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Sexualisation of Women in Nigerian Advertorial English Medium Bill Board

Bolanle Tajudeen Opoola
Federal University, Oye Ekiti, Nigeria

Folorunso, Emmanuel Awoniyi
Osun State University, Osogbo, Nigeria

Abstract—This paper surveys sexism in English, citing selected communicative instances in English medium billboards in Ile Ife, Osun State, Nigeria. The photographs and written inscriptions on the selected billboards depict the stereotypical representation of women as weaker species and exertion of men power over women. This was achieved through a critical discourse analysis of visual and verbal language discourses in ten randomly selected English medium billboards selected as sources of gathering data for this research. In Nigeria, billboards are meant for public announcements and advertisements. They also convey information about products and company services. Findings of this research among others reveal that there is asymmetrical power relation in terms of dominance and subordination between men and women as demonstrated by the portrayal of men in terms of physical attribute, such as strength, vigor, and a daring ability, as against the portrayal of women in terms of sex appealing, physical attractiveness as well as concerned with trivial, unserious and playful things. The study advocates for equal treatment of men and women without unnecessary sex differentiation.

Index Terms—billboards, sexism, communication, discourse analysis

I. INTRODUCTION

Sexism is a treatment that expresses bias in favor of one sex and thus treats the other sex in a discriminatory manner, Lei (2006). The society in which we live particularly in Nigeria is presumably a male dominated one that has the bulk of its prejudice and discrimination against women. This is evident in the way women are barred from certain occupation, positions, and behaviors and are defined only by what the society expects from them. Considering a nurse to be only female until the recent time, and an astronaut to be male is something quite common, Ahmed (2009). However, in recent times, especially in most first world countries like America and Britain and in some third world countries, like Nigeria and Liberia, it is not uncommon to see women occupying political and religious positions, influencing the economic sector, taking up activists positions for fellow women, and even refusing to conform with some cultural aspects of the society, like letting go of their maiden names after marriage. However, though both the male and the female gender are considered equal in most countries, sexism still exists, having been made so subtle and obscure in such a way that people conform to and uphold sexism without even realizing it. Over the years, studies have revealed that this phenomenon is not only entrenched in the economic, political, religious and social aspects of the society but also, in the language used in the society.

Language as a Tool for Male Patriarchy

Sexism as a social phenomenon exists in different domains of every society and one of the domains where it is reproduced in the society is in Language. Its social effects, coupled with the growing influence of language have posed a serious problem for sociolinguists, some of who have laid out measures for its eradication. Nonetheless, sexism in language still exists, especially in levels where it has been made so subtle and has become very normative. One of such levels is the level of discourse, which combines different modes of language to convey meaning. The study of this research work focuses on this level of language by citing specific instances of sexism in selected English-medium billboards in Ile-ife, Osun state, Nigeria. Sexism in language or more specifically, in English resides in different domains. These domains stretch from the morphological level, through the use of affixation, generic terms, titles, alignment of male and female terms and occupational lexemes; syntactic level, in the forms of metaphors, proverbs, phrasal verbs, riddles and jokes and semantic level, depicted by the extent at which some words such as master and mistress, governor and governess, callboy and call girl differ in meaning, to the discourse level.

The level of discourse which is the focus of this study involves language use beyond its grammatical categories to contain such things as pictures, symbols and several other modes of language. As a concept, discourse can be defined as a text whether written, spoken, visual or multi modal which produces specific meanings in a particular context and whose meanings can be appropriated from context. As explored in this study, one of the ways through which sexism is depicted at this level is through the advertisement media, precisely in billboards, which have become familiar features of the society such that any sexist connotation conveyed by their contents has become so normative and is being
perceived as unusual. As a result of Language’s social influence, the issue of sexism contained in Language has posed a serious problem for sociolinguists in the growth of gender inequality and has long been a heat topic in sociolinguistics, He (2010). Today, there are several scholarly studies devoted to language and sexism. Jane Sunderland, Sara Mills, Robin Lakoff, Julia Stanley, Dale Spender, Y.K. Yusuf, A.P. Nilsen are just a few of scholars whose research efforts have helped in bringing the issue of Sexism in Language to the awareness of language users.

Review of Earlier Studies

According to Edegoh, Asemah and Okpanachi (2013), the workings of gender ideology and asymmetrical power relations in discourse are presently assuming quite subtle forms in modern societies, albeit in different degrees and ways in different communities. One of the media through which sexism is portrayed in discourse is the advertisement media or billboards, more specifically. Edegoh, Asemah and Okpanachi (2013) describe billboards as the branch of outdoor media targeted at a mobile audience, usually characterized by attractive models, images and catchy slogans and is used to reinforce recall of brand names and payoffs. Like other media of advertising, billboards are used to convey information about a product or service. Beyond informing however, their contents also stimulate ideas, some of which may be bias, among the viewers. As regards this, different studies have been carried out relating to sexism at the level of discourse. The bulk of their findings reveal that the (pictorial) representation of women in billboards is usually defining or stereotypical. According to Sheehan (2014), given that men and women differ in different ways, it should not be surprising that advertisements portray men and women differently. Although, these portrayals vary based on the medium in which they appear, Sheehan (2014), citing Peak, Nelson and Viella (2011), agrees that internationally, advertising still conforms to traditional gender portrayals. Globally, women are much more likely to be portrayed as dependent in advertising and much more likely to be pictured at home or in closed places, such as a market place, a supermarket, a classroom, or boutiques, Cheung and Leung (2014). Exploring women’s portrayal in magazines’ advertisements from Britain and Morocco, Habiba (2008) reveals that women are still considered responsible for the home and family life, as well as responsible for keeping their beauty and physical appearances attractive and seductive, not for their own self-esteem but for men’s pleasure and satisfaction. Citing Craig (1992), Ali and Shahwar (2011) assert that for decades, women have been portrayed as housewives, dependent on men and attractive objects in advertising. The woman is therefore used as a body rather than somebody. The women have been portrayed in media as men would like to see them; beautiful creatures, submissive mothers and efficient housekeepers. Women are viewed as “things”, objects of male sexual desire, and part of the merchandise rather than people. In a study conducted by them, they reveal that most of the females are shown engaged in domestic tasks such as cooking, washing clothes, cleaning their kitchens, and beautifying their personalities.

According to them, the results show that the stereotypical approaches that followed these commercials gave the impression that women at home have no valid interest in their life except worrying about the perfection of their house, their clean shining floors, immaculate laundry and cooking.

