strategies are behaviors or actions which students use to make language learning more successful, self-directed and enjoyable. In this chapter, the definition from Wen Qifang (2003) is adopted. She defined learning strategies as ‘behaviors or actions which learners use to make learning more effective’. The definition stresses that the aim to use strategies is to make learning more effective; strategies are learners’ behaviors or actions, not thoughts. In this way, vocabulary learning strategies can be defined as ‘behaviors or actions which learners use to make vocabulary learning more effective’.

B. The Classification of Vocabulary Learning Strategies

Oxford categorizes learning strategies into two major groups: direct strategies and indirect strategies. The former refers to those strategies directly involved in the target language in the sense that they require mental processing of the language which consist of memory strategies and compensation strategies. The latter refers to the strategies that provide indirect support for language learning through opportunities, controlling anxiety, increasing cooperation and other ways including met cognitive strategies, affective strategies and social strategies.

O’Malley and Chamot (1986) have carried out extensive researches providing deeper insight into learning strategies. They have analyzed learning strategies on the basis of the finding of cognitive psychology, and considered them as cognitive skills. In their framework, three major types of strategy (met, cognitive, social/affective strategies) are distinguished depending on the level or type of processing involved in the information-processing model of learning. Met cognitive strategies are higher order executive skills and used for learners to oversee, regulate, or self-direct their language learning. To be specific, Met cognitive strategies are further divided into advance organizers, directed attention, selective attention, self-management, delayed production and self-evaluation. While met cognitive strategies refer to learners’ management of their learning, cognitive strategies refer to the mental processes they use to acquire, sort, remember, and use information. They operate directly on incoming information, manipulating it in ways that enhance learning. Cognitive strategies include repetition, resourcing, directed physical response, translation, grouping, note-taking, education recombination, imagery, auditory representation, key word, transfer and guessing. Social strategies are the ways in which students cooperate or interact with other people in the learning process. They include asking for the help of teacher or peers and asking for clarification. Finally, affecting strategies refer to controlling over emotions or negative thoughts in order to continue to study. The examples include self-talk and self-encouragement.

C. The Influencing Factors of Vocabulary Learning

There are two kinds of factors that influence the learners’ vocabulary learning strategies: One is the factors of individual learners; the other is the social environmental factors.

1. Individual Factors

The differences between learners perform in several aspects, which include concepts, attitudes, personal emotion, and so on. The first point that the learners should pay attention to is their views about vocabulary learning. If the learner focuses on the vocabulary, they will be more use of cognitive strategies and memory strategies. If they pay attention to the function of the vocabulary, they will use fewer strategies such as cognitive, memory but more use of communicative strategies. And the age, learning motivation, character and personality differences of students and the differences of genders also can influence vocabulary learning strategies.

1.1 The Factor of Age

Age is an important factor for vocabulary learning strategies. Young learners tend to rely more on specific learning tasks to use strategies. However, adult learners can use strategies neatly. Adult learning strategies are more complex than children. They always use more learning strategies.

1.2 The Learning Motivation

Learners’ learning motivation is very important for any type of learning, including vocabulary learning. The motivation determines how much attention the learners would love to pay, how to complete a learning task and how much sense of accomplishment it will take. The researchers found that: the learning motivation has a close relationship with the use and selection of learning strategies. The learners who have strong motivation of vocabulary learning use
more strategies than the learners who have little motivation, and different vocabulary learning motivation can affect learners choose different learning strategies. In foreign vocabulary learning strategies teaching, if the learners ignore their learning motivation, then it will lead to the failure of the strategies in teaching. Therefore, in the strategies teaching, teachers should understand the learning motivation of the learners and encourage their enthusiasm to learn vocabulary. In turn, using the corresponding learning strategies can improve the learners to complete initiatives the vocabulary learning tasks. Learning motivation means something which can push students to learn directly in an internal power. Learning motivation is a complex psychological activity. As a way to stimulate and guide students’ learning, it plays an important role on students’ learning. It is important for learners to behave and act that it determines the enthusiasm, tendency, selection and consciousness of individual activities.

1.3 The Personality Difference Among Students

Every student is an individual having their own living and growth environment, which formed a unique personality and individual differences. It also changes the different people’s interests and needs. A research shows that most of the teachers and learners believe the personality factor plays an important role in foreign language learning. The different personality of students will have different degrees of influence on the English vocabulary learning. The researchers also found that some personality traits are related to the learner's strategies choice. Some researchers have proposed assumptions regarding the relationship between the usage of strategies and one’s personality. They point out each character have the tendency of using some learning strategies. For example, Researchers widely believe that extroverted learners will use more emotional and visual strategies. Some others think that learners of emotional type use more vocabulary learning strategies than thinking type. Although these primary research conclusion needs to be further confirmed, the influence of learners' personality characteristics on their learning strategies and the teaching can't be ignored.

1.4 The Differences of Gender

Gender differences are brought to the attention of the researchers increasingly in vocabulary learning. Research shows that gender differences will lead to male learners and female learners use different vocabulary learning strategies. They reported that Female learners use more social strategies and more frequently than male learners. Oxford found that although a lot of women learners use learning strategies more frequently than men learners, after strategy training, the male learners will show considerable advantages in the strategy usage. However, so far in the teaching and research of the strategies, the gender differences have been paid little attention. If researchers and teachers can consider gender factors in the teaching strategies, and distinguish male from female, then they can achieve a better teaching effect in the strategies.

2. The Factors of Social Environmental

As a language is a social phenomenon in human communication, it is close related to the society, so the using of learning strategies in vocabulary learning is restricted by social environment. Thus, the social environment, to a great extent, affects the learner's strategies. This will be bound to affect the learners' mentality and the use of learning strategies indirectly.

V. THE ANALYSIS OF ENGLISH VOCABULARY LEARNING STRATEGIES

This chapter provides a detail presentation about the strategies of vocabulary learning. It summaries the belief about vocabulary learning and overall pattern of the use of strategies.

A. Vocabulary Learning Belief

Wen Qiu Fang believes that English learning system includes two systems, beliefs and methods. Students’ beliefs are important determinants of their behaviors. Vocabulary learning belief refers to the learner’s attitude toward vocabulary learning. It has great effects on student choice and use of the strategies and will help the students control their learning process and make an evaluation for their learning outcomes. Therefore, the researcher will understand better the students’ use of strategies by investigating students’ vocabulary learning beliefs. They predominantly believed that word should be carefully studied and put to use. Their results proved that students like to use function-focused belief. The students who hold this belief preferred to learn English by using it.

It was consistent with some western researcher. For example, Krashen and Parry didn’t encourage English students to recite the vocabulary, and they held that vocabulary should be learned through extensive reading. Extensive research has demonstrated that vocabulary is easier to learn in context than in isolated word lists because the meaningful context permits more complex and deeper processing. The students began to realize that using the language was an effective way to learn a foreign language. They found out that it was easy for them to remember a new word by using it. The new words could be learned easily by using either in the daily life or in written way. Learning vocabulary by using them is much easier to them than by just reciting it mechanically.

B. Overall Pattern of English Vocabulary Learning Strategies

Factor analysis on English vocabulary learning strategies items identified 16 factors for learners' English vocabulary learning strategies. The 16 factors are: self-management, plan-making & plan-implementing, selective attention, learner autonomy, reviewing & testing, repetition, association, imagery, word formation, grouping, contextualization, dictionary
use, note-taking, guessing, affective control and social activities. O'Malley& Chamot (1986) distinguish three general types of learning strategies: met cognitive strategies, cognitive strategies and social/affective strategies. This classification of learning strategies is well recognized by scholars and researchers. According to the factor analysis, the 16 factors are further classified into met cognitive strategy, cognitive strategy and social/affective strategy.

In this part, we will try to find out the overall feature of the subjects' vocabulary learning strategies use at met cognitive, cognitive and social affective levels respectively. Among the three types of vocabulary learning strategies, the cognitive strategy is the most frequently used, and the met-cognitive strategy followed. The social/affective strategy used the lowest.

1. The Use of Met Cognitive Strategies

The selective attention belongs to met cognitive strategies. Most students pay more attention to those words that are considered or reminded as frequently used-words. The reason why the selective attention is used highest is the students often selectively pay attention to some words or types of word knowledge. This can be traced to the teaching methods adopted by most English teachers. In their teaching practice, they tend to select some basic important words and provide detailed explanations to the students. While teaching these words, they tend to put emphasis on various aspects of word knowledge, such as multiple meanings, grammatical features, collocations and so on.

The met cognitive vocabulary learning strategies are used for study. The autonomy strategies are used lowest in met cognitive through the observation for students. Many students buy some vocabulary books to learn and remember a lot from vocabulary books. Only a few subjects read English newspaper or magazines to enhance the knowledge of the vocabulary. Much fewer of the students make word cards in order to review and memorize words at any free time. This shows that most of the subjects lack autonomy in learning vocabulary. According to the interview, some students still regard teacher's instruction in class and the textbooks they use as the main sources in their English learning. They have been accustomed to leaning English in this way. They may not realize the importance of learner autonomy. When the students were in middle school, they got used to the instructions of the teachers. After they came into the college, they could not adapt to the teaching and learning methods of college quickly. They may still have not completely formed the habit of autonomous learning. Meanwhile, it was found that they learned new words mostly from vocabulary books rather than reading materials, such as English newspapers and magazines. Students held the belief that vocabulary was learned by memorization, that is to say, vocabulary was learned intentionally, not incidentally acquired in reading or other sources. Vocabulary books were a more direct source for vocabulary learning. Wang (1998) explains that firstly Chinese learners are inevitably influenced by language learning traditions in Chinese, which put emphasis on intentional memorization of words. Secondly, Chinese English learners have only limited access to English input due to the restriction of learning situations. Therefore, memorizing words in the vocabulary books was considered as a more effective way to learn new words.

2. The Use of Cognitive Strategies

The cognitive strategies are most frequently used. Dictionary use strategy belongs to one of cognitive strategies. It is the highest frequently used one. Most of the subjects often consult dictionary. Many students pay attention to phrases or set expressions that go with the word they look up. Most of the subjects not only look up new words they encounter for meaning but also look up some learnt words for more accurate usage or confirm the knowledge about them. When looking up a word, fewer of the students pay attention to its English explanation as well as its Chinese explanation. The dictionary use strategy is popular among the subjects. The results show that a bilingual dictionary is most popular. The present research had a similar finding with it. The subjects often validate or identify the necessary meaning of consulted dictionary use strategy is popular among the subjects. The results show that a bilingual dictionary is most popular. The present research had a similar finding with it. The subjects often validate or identify the necessary meaning of consulted dictionary. While teaching these words, they tend to put emphasis on various aspects of word knowledge, such as multiple meanings, grammatical features, collocations and so on.

The guessing strategy also belongs to cognitive strategy. Many of the subjects guess the word meanings by word formation. Most of the subjects guess the word meanings by the context. Fewer of the subjects guess the word meanings by the background information. It is impossible for students to know all the words in the process of reading, if they keep consulting a dictionary when they come across new words, which takes them a considerable amount of time. In addition, most students are field-independent. They prefer to learn independently rather than cooperate with others. As a result, they may choose to solve the problems by guessing the meaning of an unknown word. If the guessing strategy is not working or they want to make sure the exact meaning, they may consult a dictionary, and guess the meaning of a word by their word formation, parts of speech, and the structure of the sentences and the context of the passage. Only some of the subjects guess the words by background information. There is a lot of background information related to the western culture, customs and history. As the subjects are not English majors, they lack the knowledge about background information. It is difficult for them to use the guessing strategy very well.

Then the cognitive strategies also includes note-taking. Many students make a note of the useful expression or phrases related to a word. Fewer of the subjects take down the meaning and other knowledge of commonly used words they encounter out of class. The results show that note-taking strategies are favored by most of the students. The
subjects write down not only the Chinese equivalents, the simple surface knowledge, but also some useful expressions, phrases and sample sentences. They can use the note-taking strategies well. Compared to the habit of taking note in class, fewer subjects take notes out of class. But there are still more than half students to take notes when they encounter some words out of class. This may be influenced by the Chinese educational system for a long time. In middle school, teachers would like to encourage the students to take notes in the class. The habit was trained for a long time. When the students go to college schools, they still have such a good habit. It could help students to have a deeper impression of the new words and remember them. Knowledge would be systematic by taking notes. The strategy should be encouraged to use.

3. The Use of Social/Affective Strategies

Most of the subjects can concentrate on vocabulary study. Fewer of them reported that when vocabulary-learning outcomes were not satisfactory, they would encourage themselves in their studies. As we know, learners have more awareness about developing self-confidence, self-encouragement, and reducing anxiety when they encounter difficulties. This may be due to the influence of the Chinese culture, too. The students have been educated to control themselves ever since they were very young. In contrast, only a few students go to English corner and use as many newly learnt words as possible. Fewer seek and never miss any opportunity to converse with foreigners in English.

Learners seldom sought opportunities to practice and acquire English vocabulary through English communicative activities. Most learners prefer to learn independently rather than cooperate with their classmates, native speakers or other people. Most Chinese students are shy. They dare not open mouths to speak English in front of others.

VI. CONCLUSION

Vocabulary learning not only refers to mastering a certain number of words or phrases, but also includes the ability to use vocabulary correctly. Therefore, correct vocabulary learning strategies are very important to students. Of course there are also some other books or issues on vocabulary learning, especially vocabulary memorizing. Vocabulary is the key of language learning. Each language learner should try to find one or some proper ways that suit for him to enlarge their vocabulary and improve their English learning. Every kind of vocabulary learning method is very useful and valuable. Language learner should also know these methods’ advantages and disadvantages and make full use of them according to their own situation and the different tasks. And they have to choose different strategies. Vocabulary learning is a long-term task, correct vocabulary learning strategies enable students to learn vocabulary effectively independently of their teachers, and vocabulary is constantly changing and expanding, and correct vocabulary learning strategies can enable learners to learn vocabulary effectively at any time.

What’s more, if the vocabulary is limited, the learner’s scope of thought will be narrow and they will face many difficulties in communication. Therefore, they must know that they will not succeed if you do not work hard. The most important thing that everyone should remember is that study hard is the base of success. Regardless of which strategies the students use to learn vocabulary. As long as it is helpful to the learning of vocabulary, and improving students' English level, that is a good way.

English vocabulary learning strategy is helpful to improve the efficiency of vocabulary learning, but not all strategies are adapted to each individual. Teachers should choose teaching strategies according to different situations of learners in order to train learners to choose effective learning strategies independently, and meet students' learning needs according to their different levels and needs, and start with the weak links, focus on them, and drive the improvement of other abilities.