Also, women are often portrayed in decorative roles, where they are depicted as passively decorating the commercial and disengaged from the product, Plakoyiannaki and Zotos (2008). According to Sheehan (2014), many decorative depiction of women tend to show women in sexual and alluring positions. Citing Paff and Lakner (1997), Sheehan (2014) states that decorative roles are seen as arguably representing society’s view of the appropriate position for women in the society, which is passive. Citing Simmons (1986) further, he states that when decorative and sexual imagery is used, advertisements often include non-verbal cues as an indication that women lack authority and possess less power than men. Men, on the other hand are portrayed with characteristics of dominance and control. Unlike the women, they are mostly shown outside the home. For instance, the locations of the public service announcements studied by Cheung and Leung (2014) show males outside of commercial buildings, in a construction site, a public area or a park. In advertising, while men are often portrayed in the following ways: alert and conscious of surroundings, standing upright, eyes open and looking around, bodies are controlled, mean expression on face, gripping things tightly with hands, hands in pockets, serious and physically active, women are portrayed in as touching self, caressing an object, lying on the floor, sitting on a bed or chair, eyes closed, not alert, confused, vulnerable, body contorted, dressed like a child, holding an object or a man for support, sexy and sexually available, seductive, playful and careless. Thus, according to Novosentetz (2007), the stereotypical portrayal of men still remains as dominant, intelligent and strong.

To assert this further, Cheung and Leung (2014) state that in addition to pursuing careers, males were portrayed with occupational diversity. For example, males were portrayed as a seller in the market place, a construction worker, a waiter, a driver, a security guard, a businessman, and a medical professional, etc. However, females were usually depicted as an office lady, a nurse, or a teacher or simply as a housewife or a mother. By comparison, male roles were more technically oriented and more strength demanding; while female roles were domestically oriented and caretaking-driven. As cited in Ali and Shahwar (2011), Countless ads have portrayed women as passive, deferential, unintelligent, shy, dreamy, gentle, likely to be manipulated, helpless, and with body language depicting psychological withdrawal, submissiveness and supplication, Browne (1998). Men, on the other hand, have been portrayed as constructive, powerful, autonomous, achieving, and their body language denoted power, control and dominance. Consequently, a synthesis of the many accusations against advertising reveals that advertisements often present men and women in terms of power and dominion with the males’ always in control or in charge.

In view of the globalization of gender role portrayal in advertising, it is however argued that women stereotypes vary...
in extent based on different cultures. According to Cheung and Leung (2014), media in Asia tended to show more stereotypes than Western media. Their study which investigates gender ideologies by providing insight on the portrayals of females and males in health-related Public Service Announcements in Hong Kong reveal that compared to Chinese women, American women experience more equality and less discrimination. Asserting this, Sheehan (2014) states that in some parts of the world, women are shown as workers rather than homemakers. These ‘equitable’ portrayals can be attributed to a number of reasons, one of which is that the substantial number of women holding positions at a range of media organizations is working professionally to present a more realistic view of men and women in the media. Nonetheless, Habiba (2008) reveals that in some other parts of the world, Britain and Morocco, more specifically, women are not portrayed as equal to men, although as a result of the influence of cultural values on the content and messages of advertising, emphasis on female role portrayals are more stressed in Britain than in Morocco. According to Sheehan (2014), non-traditional images of men are also portrayed in advertising. These images show men as doing housework or taking care of the children. These roles have however been tagged as problematic and criticized as not portraying equality. This is because of the imbalance of images that show men in traditional homemaking situations. Hence, a large per centage of this portrayal of men in advertising have been debunked and tagged inaccurate.

II. METHODOLOGY

In carrying out this research, ten bill boards erected at different places in Ile Ife were carefully selected out of the numerous ones available in the city known as the source of all Yoruba people in the world. Photographs of the advertorial billboards for that express the gender differentiation were selected and literarily analysed based on literary theories like that of Wodak 2001 manifestation of transparent structural relationship in language use, Halliday, 1984 functional grammar and semiotic resources, as well as Blommaert and Bulcaen 2000

III. RESULTS AND DATA ANALYSIS

In order to meet the aim and objectives of this study, Critical Data Analysis has been employed as the analytical framework because it analyses, according to Wodak (2001), "opaque as well as transparent structural relationships of dominance, discrimination, power and control as manifested in language". It states that discourse, being socially constitutive as well as socially conditioned is an opaque power object in modern societies and thus aims to make discourse more visible and transparent by investigating critically how social inequality is expressed, signalled, constituted, legitimized and so on by language use as once used in Blommaert and Bulcaen (2000). Each bill board advertisement picture was thoroughly discussed pointing out the act of bias against the women by creating the impression that men are stronger while women are only for appeasing people with their beauty.

Critical Discourse Analysis however does not have a unitary theoretical framework. Rather, it encompasses a range of approaches. As a result, this study also makes use of Kress and Van Leuven’s Socio-Semiotic Approach for its data analysis.

IV. DISCUSSIONS

The study’s discussion was adopted the Socio-Semiotic approach. This approach explores ways of analysing visual images and paying attention to the multi semiotic character of most texts in contemporary society. It relies on Functional Grammar developed by Halliday (1984, 1995). Its main purpose is to describe the semiotic resources used in a text, such as point of view, whose distinct possibilities open a potential meaning for discrimination, power, inequality, etc. This approach establishes different kinds of meaning in its analysis. These meanings are:

a. The Representational meaning: This is the meaning represented in an image. It can be narrative or conceptual. The narrative aspect shows the participants as involved in an action, as used in advertising, while the conceptual aspect represents characters focusing on their essence and symbolic attributes through size, position, and colour or lightening. It entails a classification of participants in terms of their stable and timeless essence. It is equivalent with Halliday’s ideational function. In some books, the representational meaning is also called the visual representation of meaning.

b. The interactive meaning: Since visual images represent an interaction among the participants represented in the image, the producers and their viewers, the interactive meaning shows the relationship between the observers and the world represented in the image. These images may depict petitioning, intimacy, etc. through visual contact or gaze, angle, point of view, etc. For instance, the angle at which an image is represented creates an attitude towards the viewer. According to Godeo (2005), from the frontal angle, an image may create subjectivity and involvement towards the viewer. However, from an oblique angle, it may create an attitude of detachment and an avoidance of any subjectivity. The interactive meaning is equivalent with Halliday’s interpersonal function.

c. The compositional meaning: The placement of elements in an image, according to Kress and Van Leeuwen point out different informative values. For instance, elements placed at the top of an image have an ideal value contrary to the real characters situated at the bottom. Also, elements with a special salience in their composition on account of their size, colour or fronting may be highlighted as well. The compositional
meaning thus account for the organization of elements in the image. It is equivalent with Halliday’s textual function.

As a result of the descriptive nature of critical discourse analysis and the socio-semiotic approach, the analysis of this study is therefore, mainly qualitative.

Billboard 1 (B1): Husband and Wife watching Television programmes

Representational Meaning:

B1 contains the image of a young man and woman seemingly sitting side by side in a house and watching TV. Other features of the datum are specific information about the brand and product being advertised. These other features, for the purpose of this study, will not be subjected to analysis. In relation to the representational meaning, the image of the young man and woman draws upon the representation of human participants involved in a narrative process. By narrative process, it means that the participants are involved in an action. The posture of the participants depicts familiarity which connote that the duo are a couple. Also, their facial expressions show that they are apparently enjoying the show.

Nonetheless, although the image shows the couple sitting side by side, a closer look clearly shows that the frame of the man’s body is in front of the woman, a position which places the woman behind the man. In addition to this, the man also controls the remote to the television both participants seem to be watching while the woman does nothing but smile passively.

These actions and posture thus represent the woman as passive and submissive while the man is literally represented as the one with the control, even in state of leisure and relaxation.

Compositional Meaning:

While every other feature of B1 is placed at the right side and are presented as new information, the image of the participants is placed at the left side of the billboard, a placement which according to Kress and VanLeeuwen represents things already known and ‘often taken for granted’. This portrays the normalcy of the stereotypical representation of men and women in billboard advertisements.

Billboard 2 (B2) Advertisement of Gilder Beer Drik

Representational Meaning:

In relation to the representational meaning, the process represented in Billboard 2 is conceptual. By conceptual, it means that no action is taking place. The data will be therefore classified in terms of symbolic attributes through size, position, and colour. Unlike B1, there are no human participants represented in B2. The only image shown is a glass of the alcoholic drink, Guilder, with an accompanying verbal message which reads “WHERE ARE THE MEN?” Other features of the datum are the brand name, logo and slogan, which says “drink responsibly”. Considering the fact that in Nigeria, both the male and female gender drink alcohol, the entire image however represents an invitation to just the men, which in turn signifies the exclusion of women.
Interactive Meaning:

i. **Point of Interaction:** The image is represented from the frontal angle, which portrays an attitude of boldness. Also, the vertical angle representation of the image connotes height, power and superiority. According to Olateju, Oyebode and Ademilokun (2014), an image represented vertically may depict strength.

ii. **The Use of Colours:** The prevalent colours in B2 are red, black, white and gold. Complementing the fact that the drink, being alcoholic is sometimes called a strong drink, the colour red highlights the whole message, representing strength, vigour and a daring ability. These are features which society commonly associates with the men. The verbal text “WHERE ARE THE MEN?” is highlighted in white, a colour which represents truth and transparency, thus, justifying the exclusion of the women from something strong. The drink itself is Gold, which represents royalty, with the glass standing firmly on the black surface which traverses the bottom of the billboard. Black represents seriousness or mystery, which are features from which the women have also been excluded.

Compositional Meaning:

The verbal message which typifies the exclusion of women is placed on the left side of the billboard, along with the brand name, logo and slogan. According to Kress and Van Leeuwen, images placed on the left represent information which is given and ‘often taken for granted’. Like B1, this also portrays the normalcy of the stereotypical representation of men and women in billboard advertisements.

**Billboard 3 (B3): Advertisement of Turbo King Beer**

Representational Meaning:

In relation to the representational meaning, the process represented in B3 is conceptual. The image shown is a foregrounded glass of the alcoholic drink, Turbo King, with an accompanying verbal message which reads “TO THE KINGS WHO BUILD NIGERIA, CHEERS.” In the background is an image of men working at a construction site. This image complements the idea of men building to whom the accompanying message is dedicated as a toast. Other features of the data are the brand name, logo symbolized by a lion, which signifies strength and royalty and the slogan, which says “the king’s reward”. B3 thus represents the male gender as kings and nation builders.

Interactional Meaning:

i. **Point of Interaction:** Like B2, the image is represented from the frontal angle, which portrays an attitude of boldness. Also, the vertical angle representation of the image connotes height, power and superiority.

ii. **The Use of Colours:** The colours used in B2 and B3 are very similar. This may be attributed to the fact that they are both advertisements for alcoholic drinks. Like B2, the prevalent colours in B3 are red, black and gold. The colour red also highlights the whole message, representing strength and vigour. The drink, the accompanying verbal message and the brand trademarks are all presented in gold, which represents royalty. Black is used for the construction site and workers which represents seriousness. From all these features, the women have been excluded.

Compositional Meaning:

The placement of the message “TO THE KINGS WHO BUILD NIGERIA, CHEERS”, which also typifies the exclusion of the female gender, at the top of the billboard portrays the message as ideal or idealized, according to Oyama’s (1998) Description of Visual Semiotic. Nonetheless, like most stereotypical messages, it can also lead to the forming of an ideology in the viewers which excludes women from tasks involving strength and a daring ability, such as Nation building.

**Billboard 4 (B4): Advertisement of a Nigerian Musician called Cloud**

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Representational Meaning:
In relation to the representational meaning, the process represented in B4 is conceptual. It shows a male model with clenched lips and a hard stare. Other features of the datum are the website and the slogan of the service, ‘cloud 9’ being advertised. The facial gesture exhibited by the represented participant in B4 represents the model as serious, fearless and daring.

Interactive Meaning:

i. Gaze: The model in B4 maintains eye contact with the viewers. More still this gaze takes the form of a hard stare which passes the male off as strong, fearless and daring.

ii. Angle of Interaction: The image of the male model is presented from the frontal angle and in a vertical position, where like B3, signify boldness.

iii. Colour: The predominant colours used in B4 are black and red. The whole board is painted in black which connotes seriousness. The model’s facial expression further complements this assertion. Red is also used to connote strength. It is important to note that as in B2 and B3, these colours have been used in billboards where men are included and represented.

Compositional Meaning: The represented participant occupies every part of the billboard (from the top to the bottom). This placement foregrounds his appearance and makes prominent everything he signifies.

Billboard 5 (B5) Promotion and advertisement of a Body cream lotion

Representational Meaning:
In relation to the representational meaning, the process represented in B5 is conceptual. The data contains an image of two ladies posed for a photograph, in such a way that they individually occupy both sides of the billboard. This is accompanied with a verbal message that reads “In Thing”. In Nigeria, ‘In thing’ is a slang for whatever is trending. Other features of the datum are: the services of the beauty spa being advertised (also presented in pictures which portray the female body in parts) and other trademarks. For the purpose of this study, these other features will not be analysed. The lady on the right has nothing on except a towel tied around her head and chest. The lady on the left is wearing a black strapless singlet which reveals a slight cleavage. They are also both wearing a smile. By portraying both female participants as attractive and sexy in an attempt to advertise the beauty spa, sex appeal and physical attractiveness are
therefore represented as the trend.