REFERENCES

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Sociolinguistic Analysis of the Language of Palm Wine Drinkers’ Club (Kegite)

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Abstract—This paper analyses the language of Palm Wine Drinkers’ Club in Nigeria, known as Kegite Club. The paper’s main objective is to examine the pattern and language use of the Kegite club and highlight how it departs from the linguistic pattern found within the general society where the club exists. By using Giles (1971) Communication Accommodation Theory, the paper demonstrates how Kegite members converge with their members by using the Kegite linguistic patterns and diverge from non-members, because non members do not understand the Kegite linguistic pattern, notwithstanding the fact that the English language forms the background of the Kegite language. The oral and documented data collected through interview and participant observation were quantitatively analyzed and categorized in groups based on the different features of the Kegite language observed. The findings of the study show that the formation, structure and language use of the Kegite club exhibit a kind of technical language attributes that are quite peculiar to it. Hence, this study classifies it as a specific type of slang.

Index Terms—Kegite, language variety, slang, convergence, divergence and Communication Accommodation Theory

I. INTRODUCTION

Language use involves formal and informal ways of communication. Formal usage of language is characterised by standard expressions while informal usage comprises slang, pidginise forms, colloquial usages, etc. Language use, whether formal or informal, takes place in human society; hence, an interesting relationship exists between language and society in general; and language and situation(s) of use in particular. It is important to note here that the sense of ‘language’ as used in this paper is any symbol of sign that is agreed-upon as a means of conveying meaning from one person to another within a given group of people as observed by Ndimele (1999).

Many a time in communication, meaning is derived or determined by the situation in which language is used, and often, meaning is conventionally agreed upon by a speech community. In other words, meaning is complete when it is situated and whatever meaning arrived at is dependent on the agreement the speakers have, hence, the issue of acceptability is sine qua non in human communication, (communicative competence). This study looks at the language of the Kegite club (a palm wine drinking club in Nigerian Universities and beyond) and how they manifest their in-group-ness through language. According to Afolabi (2011), Kegite members communicate effectively in their language, hence the Kegite language is acceptable to members and also, it serves as the language of wider communication for all members within Nigeria and beyond. The problem of the study, therefore, is to ascertain how the language of the Palm Wine Drinkers’ Club (Kegite) is strange to the general public even though it developed from the English language and the local language(s) of the immediate environment. The main objective of this study is to examine the pattern and usage of the Kegite language in the University of Nigeria, Nsukka which set it apart from the foundational language(s), which in turn make it difficult for the comprehension of non-members; thereby hampering communication between the group and the general public.

II. OVERVIEW OF THE PALM WINE DRINKERS’ CLUB

According to Gilbert (2013), the Kegite club is a palm-wine-drinking club “...that originated in 1962 at the Ibadan campus of the then University of Ife (now, Obafemi Awolowo University (OAU), Ile-Ife, Nigeria” (p.1), by some traditionalist students. The students usually came together every evening to drink palm wine after the day’s work. It was in one of such evenings that they thought it wise to form a socio-cultural club. This idea flourished and they appointed officers to oversee the affairs of the club. Gilbert further states that the students also agreed that the president of the club should be addressed as chief to depict a typical African traditional setting. Consequently, Prof. Olusegun Adeshina was the first chief to be coroneted by the club. They established the Kegite club in order to avail themselves of a recreation
opportunity. As it stands now, members are welcomed from any part of the society, though it is still situated in tertiary institutions. However, the members are mostly students. According to Gilbert (2013), the aim of the club is primarily to promote African culture. Therefore, the club is known for its music and dancing. It is a social club that has expanded so much that it can be referred to as a community with its own traditions and culture. Kegite club according to Afolabi (2011) is undoubtedly the most popular socio-cultural group in tertiary institutions in Nigeria with members not just in Nigeria but also in other Africa countries, Europe, Asia and the United States of America. Just as language performs the unification function generally, the Kegite language, as the researchers observe is characterised by peculiar expressions that are only used and understood among the members. These peculiar expressions have been adopted among the members of the club, and only members or close associates of the club can decode the language.

As was earlier stated, Kegite club exists in tertiary institutions; therefore, they exist in communities that already have language of general communication. In other words, the language of the Kegite exists alongside the language of the general public in the linguistic environment where it is found. The language of the Kegite Club is generally fed from the language of the general public within the environment of the club. Afolabi (2011), points out that the language of the Kegite club has its root in the English language. This can be attributed to the fact that English is the lingua franca of Nigeria. In addition to English, “other indigenous Nigerian languages (Igbo, Yoruba and Hausa), alongside the Nigerian Pidgin English (NPE) and French are used to furnish the Kegite language,” says (Afolabi, 2011, p.16).

### III. Theoretical Studies

According to Hudson (1996), language varies geographically because people living far from one another are likely to speak more differently than those living close to one another. On the other hand, those living close to one another have more contact with one another than those living far from one another. However, people living close to one another, sometimes, speak differently. Closeness and distance are, therefore, very essential in language variety. Furthermore, Hudson approaches the organisation of society from two angles viz: social network and social stratification. Social stratification has to do with hierarchical structure of a society resulting from inequalities of wealth and power while social network has to do with dimensions of solidarity between individual members of society in their everyday relations. However, in this paper, as shall be observed in subsequent sections, even though members of speech communities (in which Kegite groups exist) have very close contact with Kegite club members, they are very far apart when it comes to understanding and speaking the Kegite language.

Dittmar (1976) distinguishes between four forms of linguistic variety: standard, regional, social and functional.

- **a. Standard variety**: is that variety that is lawfully recognised and approved as an acceptable medium of communication in a society. It is the variety mostly used in official institutions and formal contexts. It is taught and learnt in schools and carried with it some amount of prestige.

- **b. Regional varieties**: are classified as dialects when they are developed in particular areas of settlement and are historically conveyed. Their major function is in oral communication as against the standard variety. This variety is not rigidly codified. Sometimes, dialects are raised to the level of standard variety and sometimes they disappear under the influence of urbanisation.

- **c. Social varieties** or sociolect are speech conventions of groups that are frequently subjected to a large-scale prestige evaluation by other social groupings (e.g. socioeconomically or ideologically repressed classes) and can become the subject for conflict between them.

- **d. Functional varieties**: differ from the other varieties that have been mentioned in that their usage runs straight across the dimensions set by the standard variety, the sociolect or the dialect. They can be connected with specific interactions, with institutions or with conditions of the place of work, with formal or informal situations, with the speaker’s idiosyncrasies, etc. Functional varieties are frequently technical languages, special languages, slang or commercial languages, (pp. 107-110).

From the variety types enumerated above, the kind of language variety that Kegites club falls within is functional variety, i.e., language of specific interaction. This is also the class where technical language (that is, registers and jargons), slang and the likes belong to.

Halliday (1964) says that technical and professional occupations have given rise to registers that are often characterised by vocabularies that are beyond the range of the ordinary educated man and with unique sentence patterns that are often restricted. A profession’s register is made up of peculiar vocabularies, expressions, often referred to as jargon, which according to Crystal (1994), is a collective term used to refer to technical vocabulary and expression used in communication among specialists, which are not intelligible to the general public.

On the other hand, the term slang has been defined by Mish (2003) as an “…informal nonstandard vocabulary composed typically of coinages, arbitrary changed words, and extravagant, forced, or facetious figures of speech,” (p. 1170). Borrowing a leaf from Mish (2003), Ratna (2010) sees slang as informal and nonstandard words and phrases which originate in subcultures within a society. Ratna’s definition is in line with Jorgen (2010)’s view of slang as an alternative linguistic form that forms part of daily interaction within a community with distinct and identifiable groups or subgroups. Mish (2003) and Ratna (2010) stress that when a speaker uses slang, it suggests that he is familiar with the hearer’s group or subgroup and that it serves as a distinguishing factor of in-group identity. Slang, just like any other variety of language, must gain acceptance by the group members for it to become part of the group’s vocabulary.
Therefore, for any linguistic expression to survive, it must be widely accepted by the group. Mish (2003) and Ratna (2010) conclude that individuals use slang because they desire to be unique. Furthermore, Jorgen (2010) observes that slang often stems from conflicts in fundamental socio-psychological values. When an individual applies language in a new and novel way to express opposition, ridicule, or contempt, often tinged with sharp wit and humour, he or she may be an unconscious creator of a slang item. If the speaker happens to belong to a group, then the expression will gain currency based upon the unanimity of attitude within the group.

Some of the types of slang identified in Ari (2011) include: “Cockney, public house, workmen, tradesmen, society and soldiers slang”, (pp. 10-19). These classes notwithstanding, Burdova (2009) in line with Maottiello’s (2008) view observes, “the nature of slang is characterised by extent and it is all-encompassing.” Therefore, “it allows for further sub-distinction between specific and general slang terminology,” (p. 25). She simply explains that specific slang is the slang

...used by members of a particular group to show their respect for that group and solidarity with other group members. It is also used in order to underline speakers’ identity, social status, age, education, special interests as well as their geographical background.

Specific slang is mostly used by speakers of similar age like teenagers (example: chick for ‘a girl’ and cool for ‘okay’), similar occupation like military (example: ground nyash ‘sit on the bare floor/ground), speakers who share similar lifestyle like the drunkards, homosexuals, drug addicts (example: grass for ‘marijuana’) or speakers who share the same living conditions like armed robbers and prostitutes.

Also, Burdova (2009) argues that general slang is the slang used by speakers to evade conventions and formality. “It is used instead of clichés and standard language to change the level of formality”, (p. 26). She equally notes that words or expressions may fall into both specific and general slang category depending on their contexts. She cites example from Mattiello (2008) with the word grass being a specific drug slang ‘marijuana’ whereas in general slang it stands for ‘green vegetables’.

According to (Spolsky, 1998, p.35), a language variety is considered slang when it possesses the following characteristics:

1. A set of expressions marked by its rejection of formal rules, its comparative freshness and its use to claim solidarity.

2. Slang regularly transgresses other social norms, making free use of taboo expression.

3. Slang arises as vocabulary which is used by a particular social group with specific purpose, for example, as a device for familiarising a conversation.

4. Slang comes in the form of new words with new meanings or old words with new meanings.

People use slang for a number of reasons. Partridge (1933) in (Jorgen, 2010, pp. 4-5) and Zazulak (2016) provide a number of reasons for which people use slang which are: to show that they are in high spirit, self display, to be different or novel, to avoid clichés (actuated by impatience with existing terms), to enrich the language, to lend an air of solidarity, to soften tragedy or to make serious life issues like death or madness sound less-serious, to reduce seriousness of conversation, to induce either friendliness or intimacy, to be ‘in the swim’ (to show that one belongs to a certain group or to establish contact), to be secret – not understood by those around, among others.

The Kegite language, as observed by the researchers maybe a form of an exclusive code used by the members of the club and understood by them alone. It may also be adjudged an argot. Argot is a word of French origin which means a secret slang language of a particular group used to exclude outsiders from understanding the group’s conversation. According to Veldman (2000), words and constructions that form the vocabulary of argot are however, drawn from ordinary common and dominant language. He opines that under the strictest sense, an argot is a ‘proper’ language which has its own grammar and style. However, he notes that it is rare to come by such completely secret language because the speakers of argot usually have some common public language, which serves as the basis for the argot. A common kind of argot is mainly a version of a public language(s), except that a part of the vocabulary is replaced by words which are quite strange to the larger public. So, going by Veldman’s ‘strict’ definition of argot, we would not say that the language of the Kegite is an argot, rather, we would like to identify this unique variety simply as a specific type of slang following Mattiello’s (2008) and Burdova (2009) definitions, classification and characterisation of slang. And what characteristically distinguishes slang from other forms of language is that it is fundamentally social and as such, it is often associated with a particular group of speakers. It is also necessary to point out that slang is one thing that cannot be adequately studied from a pure linguistic point of view. Therefore, we see slang in this paper as a social and aesthetic phenomenon, which can be perceived and appraised rather than as a purely linguistic concept.

On the other hand, language variation is a sociolinguistic phenomenon that has been studied from various perspectives. One of such perspective is the Communication Accommodation Theory (CAT). It is a theoretical approach to the study of language variety. CAT, initially known as Speech Accommodation Theory, is a socio-psychological theory propounded by Giles (1971) to specify conditions under which individuals would desire to reduce or stress the social distance between those they are interacting with (i.e. by either accommodating or not accommodating). CAT posits that individuals do not interact with every person in the same way but communication patterns are always adjusted to match conversational partners (be they close friends or despicable felons). According to Giles and Baker (2008), although CAT indicates different ways through which interlocutors can reduce or widen social
distances, convergence and divergence are the most prominent. Street and Giles (1982) observe that convergence is a movement towards a communicative partner because of a conscious or unconscious need for social integration, seeking or showing approval, identification or communication effectiveness with one another. On the other hand, Coupland and Giles (1988) assert that divergence is a movement away from communicative partner in order to maintain social distance.

This paper, therefore, adopts the communication accommodation theory as put forward by Giles (1971). CAT stresses the role of accommodation in communication. It asserts that interlocutors communicate to signify mutual attitude toward one another. Consequently, communication can serve as a barometer, which could be used to measure social distance that exists between individuals. According to Giles and Ogay (2007), language in communication moves individuals closer and away from one another. This either directional movement (that is, movement of individuals closer to or away from one another) is achieved by varying communication behaviour. It is this characteristic flexibility in language behaviour that is known as accommodation. CAT according to Giles, Coupland and Coupland (1991), assumes that language functions as an indication of both individual’s and group’s need to interact socially with others and also as an indication of the aspiration to gain social approval. The concept of social identification through communication is of paramount importance to CAT. Hence, CAT posits that interlocutors, through language use, accommodate to become similar to their communicative partners. This is called convergence. In the words of Giles and Coupland (1991), convergence indicates “a speaker’s or a group’s need (often non-conscious) for social integration or identification with one another”, (p. 72). Therefore, Giles and Ogay (2007) say that the desire to belong to a group and shift towards a particular linguistic style in order to identify with that group is achieved through efficient communication. Giles and Coupland (1991) observe that interlocutors are psychologically brought closer and communication is also enhanced through accommodation. On the other hand, Giles and Ogay (2007) note that accommodation helps speakers to differentiate themselves from others and to communicate that they belong to a particular group which others do not. This is called divergence. Giles, et al (1991) opine that the balance between convergence and divergence is very important in communicative activities and this makes interlocutors to assume the communicative pattern that is typical of their group so as to “maintain a sense of community or fellowship”. Wilson (2007) and Zotetsva (2013) also assert that apart from maintaining a sense of fellowship, group members also emphasise their style of speech and recognise the difference between them and relevant out-groups. Therefore, the function of communication is to ascertain identity and/or confirm or sustain group membership through accommodation. For this reason, each group fashions out a unique linguistic pattern, which characterises them and is also cherished among the members.