Interactive Meaning:
Contact/Gaze:
The represented participants maintain eye contact with the viewers. According to Oyama (1998), Olateju, Oyebode and Ademilokun (2014), by maintaining eye contact with the viewers, the represented participants perform an act of demanding, or in a more precise sense, inviting. This gaze is further enhanced by the smiles and poses of the participants.

Compositional Meaning:
The image covers the whole billboard, except the bottom. The verbal message “In Thing”, which typifies what is being represented as trending is also strategically placed at the centre. Images or messages placed in these positions, being prominent, according to Oyama (1998) are used to drive an ideology. In B5, it emphasizes the notion that women are often portrayed in relation to their sex appeal or as concerned only about physical attributes, Habiba (2008).

Billboard 6 (B6): Advertisement of a Unisex Saloon Center

Representational Meaning:
In relation to the representational meaning, the process represented in B6 is also conceptual. The features of the data are the image of a lady, the trademarks of the beauty salon being advertised, contact address and services which are represented in images containing a male participant and fingernails (a part of a female body which can be used to represent a female). All the images are portrayed to visually propel the services of the salon. Nonetheless, though the salon is unisex, of the ten services itemized on the billboard, only one, barbing (item 9), relates to a man. This makes the billboard predominantly feminine. Also, the lady’s image is foregrounded, having been made larger than the others. She is half naked and she possesses an attractive skin, face and hair. All of which are intended to attract customers. Like B5, the lady also represents sex appeal and physical attractiveness.

Interactive Meaning:
1. Contact/Gaze:
   There are two human participants on the billboard. Of the two, only the lady maintains eye contact with the viewers. Complemented by her seductive posture and outfit, this contact, like B5, signifies an invitation.

2. The Use of Colours:
The prevalent colours used in B6 are white, peach, pink, purple and yellow. Apart from the connotative meanings that are individually attached to these colours, these colours, characterized by their mildness, softness, cheerfulness and brightness are usually associated with women. These are unlike the colours used to represent men in B2, B3 and B4 which characterize strength and vigour.

Compositional Meaning:
The positioning of the represented participant on the right side of the billboard is significant in the sense that it presents the model and everything she represents as something new of which is intended of the viewers to explore or find out. Usually, information about the services and brand is placed on the right, this deviation therefore calls undue attention to the model and everything she represents.

Billboard 7 (B7) Advertisement of a Photograph Company
Representational Meaning:
In relation to the representational meaning, the process represented in B7 is conceptual. The only represented participant is a lady. Other features of the data are the trademarks and the services of the photography studio being advertised. The lady strikes a seductive pose, wearing a pair of converse, a white trouser and a transparent t-shirt which reveals her belly button and upon closer look, her bra. She is represented as sexy.

Interactive Meaning:
Contact/Gaze:
The participant in B7 does not maintain eye contact with the viewers. According to Olateju, Oyebode and Ademilokun (2014), an averted gaze may imply an offering. Hence, the model strikes a sexy pose but looks away which indicates that she is offering herself in service.

Compositional Meaning:
While every other information is on the right side of the billboard, the represented participant is on the left. A position which indicates information often taken for granted. This emphasizes the normalcy of the sex appeal stereotype conferred on women in advertisements.

Billboard 8 (B8): Advertisement of Body Cream

Representational Meaning:
In relation to the representational meaning, the process represented in B8 is narrative. It shows a young lady taking a self in Paris with a famous statue of liberty. Other features of the data are the trademark of the cream being advertised, a signature of the model which says ‘Juliet Ibrahim’ and a verbal message “#love yourself”, apparently admonishing women to love themselves. Considering the fact that the product being advertised is a body cream, this message emphasizes the assertion that women have the responsibility to keep their physical appearance attractive, Habiba (2008). Also, unlike prior advertisements where women are portrayed flaunting their sex appeal, this image shows a fairly modest young lady probably on a holiday and apparently having fun. Nonetheless, as asserted by Chung and Leung (2014), this portrays women as concerned with trivial or playful things such as taking a selfie.

Interactive Meaning:
The Use of Colour:
The prevalent colours on the billboard are sky blue, orange, white and green. Asides their individual connotations, these colours are effeminate, as they characterize mildness and softness, which are features often associated with women in Nigeria.
Compositional Meaning:
Like B7, the information about the product is placed on the right side of the billboard, signifying new information, while the image of the lady which ideologically portrays women as concerned with trivial things is on the left side, signifying, like most stereotypes that this knowledge is often taken for granted.

Billboard 9 (B9): Advertisement of a Communication outfit in Nigeria

Representational meaning:
The represented participant in B9 is a lady who is casually seated. She is holding a tablet and is surrounded by tiny icons of different social media platforms. The way in which she holds the tab, complemented by her facial gesture suggests that she is taking a selfie. This image is accompanied by a verbal message which reads, “It goes down @ 12:30am.”

‘It’ there is an exospheric reference for fun, while ‘goes down’ is a virtual slang for ‘is happening’. The use of a virtual slang depicts that the advert is directed towards a young audience. Other features of the datum are the trademark of the network service being advertised. The image complemented by the verbal message represents the lady as playful, having fun and enjoying herself.

Interactive Meaning:
The Use of Colours:
B9 contains a lot of colours. One thing that is however common to all of them is that these colours are predominantly effeminate. Effeminate colours, such as white and green, represent characteristics such as mildness, softness, etc. This is in contrast with colours which are used to represent men.

Compositional Meaning:
The represented participant is placed at the centre, a position which makes prominent the model and everything she represents. The verbal message which typifies fun is significantly placed at the top of the billboard. This placement further drives the ideology that women are associated with playful things.

Billboard 10 (B10): Advertisement of a Communication outfit in Nigeria
Representational meaning:
Like B9, the participant represented in B10 is a lady. She is standing, posed for a photograph, a selfie more precisely. Her posture is quite casual and depicts nothing sexual. Nonetheless, she is wearing a short skirt which reveals a large part of her thighs and legs and heels, which further elongate her legs. Aside these parts of her body, no other part is revealed. The image is accompanied by a verbal message which reads, “Selfies on Fleek”. The virtual slang which indicates public approval signify that the advertisement is projected at a young audience. This is asserted by the fact that the billboard is situated within a University’s campus. The other features of the datum are the trademarks of the network service being advertised. Like B9, the lady in B10 is represented as playful, relaxed and unserious.