Every communicative event has a goal to achieve. Hence, ‘communication is goal directed’ as noted in (Wilson, 2007, p.79). This implies that communication is not an erratic event but one with specific goal(s) to achieve. Wilson’s definition of communicative goals as that future states, which a speaker desires to attain or maintain, suggests that various goals that a speaker sets out to achieve through social interactions are accomplished by the use of language. Through the application of accommodation (either by convergence or divergence), the anticipated goal of speakers are made known.

From the above theoretical overview, it could be observed that language, being highly heterogeneous, can vary based on certain factors. Language varies from one place to another, from one social group to another and from one situation to another. The present study, by using CAT studies language use among the Kegite club members to show how, by communicating the way they do, members achieve in-group allegiance (convergence) and mark themselves off from other members of the society (divergence), who share general linguistic background with them.

IV. METHODOLOGY

This study is a survey research work designed to be in conformity with the standard procedures obtainable in the study of observed language behaviour. The article sets out to examine language use among the Kegites within the University of Nigeria, Nsukka, to ascertain how members of the club use the language to establish group identity and also to create a social distance between the group and the general public. Although the Kegite club can be found in many tertiary institutions in Nigeria and outside Nigeria, this study, by adopting purposive sampling procedure, studies the University of Nigeria, Nsukka (UNN) branch (Ilya du Nkaasu), The UNN branch is the oldest iya – ‘branch’ in the Eastern zone (Enuanaebo hemisphere) as well as the zone’s headquarters. The Kegite branch in the UNN has about one hundred and fifty student members, who are used for this study. By adopting the qualitative method of data collection, data were elicited from Kegite members in the nine faculties in the University of Nigeria, Nsukka. The respondents were made up of mainly youths and few older persons who are in different academic levels in the University. The bulk of the corpora used for the study was directly elicited from the respondents through mass observation, where the group was observed (because they perform openly in evenings and in some social gatherings) and in their in-house interactions recorded through a field assistant, who is a member, since it is difficult for the researchers to do so themselves. The researchers also elicited data from the Kegite handbook, book of bookosis and the club’s social network pages. The data collected both orally and from the Kegite members were analyzed quantitatively, categorised accordingly based on different features of the language as presented in section five.
V. Data Presentation and Analysis

Before now, as a former chief of the Kegite club in its world headquarters, Uppermost Shrine, University of Ife, Ile-Ife, Nigeria, Oladokun (1982) discusses the Kegite club and provides the background information on the club. His work presents the history, vision or aim of the club. He explains some of the traditions and customs of the Kegite club as well as provides a few slogans used in the club among which include: Okpekelerization - woo a woman, karability - destiny; One finger salute - a greeting pattern, chief - president, among few others.

Afolabi (2011) in his brief analysis examines the language of the Kegite. His work provides some expressions used by members of the club and analyses them to show how the group has, over the time, evolved a complete language of their own. Afolabi (2011) concludes by asserting that he has discovered that “the syntactic or grammatic [sic] analysis of the Kegite language are featured, the place of subject, predicator, complement and adjunct are also consciously presented as seen in some certain Kegites expressions”, (p. 4). He, therefore, demonstrates how the group has successfully evolved a language of their own. Afolabi (2011) is related to this work in the sense that it studies Kegite language but differs from it because the present study looks at how Kegite members manipulate the linguistic elements (which they share with other members of the general society) at their disposal to create expressions which they in turn use to create social distance between the group and out-group members of the society.

In this section, Kegite expressions are presented and qualitatively analysed using CAT to demonstrate the principles of convergence and divergence. Here, we present and discuss the Kegite expressions by grouping them based on their linguistic features and the analysis done using CAT.

### Table 1: Expressions Showcasing Creativity, Productivity and Arbitrary Nature of Language

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>Kegite expressions</th>
<th>Gloss/meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>AB Chief/Chiefo</td>
<td>The incumbent president</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>X Chief</td>
<td>The immediate past president</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>XYZ Chief</td>
<td>The chief that handed over to the XY president</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Archival Chiefesis</td>
<td>Former presidents for over five (5) years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Martial</td>
<td>Provost</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Parrot</td>
<td>Public relation officer/Information officer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>World bank/CBN</td>
<td>Treasurer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Philosola</td>
<td>Teacher of those who are to be liberated (admitted into the club)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Spider</td>
<td>Designer of Kegites regalia and other Kegites' materials</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Feda</td>
<td>Secretary of the club (when writing was done using feather and ink)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Cricket/Sungito</td>
<td>Song leader</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Drummuto</td>
<td>Drummer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>HOD (Head of Drummisis)</td>
<td>The member in charge of drums</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Zoo Commandant</td>
<td>Member in charge of the place where new members are groomed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>B ECOWAS</td>
<td>Chorus (calling for members to ‘re-echo’)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Emblem</td>
<td>Local calabash</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Receipt</td>
<td>A leaf one brings after urinating and it must be a green leaf with apex and stalk still intact</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Imbibe</td>
<td>Drink (palm wine)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>Destroy</td>
<td>Drink (any other drink outside palm wine)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>Titration</td>
<td>Urination/defecation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>Gyration</td>
<td>Making of music and the dancing that typically accompanies it</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>Mutation</td>
<td>Meeting of the Kegite club</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>Vibrate</td>
<td>Talk/speak</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>Ketekete</td>
<td>Vehicle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>Karability</td>
<td>Destiny</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>Karid</td>
<td>Member/(you) belong</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>Comrado/Kongosis/</td>
<td>Student members</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A look at Table 1 shows creativity as well as arbitrary nature of language. For instance, the use of AB for ‘current’, ‘present’ or ‘incumbent’; XY for ‘immediate past’ and XYZ for ‘former, before the ‘XY’, archival for ‘one-time’, (observe examples 1-4 in Table 1). This shows how words can be created and re-created by language users based on the arrangement of letters, that is, letters that come first and the ones that come last. Examples (5-14) in Table I show how the members of the club have creatively used names of items or concepts to name executive posts in the club. A look at these names shows that the names used, somehow depict the functions performed by the office holders. For instance, martial for ‘provost’, one whose job is to see that there is order during gatherings; parrot for ‘information officer’, who is saddled with the responsibility of passing across information to members through speech; world bank/CBN(Central Bank of Nigeria) for ‘treasurer’, who keeps money for the club, among others. It could be observed that these words are metaphorically used. Again, the use of feda (truncated form for feather) for ‘secretary’ reminds one of when writing was basically done with refillable inks, using plumes. Also, examples (15-27) continue to demonstrate how language is creative. We can also observe that some of these words are words from the general society, with special meanings attached to them. Examples of such words are receipt and destroy, which are English words and ketekete, a Yoruba word for ‘Donkey’. The new meanings are usually based upon fanciful and creative metaphors and metonymies. However, some of the expressions like karid (from ‘carried’), akarability (from ‘akara aka’ in Igbo, which means
‘destiny’), Kongosis, drummotto (from ‘drum’) and sungito (from ‘song’) are entirely new coinages. These coinages are in line with Mish’s (2003) submission that slangs are composed of coinages and arbitrarily changed words.

In addition, one of the major properties of language is arbitrariness. By language being arbitrary, it means that both word-forms and their meanings are randomly assigned. What this implies is that the speech sounds of a language are conventionally combined to form a meaningful word in a language only because (i) the users of the language agreed that the pattern of combination is right and acceptable (for instance, c-a-t ‘cat’ is right and a-t-c ‘atc’ is wrong in English) and (ii) the result of the combination should refer to or mean a particular thing/concept/idea in the language. The language of the Kegites exhibits the quality of arbitrariness in no small measure. For example, AB, XY, spider (Table 1, examples 1, 2 and 8) and indeed, all the Kegite expressions presented in this paper are meaningful within the contexts where they are used, mainly because they have gained acceptance within these contexts. Observe the contextual uses of some of the words in Table 1. Note that in the sentences below, the words in question are in bold italics.

1a. …acting within those powersis, all those comradic powersis, all those Kongosis powersis… powersis to keg and dekeg…
   b. …acting within the powers, every power pertaining to the affairs of the Kegite club… the powers to officially approve of student membership and the powers to suspend a member…

2a. Muanaluelus, the royal palm wine Majesty, AB Chiefo Nnanne Kenneth… the 36th of Nkassu do hereby….bless all…
   b. Me(I), his royal majesty of palm wine, Incumbent President Nnanne Kenneth… the 36th president of Kegite club, University of Nigeria, Nsukka branch do hereby…. bless all…

3a. Muanaluelus… do hereby do with no duress by mountain dew or morning dew bless all am karid…
   b. Me (I)…do hereby, without any duress, bless every/all club members…

4a. I doff terribly for Archival, XY, XYZ and AB Chiefesis of iyas.
   b. I absolutely salute former presidents and incumbent presidents of various branches.

5a. Mina awela awala du mina …I remain my very self… XYZ Songoito to power 16…vibrating with a very high frequency via…
   b. Me (I)…I remain my very self…a former chorus leader for the past 16 years…speaking with confidence from…

6a. Let your akarability so shine that komradus will oyoyo the good work of God.
   b. Let your destiny shine forth so that members will appreciate the good work of God.

A look at examples (1-6) shows some of the words in use. From their English equivalents, the possibility of non members grabbing the meanings of the words and expressions is very slim, if not impossible. It is also observed from the examples (1-6) above that the word comrado/kowrado (noun) can assume various morphological shapes like comradic (adjective) and komraudus (still a noun). Based on the strange meanings attached to the words and expressions by Kegite members, they converge among themselves and diverge from non members. Hence, they are used to establish student membership and the powers to suspend a member…

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Kegite Branch</th>
<th>Location</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ilya du Queen</td>
<td>East London University, London</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ilya du Afonja</td>
<td>Kwara State College of Education, Ilorin, Kwara State</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ilya du Coconut</td>
<td>Nwafor Orizu College of Edu., Nsogbe, Anambra State</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ilya du Erosion/Ashina</td>
<td>Federal Polytechnic, Oko, Anambra State</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ilya du Oil</td>
<td>Federal College of Education (Technical), Omoku, Rivers State</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ilya du Rock</td>
<td>University of Jos, Plateau State</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ilya du Pyramid</td>
<td>Federal College of Education (Technical), Bauchi, Kano State</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ilya du Olumo</td>
<td>Moshood Abiola Polytechnic, Abeokuta, Ogun State</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ilya du Arewa</td>
<td>Kaduna Polytechnic, Kaduna, Kaduna State</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ilya du Lagoon</td>
<td>University of Lagos, Lagos State</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ilya du Solar</td>
<td>Federal Polytechnic, Bida, Niger State</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ilya du Calculator</td>
<td>Institute of Accountancy and Basic Studies, Uyo, Akwa Ibom State</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ilya du Chalk</td>
<td>College of Education, Ileha, Osun State</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ilya du Kokoroko</td>
<td>Michael Okpara University of Agriculture, Umudike, Abia State</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ilya du Komputa</td>
<td>Federal University of Technology, Minna, Niger State</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ilya du Engine</td>
<td>Enugu State University of Science and Technology, Enugu State</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ilya du Ancestor</td>
<td>Ancestral Science University, Florida, USA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ilya du Green Revolution</td>
<td>Samara College of Agriculture, Zaria, Kaduna State</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ilya du Metal</td>
<td>Metallurgical Institute of Onitsha, Anambra State</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ilya du Timber</td>
<td>Federal College of Forestry, Badan, Oyo State</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ilya du Shark</td>
<td>Nigerian Institute for Oceanography and Marine Research, Victoria Island, Lagos State</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ilya du Pen</td>
<td>Nigerian Institute of Journalism, Ogba Ikeja, Lagos State</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ilya du Tractor</td>
<td>Federal College of Agriculture, Akure, Ondo State</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In Table 2, another fascinating feature of the Kegite language can also be seen in the way names are chosen for individual branches of the club. Firstly, it will be observed that *ilya*, a seemingly French expression for ‘there is’ (‘il y a’) is used to mean ‘Kegite branch’. Table 2, examples (1-23) show that the branch names are selected based on feature(s) that characterise(s) the geographical area, where the tertiary institutions are located (observe examples 1–11 in Table 2) and also by using a particular item to represent the academic discipline being studied in these institutions (observe examples 12–23 in Table 2). Based on the first criterion, the capital of England, ruled by the Queen is London. It is based on this that *Ilya du Queen* is selected (example 1) and in (example 2) *Ilya du Afonja* is given in memory of the legendary Afonja of Kwara land. *Nsugbe* is a community known for coconut (this informs the general saying in Igbo about *aku oyibo Nsugbe* - ‘Nsugbe coconut’) and this forms the basis of the name *Ilya du Coconut* (example 3). This applies to examples: (4), where *Erosion* is used to refer to the land of Oko that is being ravaged by erosion; (5), where Omoku, an oil rich land is named after *Oli*; (6), where Jos, a land that has many mountains and rocks is named *Rock*; (7 and 8), where Kano is named *Pyramid*, after the famous groundnut pyramid of Kano and Abeokuta *Olomo* after the Olumo Rock located in Abeokuta; (9), where Kaduna being a heartland of the Hausa nation is named *Arewa*; (10), where Lagos, known for many water bodies is named *Lagoon* and (11), where Bida is named *Solar* after the popular solar energy supply provided by former Nigerian President, Gen. Babangida throughout his villa. However, for one to appreciate the beauty of these names, one must have background information of these locations to be able to interpret the names accordingly. On the other hand, concepts that characterise academic disciplines being pursued in tertiary institutions are also used to coin names for club branches. Hence calculator is used for an institute of accountancy, *chalk* for a college of education and *kokoroko* (a typical onomatopoeic name for a cock) for a university of agriculture in examples (12-14) respectively. This is also the case in examples (15-23). Uniquely, these names are used to establish group identity, such that instead of using ‘branch’ or ‘chapter’, *ilya du* is used. And instead of using the formal names of the campuses, unique names are coined for each campus, thereby rebuffing adherence to names used by the general public. In addition, depending on the context of use, *ilya* can also mean relax/feel at home (see example 9 below). Observe examples (7-12) below.

7a. It is written in da book of bookosis, chapter nk wu verse ngwo dat when two or more entities are in Gaddaffi, an *ilya* is formed.

   a. *It is written in the Kegite book of books that when two or three people(Kegite members) come together, a Kegite branch is formed.*
   
   8a. May the gods bless all am karid…via *ilya du Kokoroko* bembestically.

   b. *May the gods bless all the (Kegite )members,…from Michael Okpara University of Agriculture, Umudike abundantly.*

   9a. …I too hoties by the wizard of capitosis is to make all homies feel at *ilya*.

   b. …I am also, through the wisdom represented by the cap (I am wearing) entrusted with the responsibility of making everybody to feel at home.

10a. …I remain my very self…XYZ Songito to power 16 via *ilya du Pyramid*…

   b. …I remain my very self…a former chorus leader for the past 16 years in Federal College of Education (Technical), Bauchi…

11a. By da eldersis council *ilya du ashina* I kuet, happy monica two all adim karid. May you walk bembestically and never stumble.

   a. *As a member of the council of elders, Federal Polytechnic, Oko. I say(speak), happy Monday to all members of the Kegite club. May you walk majestically and never stumble (may no evil befall you).*

   12a. …minawela awolu doss on ma 2 leggesis to prayamus ana jura pepe to all adikwa m karid in dis abuna *ilya*.

   b. *I am on my two knees praying and interceding for all Kegite members of our branch.*

The different contexts of use of *ilya* make for the lucidity of the word and present its various manifestations and senses in different contexts. Based on CAT, group solidarity among members is once again achieved through convergence and non members are kept at an arm’s length through divergence based on the arbitrary senses in the linguistic forms which are not comprehensible to the general public. It is also important to note here that Kegite expressions appear in two physical forms - familiar and strange forms. Familiar expressions are those expressions that contain content words, whose possible interpretations mean something to non-members. Let us consider example (7), when a non-member hears that “...when two or more entities are in Gaddafi, an *ilya* is formed”, S/he is likely going to interprete it to mean “...when two or more people who behave like Muammar Gaddafi of Libya come together, a revolutionary group is formed”. But that is not the case. So, such expressions are familiar but their meanings are strange. In other words, what a familiar expression in the Kegite language appears to mean is always entirely different from what it actually means. On the other hand, strange expressions refer to those expressions that are completely strange to non-members because they do not have familiar lexical items common with expressions of the general public. Let us consider example (12). Expressions like (12) above appear completely strange to non-member and leave them with no clue of what the meanings could be.
Table 3 above shows how linguistic forms are manipulated in the Kegite language. We see how forms could be truncated for shorter renditions, especially in writing -dia(1+3) for ‘therefore’ and rot8 for ‘rotate’ (see examples 1 & 2 in Table 3). Examples (3-7) may be called ‘English’ in some sense but we cannot out rightly say that these varieties represent the English language. Instead of adding an -s to ‘chief’ and ‘book’ to derive the plural forms, -osis and -esis are added to form plurals respectively in examples (3 & 4). Same goes for examples (11 & 12). Again, English grammatical rule of using -er to derive agentive nouns from verbs is also ignored in examples (5 & 6) giving rise to a ‘corrupt’ form of ‘singer’ (sungito) and ‘drummer’ (drummito) respectively. Kegite agentive nouns from the data presented in Table 3 are formed using its own morpheme -ito. In addition, instead of simply saying ‘open’, opendential is used in example (7). Likewise, the words in examples (8-10) possess partly Igbo (munwa ‘me’, gunwa ‘you’and yanwa ‘him/her’) words and English suffixes, -ness and (11 & 12) are Edo words pluralised using the Kegite plural morpheme, -sis. However, despite the high arbitrary nature of the Kegite language, it is remarkable how members understand one another. Hence, they communicate perfectly well among themselves, at the same time, they keep the general public in the dark. To further show the manifestation of convergence among Kegite members and divergence from non members, observe their use of these words in the following sentences (12-16) below.

13a. Okpekesis/okpeke6 are meant for chiefesis/chiefe6 consumption.
   b. Women are meant for presidents’ enjoyment.

14a. Munwaness …sound a note of warning.
   b. Me (I)…sound a note of warning.

15a. Okpekesis letter ‘O’ remaindath theory a wogged opendential keske of surunyu……..
   b. A woman’s virgina is always open for sex...

16a. Even on dat matrimonica day D in D holy bookosis of Felo Jesus…He tinaturned water to emuogor.
   b. Even on the wedding day recorded in Jesus’ holy book (Bible)…He turned water into wine.

17a. …you have fired to my timpamic membrane, may it be so for giwaness/guaness.
   b. …you have really thrilled me, may it be so for you.

The peculiar way the words are used in (13-17) is also an indication of Kegite linguistic forms displaying some distinctive characteristics that set it apart from the language of the general public. As an out-group, when one hears them speak, making use of these expressions, one eventually gets confused even as one tries to isolate common/familiar words that appear in the expressions and attempts to use the meanings of those common words to arrive at the meanings of the expressions. Let us take the expression in example (15) as an instance. An attempt to isolate the meanings of common words like O and theory, and use them to arrive at the meaning of the entire expression, gets an out-group listener confused because these common meanings do not contribute to the actual meaning of the expression.
Items in Table 4 above give insight into the worldview of the Kegite. For instance, they see the president of their club as chief and his induction as coronation, while a yet to be inducted chief is an Omoba (a Yoruba name for ‘prince’), just as in a typical African setting, reflecting cultural influence; the club is regarded as a unit, this informs the use of comrade (and its various variants) for members of the club and anybody who is karid belongs to Kegite (see examples 1, 9, 14, 2 & 5). An anthem is usually a unifying factor, hence; anthem is referred to as something intercontinental, such that irrespective of where the branch is located, the values of the club must be upheld (example 3). Their worldview is also portrayed in how they refer to places, activities, their official language, non members and events like death as we can see in examples (5-18) of Table 4. Again, a look at examples (19 – 22) shows the rating between palm wine and any other drink in the society. We can rightly say that just like every other kind of slang, the language of the Kegite is quite casual and metaphorical. This could be seen through some of their expressions like poison which means ‘drinks other than palm wine’, a crude metaphor for non native drinks. These expressions show solidarity and intimacy of the Kegite members and by extension, the expressions also perform the function of inclusion of members and exclusion of non-members during interaction. Observe some of the expressions in higher constructions as in (17-21).

18a. Komrados to regaliate 4/4 to komradic activities.
   b. (Kegite club) members are to dress fully to club activities.
19a. Songito, de intercontinental lalala.
   b. Chorus leader, (lead us in) the Kegite anthem.
20a. Animals are highly present in dis area we.
   b. Non Kegite members are many in our area (environment).
21a. …da attempt attempted by gunwaness to vibrate outside Swahili…
   b. …the offense committed by you to speak without using the official language of the club...
22a. Da shrine all over the galagala attempt with opendensial mind the majestic holy water…never destroy poison plus da senior or junior, local or foreign poison. Da poison, komradus shall not attempt there.
   b. The club’s secretariat/warehouse all over the world generously accommodates palm wine…do not drink any other drink other than palm wine, even the soft or hot drink, locally or foreign made. Members shall not drink or keep any other drink except palm wine there (in the secretariat).
23a. Let the G-Lords (Grand Lords) shine their 99.99% for the upliftment of komradum.
   b. Let the executive members do their best for the welfare of (Kegite) members.

Examples (18-23) present an interesting picture of the Kegite linguistic forms performing an exclusive function for non members. For instance, the structure of example (20) appears like the English language structure but the rearrangement of linguistic items in the construction does not conform to the standard syntactic arrangement of lexical items in English. This syntactic rearrangement adds a Kegite flavour to the expression. However, even when a non-member tries to figure out the sense in the expression (despite the rearrangement of linguistic items) the meaning of “animal” in the expression makes it difficult or impossible to comprehend. Again, listening to Kegite members interact keeps a non-member listener busy shuttling between two or more languages – English, French, NPE and indigenous Nigerian languages, to sieve out the possible meanings in the expressions, which eventually fails to offer the correct meaning(s) intended or expressed. For instance, the last word in example (20) – we sounds like the French ‘oui’ – ‘yes’.

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Hence a non-member may take the expression to mean “There are many (domestic) animals (running around) in this area, yes.” The use of ‘yes’ suggests to the hearer that the expression, maybe, agrees with an already stated fact. Therefore, as the listener tries to make sense of these expressions, s/he gets even more confused and consequently, s/he is completely left behind in the conversation. In addition, the repetition of linguistic items to show a unique sense as in (21) is another feature of the Kegite language.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>Complex expressions for simple expressions</th>
<th>Gloss/meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Washington DC OR interact with the frequency of mammy water</td>
<td>Bath</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Benue state/answer Bendel</td>
<td>Bend down</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Da dee minus one (That day minus one)</td>
<td>Yesterday</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Opundensial</td>
<td>Open</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Opundensial in a revise gear...in a rivers state</td>
<td>Close</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Enyemaka ngwaa</td>
<td>Help</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Aghataakulu nwai/permanent selotaping</td>
<td>Marriage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Trade by barter</td>
<td>Market</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Operation feed the nation</td>
<td>Farming</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Nawali/Nasarawa</td>
<td>Now</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Eligwe chamber/NEPA</td>
<td>Sunshine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Obey the law of gravity</td>
<td>Sit down/fall</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Disobey the law of gravity</td>
<td>Stand up/get up</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>National assignment precise</td>
<td>Office</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Agrippa, Iweka road</td>
<td>Angry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Junior foreign poison</td>
<td>Soft drink</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Senior foreign poison/Higher killer</td>
<td>Hot drink</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Eligwe chamber titration</td>
<td>Rainfall</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>Behind time</td>
<td>Late</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>Minawela awolu</td>
<td>Me</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>Mina wela ate awela awolus</td>
<td>Me</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

24a. Entities to bendalise, entities to answer bendel republic, chieftess to connect…

25a. Mina awela awalu da mina … I remain my very self… XYZ Songito to power 16…

25b. Me (I)... I remain my very self…a former chorus leader for the past 16 years…

26a. Since da dee minus one till da dee go mortono…

26b. Since yesterday till today and even tomorrow…

27a. …I remainindath dat same coconut that tried taijinjirization with mammy water via River Niger.......... 

27b...I remain that same person who has ever taken his bath in the depth of the river Niger../(...I am that same brave man who has done the impossible...) 

28a. My karability is made wogged via da enyemaka ngwaa of my XYZ Chief…

28b. My destiny was sharpened/I was inducted by/through the help of my former president…


b. I am in Lagos now/currently. Any babe/girl within the vicinity can contact me.

Table 5 shows long expressions that stand for simple concepts in the general world. As observed by Achebe (1958), a typical African man does not speak in plain language not garnished with adages. This art of knowing how to manipulate words to pass across information in figurative language is highly cherished in African societies. It is a mark of wisdom and oratory competence. This could be seen in the expressions presented in Table 5, where a single word like ‘me’ could be said using an expression as long as Minawela ate awela awolus as in example (21). Though the long expressions sampled in Table 5 portray African orientation, they are not expressions used by the general public. Therefore, only Kegite members make use of and understand them and as such, non members are at a loss as to what they mean.

Furthermore, some of the senses are metaphorical in nature. Observe items 7, 11, 12, and 13 in Table 5. In item 7, permanent selotaping stands for marriage, where the couple will forever remain one (glued together) through their marital vows before the priest(s) and the congregation. In the same vein, item 11 eligwe chambers (sky) or NEPA (National Electricity Power Authority), the ministry that was once in charge of Electricity generation in Nigeria, means sunshine. Also, obeying and disobeying the law of gravity as in items 12 and 13 are unique ways of expressing the senses of sitting and standing. Expressions in Table 5 as well as the structures where they occur as in examples (24-29) are used by members to identify with the group as well as to ensure that non members are excluded from their conversation. In other words, they fulfill CAT’s convergence/divergence principle. Hence, instead of going straight to the point and saying what they want to say out rightly, Kegite members love playing around with words. Let us consider a fuller version of (25a) as we have it in (25c) below:

25c. Mina awela awala du mina, where Amina has decided to go in skirt and blouse, that is to say, I remain my very self...
A look at (25c) may suggest to a non-member listener that the speaker is probably talking about an ‘Amina’ (a person) who has decided to put on skirt and blouse without knowing that everything said from ‘Mina...’ to ‘...blouse’ in the construction is a way of saying ‘I’. The long expression does nothing more than adds beauty to the expression (in this case, ‘I’).

**Table 6: Kegite Sayings**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/No</th>
<th>Kegite Expression</th>
<th>Meaning/Equivalence in the General Society</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>A house that is divided against itself shall stand – unity in diversity</td>
<td>A house divided against itself shall fall.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Few are called but many are chosen</td>
<td>Many are called but few are chosen.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>By their fingers you shall know them</td>
<td>By their fruits you shall know them</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Okpaka wey dey titrate must stand at ease</td>
<td>A male who is urinating must stand straight</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>The evils that okpekesi do live with them for nine months</td>
<td>The evils that men do live after them –(this is related to females and unwanted pregnancy)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>One day is for the okpakasiks, nine months is for the okpekesiks</td>
<td>Every day is for the thief but one day is for the owner.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>A comrade is never late, he may only come behind the time</td>
<td>Showing Kegite members as superior to non-members</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>A comrade does not eat, he feeds</td>
<td>Showing Kegite members as superior to non-members</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>A comrade does not drink, he evaporates</td>
<td>Showing Kegite members as superior to non-members</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>A comrade never forgets although he may fail to remember</td>
<td>Showing Kegite members as superior to non-members</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>A comrade never fails, he may only obey the law of gravity</td>
<td>Showing Kegite members as superior to non-members</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Turu pepe turu pepe, the head of agbalagba is not meant for a child’s play</td>
<td>Serious things should not be played with.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6 above shows ‘liberal’ language used by the Kegite club to rebuff conformity, compliance and allegiance to the mainstream society and the existing order of things. It portrays a refusal to accept what is generally accepted to be the norm. For example, the status quo is ‘Many are called but few are chosen’ but a Few are called but many are chosen shows an attitude of rebellion against the norm. Examples (5 & 6) refer to women and unwanted pregnancy, which are not generally implied as the English equivalents. This is an encouragement to break off from what is considered ‘standard’, a stylistic variety occupying an extreme on the spectrum of linguistic convention and formality. This kind of language emphasises group intimacy and solidarity, thereby performing the social function of both inclusion and exclusion (inclusion of members and exclusion of non members) as proposed in CAT.

VI. SUMMARY OF THE FINDINGS

The language of the Kegite club is somewhat complex and exhibits variety in form and in function. Some of the words used in the Kegite language like every other human language, found their ways into the lexicon through the creative nature of individual members. With frequent usage, these words are integrated into the language and they spread through the various ilyas (branches); for instance, the use of AB for ‘current’, ‘present’ or ‘incumbent’ and XY for ‘immediate past’. The way these coinages are used within the club is one of the major factors that strengthen the Kegite club.