Interactive Meaning:
Gaze: The gaze of the represented participant is averted which although is meant to direct the attention of the viewer to the action represented, also directs the attention of the viewers to other visible parts of her body which portrays her as offering herself.

Compositional Meaning: Like B9, the represented participant is placed at the centre, a position which makes prominent the model and everything she represents. The verbal message which accompanies it is also placed at the top of the billboard. This also drives the ideology that women are associated with trivial things like selfies.

V. CONCLUSION

Findings reveal that there is asymmetrical power relation in terms of dominance and subordination between a man and a woman on one hand, and the portrayal of men in terms of physical attributes, such as strength, vigour and a daring ability, as well as the portrayal of women in terms of sex appeal, physical attractiveness and as concerned with trivial, unserious and playful things in Nigeria judging by the analysed billboards. Based on these findings, the study therefore concludes that there are indeed, instances of sexism in the identified billboards and although this study has not claimed generalizations, it has successfully achieved its aim of citing specific instances of sexism in English-medium billboards in Ile-Ife Nigeria. Based on the conclusion, this study recommends that more researches should be carried out involving a wider range of billboards and other media containing multimodal discourse. Also, the study recommends that every aspect of language should be scrutinized and researches on sexism should not be limited to linguistic levels only.

REFERENCES
Bolanle Tajudeen Opoola was born at Oyo town, Nigeria on the 26th of May 1959. He has B A, MA and Ph.D in Applied Linguistics from the University of Calabar, Nigeria between 1986 and 2000. He has been a language and Linguistics Lecturer and researcher for more than twenty years at the College and University levels. He is presently the Head of Linguistics and Languages department and Acting Dean, Faculty of Arts, Federal University Oye Ekiti, Nigeria. He has published several books including Topics in Applied Linguistics by Executive publishers, Owerri, and Competence and Performance In English by Emola-Jay publishers, oyo and about thirty articles on Linguistic topics of many learned societies. Dr. Bolanle Tajudeen Opoola is a member of Management Institute of Nigeria and Fellow of Institute of Policy Management and development.

Folorunso Emmanuel Awoniyi was born in Osun State Nigeria where he had his primary, secondary education before proceeding to the University of Ibadan for first and higher degrees in Linguistics. He is currently a doctoral degree student of Applied Linguistics at the University of Ibadan with flair for Clinical and pedagogical linguistics. He has contributed more than ten articles in the field of Linguistics in many reputable index Journals.
Vocabulary Learning Strategies Employed by Thai University Students across Four Academic Profiles

Sichabhat Boonnoon
Kasetsart University, Sakon Nakhon Province Campus, Thailand

Abstract—The present study explored the use of vocabulary learning strategies (VLS) by undergraduate Thai EFL students doing an academic reading course at a comprehensive university in northeastern Thailand and examined if there was a significant difference between the students’ use of VLS and their academic majors. A five-point Likert-scale questionnaire with 41 items adapted from Jones’s (2006) taxonomy of VLS which was categorized into 8 different strategies was administered to a group of 267 Thai undergraduate students purposively selected from across four academic majors—Business major (BM), Engineering major (EM), Agriculture major (AM), and Health science major (HM). The results revealed that the students were moderate users of VLS, with dictionary and note-taking strategies being reported as the most frequently used VLS and selective attention the least frequently used VLS. The results of One-way ANOVA showed that the students were significantly different (p<.05) in using five out of eight strategies. Post hoc comparisons using Scheffe test showed that health science students used VLS more frequently than the rest of academic majors.

Index Terms—vocabulary learning strategies (VLS), Thai EFL students, academic major

I. INTRODUCTION

In Thailand, English has been learned and taught to the students at almost all levels as a foreign language. It is not as simple as is generally thought when it comes to learning English as a foreign language, though. To master the language, learners need to pay utmost attention to all details pertaining to the language knowledge including grammatical structure, vocabulary, and register. Of all the aforementioned aspects of the language knowledge, vocabulary seems to be the most important one, as once posited by Wilkins (1972) that "while without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed" (pp. 111–112).

Vocabulary becomes even more pivotal when it comes to the fact that the students get involved with more advanced academic materials such as the ones for technical English courses and English for specific purposes. The students at Chalermprakiat Sakon Nakhon Province Campus of Kasetsart University (CSCKU), having passed Foundation English III, opt to do Academic English Reading, among the available requirement courses, as their follow-up course. This course by nature requires the students to know extensive vocabulary in order to comprehend the academic texts relevant to their fields. When it comes to vocabulary in a text, especially in academic reading classes, technical vocabulary is vital for English language learning. Technical vocabulary is important for learners who have a specific purpose in language learning. It can be in the form of a normal word with a specific meaning that is different from its common meaning. Texts in specific context are therefore unavoidable for learners, and so they have to construct meaning by drawing on their previous knowledge.

However, research says that the learners still need help in the form of strategy instruction to deal with unfamiliar academic or technical vocabulary. With the help of vocabulary learning strategies, a large amount of vocabulary could be acquired (Coady & Huckin, 1997) and the strategies are proved beneficial for students with different academic profiles. VLS can help learners take more control of their own learning, and so they can take more responsibility for their vocabulary learning (Scharle & Szabo, 2000), as a result, they chose strategies suitable for the achievement of their goals and take account of their affective needs and work context (Suwanarak, 2015).

Numerous research works (Chinpakdee, Komol & Sripatpan, 2011; Nomnian, & Suraratdecha, 2014; Nirattisai, 2014; have been carried out in relation to the VLS used by Thai university EFL students and the results have shown that Thai university EFL learners are moderate users of VLS. The directive suggestions derived from those research works are that Thai learners of English need to know and use appropriate and more learning strategies in order to enhance their vocabulary repositories. The strategies for learning vocabulary involve, for example, using a dictionary, keeping a vocabulary notebook, and asking for help with word meanings from peers or the teachers. However, to use vocabulary learning strategies more effectively, learners should be active and independent, and these states of being active and independent are, to be precise, the strategies per se, referred to as either cognitive or metacognitive strategies.

Still, not many researchers have investigated the repertoire of VLS used by Thai university students in the course of their academic or technical English studies, especially when the students are from across different academic majors. The author of the present investigation was, therefore, determined to explore what VLS were most or least frequently
used by the students doing an academic reading course. The variation of VLS use by the students was also to be investigated.