The language of the Kegite club comprises of linguistic items that could be seen in the general linguistic environment. Since the Kegite club exists within a larger society, it is in contact with other language(s) of the larger society through the speakers. Therefore, words are lifted from language(s) used in the society. For instance, the word ‘keg’ is an English word for a container (example: keg/gourd of palm wine). The suffix ‘-ite’ is added to ‘keg’ to derive Kegite, which now refers to the members of the Palm Wine Drinkers Club. Furthermore, Ilya du, which sounds French (like the French word ‘il y a’ meaning ‘there is’ and ‘de’ or ‘du’ meaning ‘of’) are used to mean ‘place of’ in the Kegite language. It finds its way into the vocabulary of the Kegites’ language to mean ‘setting’, that is, a geographical location or campus or branch of the club. We can also see some Kegite expressions that we can trace their roots to some indigenous Nigerian languages. For instance, the words for man and woman, ‘okpaka’ and ‘okepe’ respectively, obviously are traced to ‘okpaka’ of Edo of Delta region of the south southern Nigeria meaning ‘men’ and ‘okepe’ which stands for ‘women’. These words are sometimes clipped and blended in a unique way to make them appear different from what they are in the source languages. We can, therefore, say that the Kegite language is furnished from English, French and indigenous Nigerian languages.

Despite the sources of the linguistic items used in the Kegite language, the items have their specific forms (which are sometimes truncated or distorted from their original forms) and meanings (which are metaphorical) within the context of the club. Generally, the formation, structure, as well as language use of the Kegite exhibit certain pidgin or pidgin-like attributes that is however, quite different from the Nigerian Pidgin. Nevertheless, the features of the Kegite language from our observation based on our data analysis make it a specific type of slang and not pidgin. All these in turn, make the language a tool with which Kegite members align with the group and group identity as well as move away from non-members of the club as postulated in CAT.

Finally, we can say that Kegite expressions appear in two forms – simple familiar or complex strange expressions. The familiar expressions at first appear familiar and understandable because they contain obvious familiar words used by the general public but they are actually not what the non-members take them to mean. The complex strange expressions on the other hand do not contain familiar words that could suggest their meanings to non-members. Therefore, they appear strange from the onset and leave no clue(s) about their meanings. Both kinds of expression leave
non-members in the dark and socially far away from Kegite members. The Kegite language, therefore, is a tool with which the club members converge with each other and at the same time diverge with non-members. As such, members of the club do not necessarily need non-members to leave their presence when they do not want them to be part of what they are discussing. They only have to communicate in their language and a non-member is automatically excluded.

VII. CONCLUSION

Just like any other functional language variety, the Kegite language contains quite a number of expressions, which are intelligible only to the members of the club. These expressions are strange to non-member of the club, but they are as common as every other day-to-day expression in the common/general language of the speech community to the Kegite members. English can be said to be the root of the Kegite language since it is the dominant language found in the expressions. This is because English is the lingua franca in Nigeria and the language commonly spoken in the country’s tertiary institutions. However, one cannot say that the Kegite language is a typical variety of Nigerian English. So, it can be rightly said that the Kegites have developed a specific type of slang from the various languages at its disposal. The slang so developed is not simply an anomaly or an aberration created by some crude and deviant characters; it is rather an essential part of a dynamic sociolinguistic structure, reflecting the social and aesthetic needs and desires of man. Moreover, the Kegite club applies these expressions as tools with which they identify with members of the club. They function as unifying factors that unify the group, thereby converging towards club members. The slang also serves as a tool that draws them apart from the general public/non-members. In this respect, they diverge from those who are not members of the club.

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A Study of EMP Curriculum Reform Based on the Need Analysis

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Abstract—ESP is a sort of English related to a particular profession or subject. ESP courses must be based on the analysis of the needs of the learners. The demand analysis in foreign language teaching is an empirical investigation and research, which is a dynamic diagnosis process for the implementation and improvement of teaching. The needs analysis before the beginning of the course can provide the basis for the setting of the curriculum, and make the curriculum more targeted. In the course of the needs analysis, the educators can adjust the teaching content and teaching methods according to the actual situation. After the needs analysis of the curriculum, teachers can help the teachers collect feedback information through comparative analysis to provide the basis for the follow-up curriculum reform.

Index Terms—EMP (English for medical purpose), demand analysis, curriculum reform

I. INTRODUCTION

In recent years, with the deepening of economic globalization and the enhancement of international exchanges, the demand for composite talents with solid professional knowledge and high English level has increased dramatically. This brings in new opportunities and challenges to college English teaching. Various types of colleges and universities have opened industry related ESP courses, such as business English, tourism English, medical English and so on. Based on this background, the author decided to investigate the needs of medical English Teaching in order to find out the problems existing in the course setting and teaching process of medical English. It is hoped that through the demand analysis, we will understand the actual requirement of their English ability in the teaching subject and the society, industry, starting from the actual needs of students and the society, and put forward the specific and feasible teaching reform scheme to help teachers more effectively implement the outline of teaching English courses, so as to change the present situation of medical English teaching, to provide help English courses for students learning and employment.

II. DEMAND ANALYSIS

In the 70s of last century, with the flourishing of ESP teaching research, demand analysis was introduced into language teaching. However, different scholars have different definitions of demand analysis.

Munby (1978) believes that demand analysis refers to the need for different learners to work through the adjustment of language courses. Yalden (1983) believes that demand analysis is the initial stage of language teaching, and it is the basis for determining teaching objectives, teaching content and teaching methods. Richards and Weber (1985) emphasize that demand analysis is a process to understand and determine language learners' needs and arrange their learning according to their importance. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) divide the requirements into target needs and learning requirements learning needs. Objective demand refers to knowledge and skills that learners must master in order to work smoothly in the future. They can be divided into knowledge, knowledge and knowledge. Learning needs refer to learners' knowledge, skills, strategies, motivations and learning conditions. Robinson (1991) thinks that needs analysis is to identify curriculum objectives by collecting and analyzing learners' objective needs, such as current learning level, learning difficulties, etc, and subjective needs (confidence and attitude towards language learning). Dudley-Evans & St. John (1998) think that needs analysis is a continuous and dynamic process. Only through demand analysis can we determine course contents and teaching methods. Jarvis (1983) is more concise and points out: demand analysis is the need to investigate language learners.

In summary, the demand analysis is through various means such as questionnaires, tests, interviews and observation, find out the existing between the learner level and target level, so as to find the study origin and analyzing the problems generated and to determine the solution of a system of dynamic (Cai, 2012). Demand analysis is the starting point of ESP curriculum design. It is the foundation of ESP curriculum design, curriculum content, curriculum implementation

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and curriculum evaluation. It is also a prerequisite for ensuring the successful and effective completion of ESP teaching.

III. DESIGN AND IMPLEMENTATION OF MEDICAL ENGLISH TEACHING REQUIREMENT

A. Research Problems

The research problems in this paper are as follows:

1. What are the students’ needs and motives for medical English learning?
2. Can the current medical English curriculum meet the students’ actual learning and employment needs?
3. Can the current classroom teaching model and the teaching material be used to arouse the students’ interest in learning and promote the training of English ability?
4. Whether English teachers meet the requirements of students’ ideal medical English teachers, does the teaching evaluation system truly reflect the students' medical English ability?

B. Research Objects

The subjects of this study are divided into three categories:

1. Questionnaire survey
   - The questionnaire survey in this study is divided into two parts. The first part is mainly aimed at 400 students in 2015 medical school. The survey contents include students’ background information, learning motivation and purpose, teaching material usage, teaching staff, teaching process, teaching evaluation system and teaching effect. The second part of the questionnaire mainly aimed at 25 medical workers at all levels of medical units. The contents of the survey included their background information, their needs for medical English, their most wanted medical English skills and part of the questionnaire mainly aimed at 25 medical workers at all levels of medical units.

2. Interview
   - In order to further understand the needs of students, teachers and medical workers, and improve the needs survey, the author also made an outline for interviews with students, teachers and medical workers representatives, so as to get content information that could not be covered in the questionnaire. The student interviews were face-to-face interviews using the class and the spare time and students; the medical English teacher interviews are mainly face to face in the daily teaching work and weekly teaching activities after conversation; interview based on the medical workers by telephone interviews to complete individual doctors out time schedule accepted this interview.

3. Telephone interview
   - A total of 400 questionnaires and 25 medical workers were issued in this survey. In order to effectively retrieve the questionnaire, all the questionnaires were marked with numbers. Meanwhile, the questionnaire was also actively coordinated by the respondents, so the recovery rate of the questionnaire was 100%. The author collates the questionnaire in time and inputs the data into the SPSS17.0 statistical software to convert the data into a chart so as to facilitate the subsequent comparative analysis. The interview was a semi-structured interview. With the consent of the interviewee, some interviews were recorded and the recordings were converted into word documents. All the interview records are summed up by the author himself.

IV. ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION ON THE INVESTIGATION RESULTS OF MEDICAL ENGLISH TEACHING DEMAND

Through the survey can be seen, all the English teachers surveyed, medical workers and most of the students think
that English is very important in medical clinical practice, we should strengthen the medical English learning of medical students, offering medical English course is English Teaching in medical colleges and universities represent the general trend of reform (Feng, 2014). Moreover, most of the students are interested in and motivated by English learning. They hope to improve their English level and develop their comprehensive quality and enhance their employability through medical English course. Since the establishment of the medical English course, the Institute has achieved certain results, but there are also some obvious problems. The details are as follows:

A. **The Model of Medical English Curriculum Is Not Perfect**

The analysis shows that the medical English curriculum follows the following steps: Student needs analysis -- teachers together discuss and confirm curriculum syllabus -- publishing curriculum materials with publishing houses -- organization teaching, curriculum evaluation combined with formative and summative evaluation. The model consists of Hutchinson & Waters (1987) put forward the five steps model is set in the curriculum, which needs analysis, syllabus design, teaching materials, teaching methods, curriculum evaluation, it is similar to the theoretical model of “Learning - centered” curriculum set up by Hutchinson & Waters, which is feasible in theory.

But according to the demand analysis mode, ESP needs analysis not only to concern learners' needs, but also to pay attention to learners' learning environment, that is, the needs of society (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998). Only by combining learners' needs and social needs organically, can our medical English teaching be targeted and cultivate compound talents that are suitable for social development needs (Jiang, 2013). In the course of medical English courses, the medical colleges and universities only pay attention to the students' needs and lack the attention to the social needs. In addition, the mode setting ESP course Dudley-Evans & St. John proposed is a dynamic process, needs analysis and curriculum evaluation of repeated courses related to constantly updated information, so to find the curriculum implementation problems in the process and make the corresponding adjustment (Lin, 2013). The medical English curriculum of the medical colleges and universities investigated is a fixed immutable and frozen mode, which has not been opened for any student needs survey, so teachers have to make appropriate adjustments in the process of teaching according to the curriculum evaluation results. But teachers are faced with different teaching groups every year, and the effect of this adjustment is not known.

B. **Medical English Courses Cannot Meet the Students' Need for English Practicality**

Although up to 82.1% of students, all teachers and medical workers think it is very necessary to set up a medical English course, but most of them think that the current medical English curriculum is not able to satisfy their practical needs of English. According to the survey, the link between the course and other professional courses is very high. Only 15.8% of college students, 70% of students indicate that two have a general connection, and 12.7% of students indicate that the relationship between the two is very small. In the survey of the total amount of medical English classes, 54.5% of the students think that the current class hours are too small and should be increased. In the interview, some students said that in addition to mastering some medical professional vocabulary and reading ability of medical English a little progress, other aspects of the gains were less.

In interviews with teachers, the teachers gave their own advice on when to open the course and the duration of the course. Some teachers believe that English learning should run through the students' college education. The first semester general English, help students through Grade Four examination; second semester basic medical English, medical English focuses on cultivating students' practical skills, to lay the foundation for medical English learning; third, fourth semester professional English test, such as English, English image, Pharmaceutical English, nursing English, students can more deeply learning and their own professional knowledge about English, so as to increase their employment competitiveness.

Richards and Weber (1985) emphasize that requirement analysis is a process to understand and determine language learners' needs and arrange their learning according to their importance. For now, it is necessary for the teaching management and execution department of the investigated institutions to conduct more extensive research on the society, market and students, so as to create effective medical English courses that can really meet students' needs.

C. **Medical English Teaching Methods and Means Are Obsolete and Single, and the Teaching Effect Is Poor**

Through the survey found that the teaching method is widely used in the current medical English class or the traditional grammar translation method, the teaching method of “Teacher centered”, make the classroom become a teacher “teacher in Taiwan, What I say goes.” impassioned on words, the translation text, students passively sitting there listening, taking notes the interaction between teachers and students, the lack of necessary, student interaction, make the classroom dull, unable to stimulate students' interest, but also defeated the enthusiasm of teachers (Qin & Shi, 2014). The direct result of this teaching mode is that students have mastered many medical professional vocabularies and have improved their reading ability, but the comprehensive ability of language can’t be exercised. Students’ overall evaluation of medical English teaching is not high (Song, 2012).

In the questionnaire survey and interview, all the teachers and students said that multimedia has been widely used in the classroom teaching. But its main form is PPT courseware. Teachers only make slides for teaching contents, such as key words, medical terms, examples, etc., and present them to students in class. Although these courseware has changed the past “a book, a blackboard, a piece of chalk” teaching methods, to improve the efficiency of classroom teaching, and
because they incorporate sound, pictures and other information, full of picture and sound, multi angle can mobilize
students' emotion and attention, arouse students' interest and made some the teaching effect. However, there is no
essential difference between the so-called multimedia teaching and the traditional teaching process (Wang, 2012).
Because of selection, teaching strategies and methods from teaching content, the teaching steps to arrange the students
in classroom activities, after-school practice teachers are pre-designed, students can only passively participate in the
whole teaching process, not in accordance with their actual level and hobbies to choose to learn the content of their own
level the activities and exercises are still being taught, and the modern multimedia teaching in the true sense there is still
a gap. Of course, we say education is not fixed; medical English, as a new curriculum, is not a universal teaching
method, teachers need to constantly sum up research in the practical teaching process, combining with the demand
analysis, to find suitable for their students and effective teaching methods, so that students can benefit from learning in.

D. The Teaching Content of Medical English Is Fixed and the Teaching Material Is Unchangeable

The teaching material is the concrete embodiment of the syllabus and teaching content, and it is an important means
to ensure the smooth implementation of the teaching. Hutchinson & Waters (2002) suggests that the selection of
medical English teaching materials should be in accordance with the following four criteria: (1) Authenticity, that is, the
language material is the real material which is closely related to the future career of the students from the real context.
(2) The appropriateness, that is, the selection of the textbooks must be difficult and moderate, which is in line with the
level of the students. (3) Universality, that is, selected textbooks not only include language skills such as vocabulary,
grammar and other language skills such as listening, speaking, reading and writing, but also include intercultural
communication knowledge. (4) Compatibility, that is, the selected materials are closely related to the syllabus
developed on the basis of demand analysis. The teaching materials used in this school are written on the basis of
demand analysis and according to the syllabus. The survey data show that most students think the teaching material is
moderate in difficulty. In the conversation with teachers, you also generally reflect that the textbooks currently used are
not very difficult, and the structure is more reasonable, which involves all aspects of English teaching, such as listening,
speaking, reading, writing and translation. But the students are not satisfied with the content of the textbooks used now.
Only 29.1% of them are very interested or interested. Most of the students think that there is a large vocabulary in
textbooks, and some of them are too long for reading articles. They lack the necessary listening and speaking training and
are not practical enough. Such a result is not only a student's own problems, such as the weak foundation of
students' English and the lack of interest in English learning, but also the reduction of their learning enthusiasm.

As everyone knows, the development of medical technology change rapidly, every day there will be the emergence of
new diseases, there will be a new drug, there will be a new medical device in clinical use, but our textbooks since the
publication of knowledge did not immutable and frozen, and update; teachers annually face different student groups,
students English level, hobbies are different, training materials and teaching content is not conducive to the students
personalized fixed. Therefore, appropriate additions and deletions to the teaching content and the revision of the
teaching materials according to the students' actual conditions are an urgent problem to be solved.

E. The Strength of Medical English Teachers Is Weak and the Structure of Teachers Needs to Be Improved

Teachers are the key to the success or failure of teaching activities. The teaching of medical English has put forward
higher requirements for teachers: teachers should not only have a solid foundation of English language, but also have
certain medical professional knowledge. At present, the problem of teachers has become an important factor restricting
the reform of medical English Teaching in the University, which is mainly shown in the following aspects: (1) The
number of teachers is seriously inadequate and the teaching task of teachers is heavy. Due to the lack of teachers,
English teaching has to be taught in large classes. (2) All the medical English teachers graduated from the English major,
and none of them had the background of medical education. Although all teachers are aware of the importance of
professional knowledge in medical English teaching, due to the heavy workload of teaching, there is no time and energy
for medical English teaching research. (3) Medical English teachers lack the necessary approaches to further study and
training. Since the course of medical English is opened, no teacher has been out to receive related training. In the actual
teaching process, teachers encounter some medical problems that they don't understand. They can only consult other
professional teachers, consult related professional books or seek help from the Internet. Everyone says the preparation is
very stressful. At the same time, at the same time, in class, some professional knowledge do not dare to expand, worry
about their mistakes and students questioned. Therefore, medical English classes are sometimes reduced to simple
explanations of vocabulary, grammatical explanation and sentence translation. The survey shows that most students
want medical English teachers to be a compound foreign language teacher with medical background. Obviously, the
existing knowledge structure of medical English teachers and teachers has not been able to meet the needs of students.
How to create conditions and improve the construction of teaching staff has become an urgent task for the school
teaching management department.

F. The Subject of Evaluation of Medical English Teaching Is Single, and the Way of Assessment Is Not Scientific

In interviews, teachers generally reflected that the current evaluation of medical English teaching is mainly made by
teachers, and the evaluation method is combined with formative assessment and summative evaluation. Formative
assessment refers to the students' classroom attendance and homework, quizzes, summative assessment is the midterm
and final exam, and then calculated according to a certain proportion of total. Due to the use of medical English teaching is the traditional grammar translation method, teaching contents to the vocabulary and grammar explanation and reading the texts translation, so the test for multiple choice, fill in the blanks, reading, translation, mainly from textbooks, compared with college English, only some technical appraisal. This kind of exam is to emphasize knowledge and students' memory test, so some students even if the class is not usually so serious, after no extra charge of self-study, only in a week or one or two days before the assault by staying up late can be mixed or high pass. Although the medical English class are listening and oral English teaching, but the evaluation system ignore the listening and speaking ability assessment, students' final grades do not reflect their true level of language, but also frustrated the learning enthusiasm of some students, contrary to medical English teaching, students can’t meet the medical English learning needs.

V. COUNTERMEASURES OF MEDICAL ENGLISH TEACHING REFORM BASED ON DEMAND ANALYSIS

A. To Carry out Comprehensive and Comprehensive Demand Analysis, Perfect the Curriculum and Optimize the Curriculum System

1. To carries out comprehensive and objective needs analysis

According to the view of Hutchinson & Waters (1987), demand is divided into objective demand and learning demand. Objective demand refers to knowledge and skills that learners must master in order to work smoothly in the future. Therefore, the author suggests that it is necessary to conduct a comprehensive investigation on the needs of a wide range of industries and medical workers, medical workers to understand the social requirements of language ability, the medical workers of my lack of knowledge in clinical work and they want to master the knowledge and skills, and find out from between the students' current level and industry demand gap for teachers to revise teaching materials, teaching plans, effectively implement teaching basis. In addition, our teachers annually face different teaching groups, the mental state of students, the level of knowledge, interest in learning different needs on the program will be different; at the same time the students’ learning is a dynamic process, their learning needs is not the same 10%. Therefore, we should run through the demand survey throughout the teaching process, not only before the course starts, but also in the curriculum, so that teachers can understand the needs of students in time and adjust accordingly. The investigation after the course is equally important, teachers through the analysis of survey results to identify problems, sum up experience, and the analysis results are applied to the curriculum design and teaching practice of the next round, in order to maximize meet the needs of the students, to achieve the goal of English Teaching in medicine.

2. To perfect the curriculum and optimize the curriculum system

Although the curriculum of medical English accords with the curriculum mode of ESP, but due to the lack of demand analysis, the current curriculum is no longer able to meet the actual needs of students, mainly due to the serious shortage of class hours and lack of occupational relevance. In view of this situation, the author puts forward two kinds of schemes. One is to open the course of College English and medical English at the same time without changing the total amount of English class. The course of College English elective courses and basic medical English courses the first semester, focus on the cultivation of students' practical skills of medical English, to lay the foundation for medical English learning; the second and third semester medical English test such as English, English image, Pharmaceutical English, nursing English, students can learn more deeply with their own professional knowledge about English. The two is to increase the total amount of English class hours, and make English study throughout the students' college education. Specifically for the first term to open College English, the second term to open the basic medical English, the third, fourth term to open professional English. But no matter which plan, it is imperative to set up medical English, and we must guarantee a certain amount of time. Only in this way can we meet the needs of industry and students (Zhang, 2013).

3. Clear goal of teaching

The goal of teaching is the starting point and final destination of all teaching activities (Zhao & Wang, 2015). List of English Syllabus of medical English teaching goal: to consolidate and improve the students’ basic knowledge of English language, listening, speaking, reading, writing and translation skills, learning about reading, translation skills, basic knowledge of medical English, improve the comprehensive ability of students in the actual work situation by using English in daily communication, and for the further study of professional English to lay the necessary foundation. It can be seen that the teaching goal of medical English in this hospital is concerned with the training of students' comprehensive ability, especially the skills of reading and translation (Wong & Qi, 2013). This requirement is too general, and there is a certain gap between the findings of students and medical workers. The author proposes to further clarify the teaching objectives of medical English by combining the actual school and the results of the investigation of the students and medical workers: (1) students to expand their medical English vocabulary; (2) to strengthen the training of listening and speaking training in medical students, in the context of communicative competence; (3) to strengthen the medical students' English reading ability, can use English Dictionary access to professional literature; (4) to write simple medical application such as medical records, discharge summary, doctor proof. Besides, in the future, when offering professional English courses, we should make more detailed and definite teaching objectives according to the characteristics of different majors and the results of student needs analysis.

B. To Speed up the Pace of Compilation and Revision of Teaching Materials and Enrich Teaching Content

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In the course of writing teaching materials, we are concerned only with the needs of the students, and do not include the needs of the industry. Therefore, before the revision of textbooks, we should conduct a comprehensive survey of the needs of students and industries, understand the needs of industries and the changes of student needs, and cut and supplement teaching contents under the guidance of syllabus.

The development of medical technology is changing with each passing day. Teachers should follow the pace of the times, pay attention to the new trend of the development of the industry, update and supplement the teaching content in time. Teachers can select appropriate teaching contents according to the requirements of syllabus. At the same time, we should make full use of modern network technology, pass multimedia courseware, record micro lectures, and so on, and impart the contents that are not reflected in the textbooks to students.

C. To Strengthen the Construction of Medical ESP Teachers

On the one hand, a number of high quality medical English majors can be introduced directly. This can alleviate the number of medical English teacher shortage. At the same time, after several years of medical English learning, they not only lay a solid foundation for language, but also have certain medical knowledge, so they can go to teaching positions without special training. On the other hand, ESP experts and scholars can be regularly invited to the school to give lectures, and to guide the teaching theory and research methods of medical English teachers. Medical experts are regularly invited to teach English teachers, to impart basic medical knowledge and to promote the conversion of English teachers to compound English teachers.

The school may send willing to domestic and foreign English teachers in medical colleges and universities related majors such as inspection, image, pharmacy and other learning; It can also send a batch of foreign language foundation of good young professional teachers at home and abroad have set up medical English major college ESP teaching or teacher training base in practice learning, and give some incentives.

School establishment consists of English teachers and medical professional teachers of medical English teaching, teachers often organized collective classes, each course evaluation to improve the teaching level, mutual exchange of needed products, both inside and outside the school; Teachers attend to public courses, various levels of teaching competition, build learning platform for their exercise; It encourages teachers to carry out teaching study. English teachers can be combined with the professional teachers of various subjects reporting.

D. Construction of “Flipped Class” Medical English Teaching Model Based on the Admiring Course

The flipped classroom teaching mode can liberate teachers from the fetters of the tedious imparting knowledge, which is helpful for teachers to individualize teaching and train students’ learning ability. The success or failure of flipped classroom depends on two links. One is “rollover”, that is, teachers shoot and make birth teaching video, so that students can achieve information transmission before class. The two is “turning”, that is, teachers can mobilize students’ learning enthusiasm and achieve effective internalization of knowledge through a large number of interactive learning activities, such as group discussion, role play, situational simulation and keynote speech.

In the whole process, the student is the main body of the class, and the teacher is only the organizer and the instructor. Students solve problems of language and knowledge through class self-study and classroom answering questions, and participate in group discussions more actively and confidently. Meanwhile, network system evaluation, comprehensive evaluation of teacher evaluation and peer review can also urge students to learn initiatively. The flipping classroom teaching mode plays a great role in the cultivation of students’ ability of thinking, innovation and self-learning.

E. To Establish a Comprehensive Teaching Evaluation System Combining with the Profession

1. Phased test of students' English level

We should have the first positioning test before starting the medical English course to understand students' current English level, and divide the class according to the results, in order to facilitate the teachers according to the syllabus of students' ability, teaching content and teaching methods; And then in achievement test in the course of the learning process, such as a chapter after the end of the unit test, or a learning stage after stage of the examination, to know whether students have mastered the solution outline specified language and skills, teachers can adjust the teaching, and make students aware of their weaknesses, clear effort direction. Competence test should always run through students' medical English learning. It encourages students to apply their language knowledge to practice and develop their comprehensive language use ability.

2. Examination content and form diversification

In order to achieve the goal of “Application - oriented” in medical English teaching, I think that the test of listening and oral English should be included in the examination scope. Although not all within the scope of the listening test in the midterm and final exam, but the teacher can carry on stage in the teaching process and the results recorded listening test; As for the oral test is more simple, daily oral English class communicative activities such as situational dialogue, group can be as oral ability evaluation the basis (Zhu, 2013). Teachers should inform students in advance, so that students can realize the importance of actively participate in classroom activities, and actively participate in classroom communication. In addition, after the end of the course, teachers can give specific scenarios according to the teaching module. Students are asked to combine the knowledge of the module and apply the medical communication language to simulate the situation, so as to test their comprehensive language application ability.
VI. CONCLUSION

Demand analysis is an important condition for the implementation of special purpose English teaching. First of all, effective demand analysis is of great significance for teachers to improve teaching methods and improve teaching effect. It can make teachers understand their own teaching objects and teaching goals clearly. They can make a definite target in the course of teaching and improve the efficiency and quality of teaching. Secondly, effective demand analysis can enable students to have a more comprehensive understanding of their learning situation, clarify their learning needs, and participate in the process of classroom teaching to a greater extent, thus increasing interest and enthusiasm in learning English. In this paper, through the investigation and analysis of demand for students, teachers, medical workers, the English curriculum, teaching mode, teaching materials, teachers and teaching evaluation are discussed, the abstract demand analysis theory into the curriculum and the actual teaching. Teaching can not only reduce the blindness and randomness, but also provides a realistic basis for medical English curriculum reform, and also provide a reference for the medical English Teaching in medical colleges.

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Cognitive Motivation for Unaccusative Verbs with Objects in Existential Construction in Chinese

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Abstract—This study applies conceptual blending and grammatical blending to analyze the meaning and structure construction of the NP1+Vi+NP2 construction in existential construction in Chinese. We found that the NP1+Vi+NP2 construction in existential sentences is the result of conceptual integration and grammatical blending of two subevents with basic grammatical structure of NP1+Vt+NP2 and NP2+Vi respectively. By discussing process of semantic construction and syntactic realization, we derive that the structure of existential sentences is integrated by the input spaces of "the existing object exists (or lies on some status)" and "somewhere exists something". It can concludes that the emergent meaning is "somewhere exists the existing object lying on some status" through analyzing the blending characters. This proves that conceptual integration and grammatical blending theories are animate and have mighty explanatory power in this specific linguistic phenomenon.

Index Terms—NP1+Vi+NP2, conceptual blending, grammatical blending

I. INTRODUCTION

The conceptual blending theory is based on mental space theory proposed by Gilles Fauconnier (1996). Conceptual blending occurs during on-line dynamic construction of full meaning. It involves two input spaces, a generic space, and a blended space and the emergent structure comes into being by mapping and projecting between different spaces. The basic operate mechanisms are composition, completion, and elaboration. Grammatical blending, one type of conceptual blending, is a model for the analysis of sentence generation and interpretation. Its syntactic realization of grammatical blending is represented from the syntactical structure based on the input spaces of conceived event and grammar construction by the mapping and projecting cross the spaces. And the semantic realization of grammatical blending is represented from the conceived event based on the input spaces of syntactical structure and grammar construction by the mapping and projecting cross the spaces.

This paper will use conceptual blending and grammatical blending to analyze the meaning and structure construction of the NP1+Vi+NP2 construction in existential construction.