It was expected that by drawing on the results of this study the English teachers as well as the academic community as a whole would further improve the students’ English proficiency. With this study, the researcher wished to indirectly raise the students’ level of awareness, make them recognize more effective vocabulary learning strategies for a given circumstance, and encourage them to discern their best VLS. Through this study, the instruction of English at the university level might thus be improved because the teachers would become more vigilant as to which VLS on the students’ part need to be retooled and enhanced. The university management might also be prompted to evolve more effective language programmes which address the students’ specific and individual needs. Moreover, the findings from this study would shed light on the strategies employed by the students from the four faculties in learning English vocabulary, and the roles those strategies play in enhancing their academic English vocabulary repertoires. To achieve these aims, the following two research questions were put:

1. What are the most frequently used vocabulary learning strategies among the students across four academic majors?
2. How do the types of vocabulary learning strategies vary across the academic majors?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Vocabulary Learning Strategies (VLS)

Nation (2001) avers that vocabulary learning strategies are an indispensable part of language learning strategies which are under the general strategy repository. Though it is difficult to exactly define the word strategy, the scholar puts forth the following aspects as what deserves the teacher’s attention as a strategy. He states: “a strategy would to need to: (1) involve choice, that is, there are several strategies to choose from and one choice could be not to use the strategy; (2) be complex, that is, there are several steps to learn; (3) require knowledge and benefit from training; and (4) increase the efficiency and effectiveness of vocabulary learning and vocabulary use” (p. 326).

When it comes to the types of VLS and how they are classified, different researchers proposed their different classifications. Schmitt (2000) proposes two types of VLS: discovery and consolidation strategies. The first types are used for deriving the meaning of new words when the learners first come across them whereas the second types are used to consolidate meanings when the learners see the words again. Discovery strategies include determination and social strategies. On the contrary, consolidation strategies are further divided into four -social, memory, cognitive and metacognitive strategies. Schmitt classifies these VLS based partly on Oxford’s (1990) taxonomy of language learning strategies which comprises social, memory, cognitive and metacognitive strategies.

This study draws on the VLS classification used by Jones (2006) who categorized the VLS into eight strategies: dictionary strategies, guessing strategies, study preference strategies, memory strategies, autonomy strategies, note-taking strategies, selective attention strategies, and social strategies.

Pertaining to dictionary strategies, several researchers (e.g. Fan, 2003; Rojananak & Vitayapirak, 2015; Siddigh & Shokrpur, 2012) reported that good students use dictionary strategies more frequently than poor students. On the type of dictionary, Baxter (1980) posits that in the long run learners stand to gain more from using a monolingual dictionary because they are forced to use more of L2 than L1. However, bilingual dictionaries were found to be preferred by EFL learners than monolingual dictionaries (Hsien-jen, 2001; Punduangkaew, 2018; Seddigh & Shokrpur, 2012).

Guessing strategies refer to both guessing the meaning of the words from the context or from knowledge of word structure. In Schmitt’s (1997) taxonomy, dictionary strategies and guessing strategies are categorized under determination strategies. According to Gu and Johnson (1996), guessing strategies are more frequently used by proficient learners than by non-proficient ones, and Hashemi & Hadavi (2015) also confirmed the similar results. A meta-analysis of VLS used by EFL students conducted by NematoIahi et al. (2017) revealed that guessing strategies, particularly guessing from context are among the strategies most favoured by successful students.

Study preferences strategies are the ones that show the learners’ preferences for studying vocabulary individually, with another person, or in group. Memory strategies are various techniques used by the learners to recall the vocabulary, or, as mentioned by Schmitt (1997), relating the new word to some previously learned knowledge. Examples of memory strategies include writing the new word several times, repeating the word aloud. Brahler and Walker (2007) refer to these strategies as mnemonics.

Autonomy strategies are closely related to the learners’ motivation and taking responsibility for their own learning. For example, an autonomous learner does extensive reading outside of class or does a variety of out-of-class activities such as watching English movies and listening to English stories on Youtube.

Note taking strategies are a subcategory of cognitive strategies that emphasize mechanical aspects of learning (Seddigh & Shokrpur, 2012). They help the learners to create a personal structure for the newly learned words (Schmitt, 1997). These strategies show the common types of words recorded by the learners such as common words, words that are of personal interest to them or words or phrases that learners think are useful. These strategies also include the language in which the learners record the words; that is, in English or in Thai. These strategies also entail the relevant information about the recorded words such as meaning, collocation, grammatical information, and register, etc.

Selective attention strategies are exactly under metacongnitive strategies which involve planning, monitoring, evaluating and organizing one’s own learning (Oxford, 1995).
Finally, social strategies involve seeking a helping hand from other people in learning vocabulary. This include, for example, asking peers or teachers for the meaning. Interaction with native speakers is also an aspect of social strategies (Seddigh & Shokrpur, 2012).

B. Research in Relation to VLS and Academic Profiles

Researchers’ interest in academic majors in relation to the learners’ employment of vocabulary learning strategies has been on the rise. Gu (2002), based on the assumption that specific tasks and contexts of learning may confound the relationship among gender, academic major, learning strategies and learning outcomes, conducted a large-scale survey among a group of adult Chinese EFL learners on their VLS. It was found that academic major was of less potent background factor. Science students and arts students differed significantly in the use VLS. Science students were keener on the analysis of word structure and word-formation rules than arts students who believed less in memorisation of words, and who believed that words can be picked up in context. Arts students also preferred to take more vocabulary notes than science students.

Siriwan’s (2007) explored the types of vocabulary learning strategies used by 1481 Rajabhat University students across Thailand, the patterns of variations in frequency of VLS used according to gender, major field of study (English, science-oriented, and non-science-oriented), previous language learning experience, type of academic programme of study, and level of vocabulary proficiency, and investigated the relationships between frequency of student’s reported strategy use and the five independent variables. The researcher found that on the whole, Rajabhat University students reported medium frequency of use of VLS, and major field of study was found to be among the seven factors that were strongly related to the use of VLS.

Puangsang and Intharaksa (2017) used a questionnaire and an individual semi-structured interview to survey 242 first-year vocational students from three majors—engineering, accounting, and hotel and tourism from five vocational colleges in Krabi province, Thailand, to investigate their use of vocabulary learning strategies. The results in relation to academic majors were that VLS use significantly varied based on the participants’ fields of study. The hotel and tourism students employed VLS significantly more frequently than accounting and engineering students in the memory strategies. On the whole, it was found that the hotel and tourism students reported a bit higher use of all VLS than engineering and accounting students though there were no significant differences in the rest of VLS.