II. DISTINCTIONS BETWEEN UNERGATIVE VERBS AND UNACCUSATIVE VERBS

A. Unaccusative Hypothesis

Unaccusative Hypothesis was first proposed by Perlmutter (1978) in the frame work of Relation Grammar. There are two types of intransitive verbs: one is known as unaccusative verbs (e.g. happen, appear) and the other is known as unergative verbs (e.g. run, dance). The unaccusative verbs and unergative verbs are one-place verbs, however, the surface subject of an unaccusative verb is the logical deep object, the surface subject of an unergative verb is also the deep subject. Later, Williams (1981) and Burzio (1981) pointed out the two kinds of verbs both include a sole argument. The sole argument of an unaccusative verb is its internal argument, while the sole argument of an unergative verb is its external argument. According to Government and Binding Theory, the sentences with unaccusative verbs are regarded as those without objects in deep structures, whereas the sentences with unergative verbs are regarded as those without subjects in deep structures. With the frame work of RG, the difference between unaccusatives and unergatives is described as: the surface subject of an unergative verb is also the deep subject, whereas the surface subject of an accusative verb is the deep object.

Sportiche and koopman (1991) put forward VP internal Subject Hypothesis, which is a complement. They propose that the internal and external arguments are base-generated in VP, where can be assigned thematic roles. Therefore, the
relationship between the internal and external arguments and V is local. In other words, the subject of an unergative verb is formulated in the position of specifier of VP in deep structure, whereas the subject of unaccusative verb is in the position of VP’s complement. We will take (2) as an example.

(1) a. The girl runs. (unergative)
   b. The bus comes. (unaccusative)

(2)

From the above examples, we can see in (1a), the subject "the girl" of the unergative verb "runs" is always the subject either in (1a) or (2a). But in (1b), the subject "the bus" of the unaccusative verb "comes" is the direct object in the deep structure of (2b).

So certain intransitive clauses are unaccusative clauses, which have subjects in the surface, but actually, take a final object in the deep structure. In Relational Grammar, the subjects of unergatives take the Specifier position at both D-structure and S-structure. However, unaccusative verb in the deep structure are in the position of D-structure, and after that, it may or may not move to the Specifier.

Permutter's UH is connected with impersonal passives in Dutch and Turkish. Permutter (1978) provides the list of English unergatives and unaccusatives.

Unergatives:
- a. Verbs describing willed or volitional acts: run, dance, sing, talk, skate, swim, fight, bow, knock, hunt, bicycle, kneel, laugh, box, agree, etc.
- b. Certain involuntary bodily processes: burp, vomit, sleep, cry, etc.

Unaccusatives:
- a. Verbs expressed by some adjectives: big, small, red, black, etc.
- b. Verbs whose subjects are semantically patient: sink, flow, rise, burn, hang, drown, trip, shake, wave, away, wave, float, slide, etc.
- c. Aspecual verbs: start, begin, stop, end, etc.
- d. Verbs of existing and happening: be, exist, live, dwell, stand, lie, remain, come, go, walk, fly, approach, appear, occur, arise etc.

From the above list, we may conclude that verbs represent volitional acts of the subjects and involuntary bodily processes of humans usually are unergatives. While, verbs represent nonvolitional events of the subject referents and show the changes of state are unaccusatives. In other words, unergatives take humans or animals as the subjects and usually describe volitional acts of their subject referents, so they are "do-type" expression. While, unaccusatives take inanimate as the subjects and usually describe changes of state, so they are "become-type" expression.

B. Unaccusative Verbs in Chinese

The above sections focus on the descriptions of unaccusative verb in English and other language, but not intensively on Chinese. Examples of unaccusative verb and unergative verb in Chinese can be shown in (Huang 2006). Examples of unaccusative verb and unergative verb are:

- a. unaccusative verb: lai (come), qu (go), shi (is), you (have), si (die), tang (lie), zou(walk) chuxian (appear), fasheng (happen)……
- b. unergative verb: xiao (smile), ku (cry), fei (fly), tiao (jump), chaonao (wrangle)……

Classification of unaccusative verb in Chinese, however, is not smooth, for one reason is, distinguishing transitive verb from intransitive verb in Chinese is not so easy to some extent. Unaccusativity, on the other hand, is said to be universals, which leads us to the discussion of unaccusative verb in Chinese specially. Generally, existential verb, non-causative verb and passive verb in Chinese are unaccusative verb. But such generation, is far from satisfaction. The lexical expression approach is cross-language different (Levin and Rappaport 1995:4), which may impact the judgement of a verb to be unaccusative verb or not. One type of such unaccusative verb is the combination of motion verb (generally monosyllable) and direction of moving, forming a kind of complex verb, such as verb+lai/qu/li/guo, meaning come/go/leave/pass, respectively, etc. As example (3) shows, the omission of the part of direction will lead to
This indicates that the parameter, $\pm$ Direction, is a crucial factor in determining unaccusativity. We argue that the expression of lexical meaning in (4b) is similar to unaccusative verb in English as (3a) formed by Van Valin (1990).

(3) a. pa*(lai) 1e yi zhi ma-yi.
   Crawl (come) LE one ant
   (An ant crawls (over).)
   b. Men-qian da-qiao xia you*(guo) yi qun ya
   Door-front bridge under swim *(cross) one CL duck
   (A group of ducks swim cross under the bridge in front of the door.)

(4) a. [x BECOME be-at]
   b. [x MOVE] BECOME be-at

Another kind of unaccusative verb in Chinese as in example (3) is the so called alternative of intransitive verb and causative verb, which is the same to English. The only DP in (3b) obviously is internal argument, which confirms that the verb is an unaccusative verb, as we mentioned above. Such kind of verb generally indicates and shows a change of state, with the expression of lexical meaning in (4).

(5) a. Ta men chen 1e chuan
   They sink ASP boat
   (They made the boat sunk.)
   b. Chuan chen le
   Boat sink ASP
   (the boat sank.)

(6) [x DO-something] CAUSE [y BECOME STATE]

The third kind of unaccusative verb in Chinese is verbs indicating appearance or disappearance, which is the same to English. The verb, si,(to die) in (7a), which indicates the disappearance of Wang Mian's father, is widely discussed in literature, is a typical example. Similarly, transitive verb when used as passive voice as in (7b) is also unaccusative verb.

What is different from English is that there are two arguments, one external argument and the other internal argument which is often termed as retained object, can appear in the sentence.

(7) a. Wang Mian qi-sui shang si 1e fu-qin.
   Name seven years old die ASP father.
   b. Li Si bei tou le yi ge qian-bao.
   Name Passive steal ASP one  CL  purse
   (Li Si's purse was stolen.)

Similarly, almost the verbs, and especially derivation from adjective, or deadjectivized verbs, which indicates change of state, are unaccusative verbs in Chinese, though such verb will not used as causative verb in modern Chinese. It is noticeable that such verbs in Ancient Chinese are used widely as causative such as (8a) and (8b):

(8) a. Bei-zi po le.
   Glass broke ASP
   (Glass is broken.)
   b. *Ta po le bei-zi.
   He brake ASP glass
   Intend (He broke the glass.)
   c. Ta da po le bei-zi
   He brake ASP glass
   (He broke the glass.)

(9) a. Tou-fa hei le
   Hair black ASP
   (Hair turn black.)
   b. *Ta hei le tou-fa
   He black ASP hair
   Intend (His hair turn black.)

III. THE COGNITIVE ANALYSIS TO THE EXISTENTIAL CONSTRUCTION IN CHINESE

A. The Construction of Sentence Meaning

From the type of conceptual blending, integrated network of existential sentences can be divided into two types. The first type is the existential sentences of double-scope network, including "zhe" construction, experiential aspect of existence sentences, progressive and complete aspect of dynamic existential sentences; The second type is the existential sentences of simplex network, including "you (have)" construction, "shi (be)" construction, centering predicate and noun predicate sentences. Then we’ll discuss its meaning construction process.

a. Existential Sentences of Double-Scope Network
The input space is the source space of the blended meaning. So in order to set up the conceptual blending meaning, input space must be established first. In general, the establishment of the unconventional sentence meaning is inseparable from conventional events expressed by the conventional sentence. Conventional events often rely on the general chronological order and the causal relationship in daily life to construct events. Conventional events provide the source concept for more complicated unconventional events. The syntactic form of existential sentences is “NP1 + V + NP2”. The locative meaning is abstract and is usually a peripheral case. If location acts as a subject, the sentence is unconventional. The existence of specific acts as the subject may be more common.

Language form is the result of cognitive reflecting to the real world. Our cognition often focuses on the state of existence itself in the real world. We first perceive the state of existence, then to infer the existence’s location. Basic cognitive sense also tells us that we first perceive something exists (appears or disappears) in a certain state, and then to know its location. That is to say, the concept “The existing object exists (appears or disappears)”. is the premise of the concept “Somewhere exists (appears or disappears) the existing object.”. If people don’t feel there exists (appears or disappears) something, then there is no concept of something exists (appears or disappears) somewhere. To express the meaning “Shu xia tang-zhe yi-ge-ren. There lays a person under the tree ”, we should perceive first “yi-ge-ren tang-zhe. A person is lying”, and then consider this man’s location “under the tree”. We establish the concept of “something” exists “under the tree”, and then to produce the concept “There lays a person under the tree ”. If we don’t perceive “A person is lying”, we can’t set up the concept “There lays a person under the tree ”. In order to express existential sentences “Mou-chu cun-zai (chu-xian huo xiao-shi) mou-wu. Somewhere exists (appears or disappears) something, we must first establish the construction “Mou-wu cun-zai(huo chu-yu mou-zhong-zhuang-tai). Something exists (or in certain state)” and then set up the concept of “Mou-chu cun-zai mou-wu. Somewhere exists something.”, finally establish the existential meaning “Mou-chu cun-zai chu-yu mou-zhong-zhuang-tai de mou-wu. Somewhere exists something in certain state.”. So the conceptual blending network of existential sentence meaning is as following:

Input space 1: The existing object exists (or in certain state).
Input space 2: Somewhere exists something
The blend: Somewhere exists the existing object in certain state.

In input space1, the object in a certain state is the specific form of existing object. When we know something in a certain state (such as standing, sitting, posting, swimming, etc.), we can infer the existence of the object, then putting the object’s specific existing state (the object in a certain state) into the input space. Sometimes the object’s specific existence state is unknown but only its existence is known, then input space can use the abstract form “The object exists.” to express the meaning. Dynamic existential sentences and “zhe” construction, experiential aspect of existence sentences in static existential sentences can express specific existential state, while “you (have)” construction, “shi (be)” construction in static existential sentences, centering predicate and noun predicate sentences can’t. In the former type, the input space1 can be “The existing object exists in a certain state.” while the latter input space 1 is “The existing object exists.”. Take sentence “Tai shang zuo zhe zhu-xi-tuan. The presidiums are sitting on the platform.” as an example, its conceptual integration network is as follow:

Input space 1: zhu-xi-tuan zuo zhe. (The presidiums are sitting.)
Input space 2: Tai shang cun zai zhu-xi-tuan. (There exist presidiums on the platform.)
The blend: Tai shang zuo zhe zhu-xi-tuan. (The presidiums are sitting on the platform.)
part of the concept in the two input spaces. So the structure relation of the blended event must chose events with higher degree of significance to activate events with lower degree of significance. In this way can we integrate the two concepts into one concept. In general, concrete event is more significant than the abstract. And the dynamic event is more significant than static. Compared to the existential relation, state relation is concrete, existential relation is abstract, such as "zuo zhe (be sitting)" relative to "exist", the former is a specific posture, the latter is the abstract existential relation, obviously the former are more likely to be perceived. State relations are dynamic to some extent, such as "zuo (sit)
   "can indicate dynamic actions as well as the static state. Though in the existential sentence "zuo zhe
   (be sitting)
   " is a kind of non-moving state and has the characteristics of attachment, it is a static state after moving
   action. So the state relation is more dynamic compared to the abstract existential relation. The state relations are more
   significant than the existential relation, thus it is more suitable to be the events framework for the blend space. So “Tai
   shang zuo zhe zhu-xi-tuan. The presidiums are sitting on the platform.” can express the meaning “On the platform the
   presidiums exist by means of sitting”, while "Tai shang cun zai zhu-xi-tuan. On the platform the presidiums exist.” can’t
   express the meaning. That’s because the former’s significance activates the nonsignificant relation, so as to integrate the
   input space, while the latter can’t, thus fails to integrate.

We can see the above frame network is Double-Scope Network. Double-Scope Networks’ input spaces own different
   framework. Part of the framework in this two input Spaces can be projected into the blend, forming unique framework
   in blended space. In double-scope networks, the framework of both input space plays an important role in integrating
   framework.

b. Existential Sentences of Simplex Network

"Shi(be)"construction, "you(to have)" construction, the centering predicate sentences and the noun predicate
sentences set up meaning in a slightly different way. These sentences are blended with simplex networks which is the
   simplest frame network. In simplex networks the abstract framework composes an input space, some specific filling
   elements compose another input space. The integrated framework merges framework and the specific value in input
   space with the simplest way. Existential sentence in input space 1 "Mou-chu cun zai (chu-xian huo xiao-shi)
   cun-zai-dui-xiang. (Somewhere exists (appears or disappears) the existing object.)" blends with the specific value in
   space 2. For example, the sentence "Shan xia you fang-zi. There is a house down the hill " forms corresponding
   relationship by “Mou-chu cun zai cun-zai-dui-xiang (Somewhere exists the existing object.)" and “Shang xia you
   fang-zi. (There is a house down the hill)". Both build mapping relation in the blend, "shan xia (down the hill)" namely
   "somewhere", "you (have)" namely "exist" and "fang-zi (house)" namely “the existing object”.

B. Blending Characteristics of Sentence Patterns

1. Structure of Existential Sentence

   Segment A

   The Structure of existential sentence is "NP1+V+NP2 ". According to Fan Fanglian (1963), the structure is divided
   into segments A, B, C. Segment A is location which generally composed nouns of places or nouns with preposition.
   Sometimes a prepositional phrase can used in segment A.

   (10) a. Zai zuo zi shang you yi-ben-shu.

      on the table    have a    book
      (There is a book on the table.)

   b. Cong qian mian chuang guo lai yi-ge-ren.

      from the front    come     a person
      (A person came from the front.)

   The sentence is still valid after removing preposition of the prepositional phrase above. Sometimes the time
   component can be used in segment A, for example "Zuo tian lai le yi wei ke-ren. A guest came yesterday". A section of
   the composition of existential sentences more freedom, so the component of segment A is very free.

   Segment B

   Components of segment B are existential verbs, including two types: one is abstract non-motional verb, such as "you
   (have)" and "shi (be)"; another is action verb denoting state or manner of movement, such as verbs "zhan (stand), tang
   (lie), tie (stick to), fei (fly)", etc. The research to existential verb from the perspective of the semantic features has
   yielded fruitful results (Zhu Dexi 1981; Lu Jianming 1991; Qi Huyang 1998), but the research to its combination
   function is not comprehensive. Here the existential verbs’ integration features is mainly shown by researching the nature
   of verb and combination function, and you can see the components of segment B in existential sentences have more
   restrictions, such as:

   The action verbs of existential sentences only show abstract existential state, it is different from the general verbs
   with "agent-patient" relations. Although the existential verbs have controllable (or volitional) verbs, but the autonomy
   of controllable verbs is restrained. It can only indicate existential state. Such as the meanings between sentences "Di
   shang reng le yi-ge yan-tou. There threw a cigarette butt on the ground" and "Ta ren le yi-ge yan-tou. He threw a
   cigarette butt." are different obviously. The former is a kind of existential state, the latter is an active action. Existential
   verbs do not have the initiative. So the verb can’t overlap because the overlapping verbs mean trying actively. When it
   adds adverbials of possibility in front of the verbs, the initiative verbs “bi xu (must)” can’t be used in the sentence while
others words can. Desiderative or subjective verbs will conflict with the objective existential meaning, so it can’t be used in existential sentences. When it adds adverbials of frequency in front of the verbs, “jing chang (often), “you (again)” can be used in existential sentences but “zaizi (again)” can’t. For "often"is routine action, "you (again)” indicates completed action while “zaizi (again)” indicates the actions unrealized. And existential sentences can only indicate existential meaning which is objective, progressive or completed, but not the action unrealized. When it adds adverbials of time in front of the verbs, progressive or completed words can be used in the sentence as well, while “ma shang (Immediately)” can’t. When it adds descriptive words in front of the verbs, there are two different cases. If the descriptive words express the objective existential state, then it is valid. If it indicates subjective state, it will be restricted. For example, **Tai-shang duan-duan-zheng-zheng-de zuo zhe zhu-xi-tuan (The presidiums are sitting as straight on the platform).” The Chinese sentence is not valid because the verb can’t be modified by the subjective word. In a word, verbs in segment B can only express abstract, objective, existential meaning, all the subjective, unrealized and descriptive verbs can’t be used in the existential sentence.

**Segment C**

Component of segment C is existential object, it can be things, individuals and abstract ideas, such as sentences ” Xin li you ge yuan-wang (”have a desire in heart)”, “Nao hai yi pian kong-bai (mind goes blank)”. Existential object can be modified freely by quantifiers, such as "Chuang shang tang zhe yi-ge-bing-ren (There lies a patient on the bed.)", "Chuang shang tang zhe bing-ren (There lies a patient on the bed).” are all valid. The form of segment C component is very free, it can also be modified by descriptive attribute, time attribute and possessor attribute.

2. The Emergent Meaning of Sentence Pattern

**Blending Features Analysis**

Emergent meaning is the blended concept formed by input space concept projecting to the blend. It is different from the input space concept. Composition, completion, and elaboration lead to emergent meaning in the blend. Emergent meaning is not explicit meaning that can be perceived directly. There are two ways to infer it. The first way is to deduce it through the blend characteristics. The blend characteristics are its surface appearance. The second way is to deduce it through the integration process because the integration process can infer the meaning’ construction process. Then the blend characteristics and the integration process will be applied to deduce the emergent meaning of the sentence. There’s no conspicuous difference between components of segment A, segment C and the general nouns in existential sentences. Segments B have many restrictions and have obvious characteristics of integration. Verbs in segment B can only express abstract, objective, existential meaning, all the subjective, unrealized and descriptive verbs can’t be used in the existential sentence. It is shown as follows:

1. Objectivity. From the perspective of subjectivity and objectivity, the existential sentences express the objective fact. The structure “NP1+V+NP2” takes the location as its topic, and passes information with the existential object. It illustrates meaning that somewhere exists (appears or disappears) something.

2. Unwillingness. The existential sentences express reality. There’s no subjective emotion of the existential object. Therefore desiderative verbs, the negative adverbs of subjective intention and the reduplicate form of verbs can’t be used in the sentences.

3. Completion. From time aspect, the existential sentences mostly express the progressive fact or the fact that has happened. It can’t express the actions that does not happen. For example,

   a. Chuang-shang tong le yi-ge-ren.  
   (There lay a person on the bed.)

   b. *Chuang-shang ma-shang tong le yi-ge-ren.  
   (There lay a person on the bed.)

   c. * Chuang shang jiang yao tong yi-ge-ren.  
   (There lay a person on the bed.)

   d. * Chuang shang mingtian tong yi-ge-ren.  
   (There lay a person on the bed.)

4. Non-descriptiveness. The verbs in existential sentences can’t be modified by adjectives, while the existential object can. For example,

   a. Qiang-shang gong-gong-zheng-zheng-de xie zhe ji-ge-zi.  
   (There are a few words written neatly on the wall.)

   (There are a few words written neatly on the wall.)

Actually “gong-gong-zheng-zheng (neat)” modifies the existential objects “a few words”, the sentence is valid. While "ren-ren-zhen-zhen” modifies the verb “write”, so the sentence is not valid.

In fact, those four characteristics above is associated with each other. Subjectivity, willingness, possibility, descriptiveness are interrelated entity. Subjective angle of view, of course, consists of willingness. Feelings subjective intention can express the state of possible emotion. Objectivity, unwillingness, completed and progressive events are interrelated entity as well. From the objective point of view, it absolutely don’t consists of willingness. According to the
characteristics of integration analysis, we can deduce the structure of existential sentences: Mou-chu cun zai(chu-xian huo xiao-shi) mou-ren(mou-wu)(there exists (appears or disappears) something or somebody at someplace).

What’s more, in existential sentences, “zuo” (zuo)-kind intransitive verbs and “cun zai” share the common semantic feature of [+existence] and “zuo” (zuo)-kind intransitive verbs add concrete meaning to the abstract meaning of “cun zai” (how it exists). The most conventional ways of living/existing can last for a long time and show a lasting state.

**Blending Process Analysis**

The concept of existential sentence is derived from “The objects exist (or in certain state).” and “There exist some objects at someplace.” In the integration it is merged by choosing the relation framework of the former and the composition order of the latter. The blending process is achieved by composition, completion and elaboration. Blending can compose elements from the input spaces to provide relations that do not exist in the separate inputs. When the two input spaces blend, the existential objects of the two input spaces yield mapping relation because of their identity. By blending people can correlate the concept “There exists something at someplace,” with “Something exists in certain state.”, thus yielding the blended meaning “There exists something in certain state at someplace”.

In order to run the mapping relation of the two spaces, we need activate the background information about the existential object. Only when the imaged object agrees with the object we familiar in our background knowledge can we blend the two spaces. Existential object can decide whether existential sentences are valid or not. For example:

| a. *Yuan-zi-li tiao-zhe yi-ge-ren. | the yard in jump ASP a person |
| b. Yuan-zi-li tiao-zhe yi-zhi-hou-zi. | the yard in jump ASP a monkey (There is a monkey jumping in the yard.) |
| c.*Tian-geng-shang beng-zhe yi-ge-ren. | a bank on hop ASP a person |
| d.Tian-geng-shang beng-zhe yi-zhi ma-zha. | a bank on hop ASP a locust (There is a locust hopping on a band) |
| e.*Shui-li you-zhe yi-ge-ren. | water in swim ASP a person |
| f. Shui-li you-zhe yi-tiao-yu. | water in swim ASP a fish |
| (There is a fish swimming in the water.) |

Ren Ying (2009) believes that the verbs in existential sentence are abstract meaning rather than a specific action. So the verbs should denote the existing state of the existential object. The verbs “jump, hop, swim” aren’t the conventional movement of man, but those motions are some animals’ conventional movement. So that is the reason why sentences a, c, e are invalid. Ren Ying’s viewpoint can illustrate the reason why those sentences are valid, but he can’t explain why the conventional movement of the existential object can be established. We can get the answer from the cognitive mechanism of the blending process. The conventional movement or the normal existential way of the object can activate the objects’ identity in two different input spaces which is connected to long-term schematic knowledge. Thus it yields the mapping relation with the same object from the input structures “There exists something at someplace.” and “Something exists in certain state.” It is the role of gestalt psychology the blending meaning can be set up. Take sentences “*Yuan-zi-li tiao-zhe yi-ge-ren. A person jumps in the yards.” and “Yuan-zi-li tiao-zhe yi-zhi-hou-zi. There is a monkey jumping in the yard,” for example. The input spaces of the former are “The yard exist a person.” and “A person jumps.” Because the verb “jump” isn’t the conventional movement, it is hard to take the individual in “The yard exist a person.” and the individual in “A person jumps.” as the same person. So we can’t blend the meaning “Yuan-zi-li cun-zai-zhe tiao-zhe–de ren. There exists a person jumping in the yard.” But if it comes to monkey, it is easy to blend the existential objects into one because “jump” is the conventional movement of monkey. Thus we can set up the blend meaning “Yuan-zi-li cun-zai-zhe tiao-zhe–de hou-zi. There exists a monkey jumping in the yard.”

**C. Generation Mechanism of Sentence Meaning and Syntactic Realization**

*Generation Mechanism of the Sentence Meaning*

The construction of sentence meaning is achieved by setting up conceptual blending framework to blend the emergent meaning. That means the language forms “NP1+V+NP2” can activate the human brain to set up the concept “Somewhere exists something,” and “Something exists in certain state.” These two concepts build mapping relation and project to the blend forming the emergent meaning “Somewhere exists something in certain state.” The generation of the emergent meaning experiences the following steps: (take “Tai-shang zuo-zhe zhu-xi-tuan. The presidiums are sitting on the platform.” as an example)

1. In sentence “Tai-shang zuo-zhe zhu-xi-tuan. (The presidiums are sitting on the platform.)”, the location phrase is the subject. It is a unconventional sentence, and it doesn’t agree with the routine events that people familiar. Then it will activate the brain to construct a new concept framework. Because “zuo (sit)” is man’s conventional action, according to the meaning and experience people can infer that “zuo zhe (be sitting)” is the presidium’s state rather than the action...
“tai-shang (on the platform)” does. Thus the concept “zhu-xi-tuan zuo-zhe (the presidiums are sitting)” is set up in input space 1. “Tai-shang (the platform)” is the presidiums’ conventional location. Then the concept “Tai-shang cun-zi zhu-xi-tuan. (There exist the presidium)” is set up in input space 2.

2. The sentences“Zhu-xi-tuan zuo-zhe. (The presidium are sitting.)”and “Tai-shang cun-zai zhu-xi-tuan. (There exist the presidium on the platform.)” will run the structure and relation mapping. Through the background knowledge we can be sure that the presidium in this two spaces own identity relation, thus setting up mapping relation between them.

3. The sentences“Zhu-xi-tuan zuo-zhe. (The presidium are sitting.)”and “Tai-shang cun-zai zhu-xi-tuan. (There exist the presidium on the platform.)” combine with each other. Based on the background knowledge and gestalt psychology theory, we blend the structures and the relations of the concept, then forming the blending meaning “Tai-shang zuo-zhe zhu-xi-tuan. (The presidiums are sitting on the platform.)”.

Syntactic Realization of the Sentence Structure

Syntactic realization of the sentence structure is a process from meaning to syntax. Grammatical blending is the method to syntactic realization of the existential sentence. Grammatical blending is achieved through similarities between conceived events and grammatical structure. They are merged in the blend and are reflected over the syntactic structure. For the conceived events and grammatical structure share similarity and relevance, this prompts those two to set up mapping relation. The structure of existential sentence is formed by blending the conceived event and the syntactic structure.

In general, the conceived events and the concepts of the input spaces are correspond with each other. So the conceived events of the existential sentences are the concepts “Cun-zai dui-xiang cun-zai (huo chu-yu mou-zhong zhuang-tai). The existing object exists (in a certain state).” and “Mou-chu cun-zai cun-zai-dui-xiang. There exists the existing object at someplace.” The grammatical structure is normally correlates with the emergent meaning. The existential sentence’s grammatical structure is “Mou-chu cun-zai (chu-xian huo xiao-shi)(chu-yu mou-zhong zhuang-tai)cun-zai-dui-xiang. There exists (appears or disappears) the existing object (in certain state) at someplace.” Its syntactic realization process is in the following:

Take “Tai-shang zuo-zhe zhu-xi-tuan. The presidiums are sitting on the platform” as an example.
From the above figure we see that the conceived events are “Zhu-xi-tuan zuo-zhe. (The presidiums are sitting.)” and “Tai-shang cun-zai zhu-xi-tuan. (There exists the presidium on the platform.)”. Its grammatical structure is “X cun-zai (mou-zhong zhuang-tai-de) Y.” The conceived event and the grammatical structure set up the mapping relation based on the similarity and the relevance. The conceived event “zhu-xi-tuan (the presidium)” is mapped to “X”. “zuo-zhe (be sitting)” is mapped to “chu-yu mou-zhong zhuang-tai (in certain state)” “tai-shang (on the platform)” maps to “X”. “cun-zai (exist)” maps to “cun-zai (exist)”. The conceived event and the grammatical structure then map to the syntactic form. “X” in the grammatical structure projects to “NP1” in syntactic form. “cun-zai (exist)” and “chu-yu mou-zhong zhuang-tai (in certain state)” project to “V”. The specific component in the conceived event “tai-shang (on the platform)” projects to “NP1”, “zuo-zhe (be sitting)” to “V”, and “zhu-xi-tuan (the presidium)” to “NP2”, forming the syntactic form “Tai-shang zuo-zhe zhu-xi-tuan. The presidiums are sitting on the platform”.

IV. CONCLUSION

It is found that NP1+Vi+NP2 construction in existential sentences and sentences of possessum-object construction is a result of conceptual integration and grammatical blending of two subevents with basic grammatical structure of NP1+Vt+NP2 and NP2+Vi respectively. In addition, the study has proved that conceptual integration and grammatical blending theories are animate and have mightily explanatory power in this specific linguistic phenomenon. By discussing the process of semantic construction and syntactic realization, we derive that the structure of existential sentences is integrated by the input spaces of "the existing object exists (or lies on some status)" and "somewhere exists something". It can concludes that the emergent meaning is "somewhere exists the existing object lying on some status" through analyzing the blending characters. Sentences of possessum-object construction are blended by “Possessor gets or loses possessee.” and “Possessor appears or disappears.” Its emergent meaning is “Possessor appears or disappears possessee.”

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