Bernardo and Gonzales (2009) investigated the use of 53 common VLS by 202 Pilipino university students across five academic majors: liberal arts and education, computer science and engineering, business education, hospitality management, and allied medical science. Findings revealed statistically significant differences in the use of determination and social VLS across the disciplines. Another finding exhibited non-significant differences in the employment of memory, cognitive, and metacognitive VLS. The results also showed that the identified vocabulary learning strategies converged with each other. Scheffe-post-hoc procedure indicated significant differences between allied medical science students and liberal arts and education with liberal arts and education using determination VLS with greater frequency and between allied medical science and computer science and engineering with allied medical science employing social VLS with lesser frequency. So it is possible to conclude that different fields of study might incorporate different styles of learning vocabulary.

Han (2014) investigated the underlying factors of foreign language vocabulary learning strategies in order describe the students’ use of vocabulary learning strategies and examine the differences in frequency of VLS use between the two language groups: alphabet-based languages (ABL) and character-based languages (CBL), and to identify the effects of gender, college major, motivation, and other variables on the use of VLS. The findings revealed that the students’ major field of study was among the factors that were significantly related to student's overall VLS use.

As can be seen in the literature review, scant research has been replicated in order to confirm the significant relationship or difference in the use VLS and EFL students’ academic profiles. There is still room for an investigation into the use of VLS among Thai EFL students across different academic majors, especially the students who are in the academic English setting where employment of various VLS repertoires is a must.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Research Design

This study was based on the proposition that students employ diverse vocabulary learning strategies in understanding and acquiring a variety of vocabulary. Therefore, it draws on the theoretical support from Schmitt’s (1997) taxonomy of vocabulary learning strategies which was further categorized in eight by Saddigh and Shokrpur (2014): dictionary, guessing, autonomy, note-taking, selective attention, social, study preferences, and memory strategies. A descriptive survey method was used in the present study to determine the vocabulary learning strategies employed by the students from each of the four identified disciplines and to elicit other pertinent information that might be required to answer further questions posed in this study.

B. Participants

Three hundred university students enrolled in Technical English, a course tailored to academic English reading, in a comprehensive university in the northeast of Thailand were purposively selected to take part in the study. However,
only 267 questionnaires representing 89 per cent of the target number were considered appropriate for the data analysis because other questionnaires were faulty for incomplete answers. Of the total number of the participants, 105 were male, and 162 were female. The participants, who taking Technical English in the first term of the academic year 2018, ranged in age from 18-25 years, and were distributed across four academic profiles: Business major (BM, 96), Engineering major (EM, 80), Agriculture major (AM, 50), and Health science major (HM, 41). They had already passed the prerequisite Foundation English III course. They were, therefore, deemed to have possessed enough input to answer the questions pertaining to English vocabulary learning strategies.

C. Data Collection Tool

A close-ended questionnaire was employed as the data collection tool in this study. The questionnaire (in Thai, Conbrach's alpha =0.87) was slightly modified and adapted from the one constructed and used in a study by Seddigh and Shokrpur (2012). Since the present study was aimed at answering the similar research questions as put in the researchers' work, the questionnaire was deemed appropriate and thus adapted because it was at least designed to cover all the vocabulary learning strategies mentioned in the literature review.

The questionnaire was of two parts. The first part was a set of questions for deriving personal information from the participants, including age, gender, year of study, and faculty. The second part contained 41 close-ended items in Likert-type (always =5, often = 4, sometimes = 3, rarely = 2, never = 1) relevant to the approach to vocabulary learning the students reported employing. The 41 items were grouped into 8 categories—dictionary strategies, guessing strategies, study preferences, memory strategies, autonomy strategies, note-taking strategies, selective attention, and social strategies.

D. Procedure

The questionnaire, which was to be completed within a 20-minute time, was administered in 4 classes of Technical English. The students could ask any questions pertaining to the questionnaire during the administration. To make sure they answered the questionnaire honestly and enthusiastically, the researcher apprised them of the fact that all the data would be kept as highly confidential and would be used solely for educational purpose.

E. Data Analysis

Before analyzing the data, the 267 questionnaires responded by the students were thoroughly checked for completeness. The data was analyzed using SPSS 21.0. To find out the participants' vocabulary strategy use, descriptive statistics was applied. For each item in the questionnaire, the frequencies of responses were calculated in percentages. The means and standard deviations were calculated for the 41 strategies listed in the questionnaire. Chi-square tests were used to check whether the use of specific VLS varied significantly among the mean percentage scores of the 8 strategies in relation to the participants' gender, age, faculty, and year of study.

The following three levels of strategy use developed by Oxford (1990) were established based on the participants’ self-reported frequency of VLS as the basis for the interpretation of the frequency levels of the use of VLS to see if the participants are high, medium or low strategy users.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table I. The Frequency Levels of Strategy Use by Oxford (1990)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

IV. Results and Discussion

To determine the means and standard deviations of the eight categories of vocabulary learning strategies employed by the participants, descriptive statistics was computed. The results from the statistical analysis could answer the first research question.

A. Answer to Research Question 1

To answer research question 1, the analyzed data has been summarized in Table 2 below for overall use of strategy and each strategy category.

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Table 2 shows the overall strategy use among the students, with the mean of 3.44, indicating that they were medium strategy users. As indicated in Table 2, in the eight categories, the most frequently used strategy was dictionary strategy (mean= 3.57, SD=.68), followed by note-taking strategies (mean= 3.53, SD=.76), autonomy strategies (mean=3.49, SD=.86), guessing strategies (mean=3.46, SD=1.16), and study preferences strategies (mean=3.44, SD=.81), respectively. The least frequently used strategy was selective attention strategy (mean=3.32, SD=.98).

The descriptive statistics indicate that the VLSs most frequently used by Thai EFL undergraduate students at KUCSC were dictionary strategies. The findings are consistent with the findings of previous research done in the context of Thailand (Kongthong,2007; Pookchareon, 2011; Komol & Sripetpun, 2014; Niratsai & Chiramanee, 2014; Rojananak & Vitayapitak, 2015 ) and in other countries such as Hashemin and Hadavi (2015) and recently Heidar and Hemayati (2017). One possible explanation is that the students are familiar with these well-known and widely-used strategies, especially when it comes to the fact that electronic dictionaries-online dictionaries in particular, have been incessantly popular among EFL learners across the world. Moreover, today’s dictionaries are readily accessible through almost all types of mobile devices especially smartphones which make it a lot easier for English learners to access free online dictionaries at their disposal. From the author's direct observation, most of the students at this university have their own smartphones and they seem to use them as indispensable part of their lives. Panduangkaew (2018) asked a thought-provoking question pertaining to this fact, noting that using dictionaries would not have been as popular as it is now if it were still a heavy and thick book which is not portable for the students to carry to class or even for individual study.

With regards to the dictionary strategies employed by the participants, the frequency of 7 individual dictionary strategies is presented in Table 3.

Table II. OVERALL USE OF VOCABULARY LEARNING STRATEGIES (VLS) AMONG THE PARTICIPANTS (N=267)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategies</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>Level of strategy use</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dictionary</td>
<td>3.57</td>
<td>.68</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guessing</td>
<td>3.46</td>
<td>1.16</td>
<td>Medium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Autonomy</td>
<td>3.49</td>
<td>.86</td>
<td>Medium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Note-taking</td>
<td>3.53</td>
<td>.76</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Selective attention</td>
<td>3.32</td>
<td>.98</td>
<td>Medium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social</td>
<td>3.40</td>
<td>.94</td>
<td>Medium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Study preferences</td>
<td>3.44</td>
<td>.81</td>
<td>Medium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Memory</td>
<td>3.34</td>
<td>.76</td>
<td>Medium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall strategy use</td>
<td>3.44</td>
<td>.86</td>
<td>Medium</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in Table 4, the participants most frequently used online dictionaries (mean=4.07, SD=.96), looked up a word in the dictionary if it is of personal interest to them (mean=3.73, SD=1.21), and if there were new words in a reading passage, they looked them up in the dictionary (mean=3.66, SD=.111). They also reported using both English-Thai and Thai-English dictionaries when they used (mean=3.57, SD=1.09). The strategy of looking up a word in the dictionary if it is of personal interest was reported to be the second most frequently used dictionary strategy indicated that the participants used online dictionaries only when they wanted to know the meaning of the unknown word.

However, strategy 6, that is studying examples of how a word is used when consulting a dictionary, was reported to be the least frequently used strategy (mean=3.31, SD=1.17) indicating that the students still used dictionaries in a quite conventional manner–for quick consultation (Bejoint & Moulin, 1987, as cited in Fan, 2000). This fact shows that the students were not maximizing the use of dictionaries; that is, they did not spend a bit more time studying beyond the word definition, e.g. example sentences of the word. The lack of dictionary use skill could attribute to the participant’s least frequent use of VLS6, as evidenced in Siddigh and Shokrpur’s (2012). Given the fact that the participants were taking Academic English Reading at the time of the study, looking up academic words the students encountered in the course material might contribute to the higher frequency of VLS 4 and VLS 3 respectively. Previous research, with which this study was in accord, shows that EFL students looked up more academic English words than non-academic words (Thammajindarach & Boonmoh, 2017).
Note-taking strategies were the next most frequently used vocabulary learning strategies among the participants. With regards to the note-taking strategies employed by the participants, the frequency of 5 individual note-taking strategies is presented in Table 4.

**Table IV. Note-taking Strategies Employed by the Participants (N=267)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Note-taking strategies</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Level of strategy use</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>VLS30 I write down a word if I think is common.</td>
<td>3.60</td>
<td>1.22</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VLS31 I write down a word that are of personal interest to me.</td>
<td>3.65</td>
<td>1.08</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VLS32 I write down a word or phrases that I think are useful.</td>
<td>3.48</td>
<td>1.08</td>
<td>Medium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VLS33 I write down the definitions of English words in English.</td>
<td>3.42</td>
<td>1.17</td>
<td>Medium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VLS34 I write down information about words in Thai.</td>
<td>3.49</td>
<td>1.19</td>
<td>Medium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VLS35 I write down information about words when I look them up in the dictionary.</td>
<td>3.59</td>
<td>1.18</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Pertaining to the note-taking strategies, Table 4 shows that the most commonly used strategies, at the high frequency level, were writing down the words that are of personal interest (mean=3.65, SD=1.08), writing down a word if it is thought to be common (mean=3.60, SD=1.22), and writing down information about words when looking them up in the dictionary (mean=3.59, SD=1.18). Writing down information about words in Thai (VLS34) and writing down useful word or phrases (VLS32) achieved the very similar means (3.49 and 3.48 respectively). The least frequently used aspect of note-taking strategies is writing down the definitions of English words in English (mean=3.42, SD=1.17).

The findings in this study were inconsistent with those of Hashemi and Hadavi (2014), which indicated that note-taking strategies were reported as the least frequently used strategies among EFL medical students. The plausible explanation is that since the participants in this study enrolled in the academic English reading course, they took it seriously in taking notes of the English words they came across in the coursebook or the concerned information delivered by the teachers in class, and they did so to make sure that they passed the course. Regarding writing down a word that is of personal interest, the participants might have done this as a result of the academic English words abundantly used in the class material. Previous research (Mezek, 2013) indicated that taking notes is an important part of reading academic English material because EFL students who take more extensive notes while engaging with the text managed to learn more academic terms than the ones who did not do so. However, the fact that the participants depended heavily on their first language (Thai) when taking notes (see VLS34 and VLS33) was in accord with Saddigh and Shokrpur (2014) who found that most the students took notes in their own language, and only few used English to note or even write down the definitions of the words in English. The students in this study were Thai and they liked to use English-Thai dictionaries as well as take notes in Thai possibly because it was what they regularly did. The findings here suggest that Thai EFL learners should be forced to put English into use when taking notes of academic English words.

The participants reported using autonomy strategies (mean=3.49, SD=.86) as the third frequently used category of strategies, followed by guessing strategies (mean=3.46, SD=1.16). But these strategies did not appear as their most preferred strategies. The results came as quite a surprise because most previous research reported the high level of use of guessing strategies (Hadavi & Hashemi, 2014; Mokhtar et al., 2018). It could be explained here that, to a certain extent, the participants did not try to learn new vocabulary items from context, though they indicated the use of autonomy strategies a bit more than guessing strategies, but that indication was simply reflecting their regular use of other common strategies–metacognitive strategies in particular. Guessing word meaning from context is regarded as a high-achiever’s vocabulary learning strategy, but most of the participants in this study were moderate English achievers, hence their use of guessing strategies at a medium level. This prompts a systematic training of the students in extensive use of the guessing strategies to help them learn academic English words more effectively.

Selective attention strategies were found to achieve the lowest mean (mean=3.32, SD=.98) among the eight categories of VLS, indicating that the participants did not take these strategies seriously. Considering each item under this this category of VLS, it was found that VLS38 (I decide which words are important or unimportant for me to learn.) was reported being most frequently employed (mean=3.39, SD=1.13), as indicated in Table 5.

**Table V. Selective Attention Strategies Employed by the Participants (N=300)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Selective attention strategies</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Level of strategy use</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>s36 I have a schedule or routine that I follow for studying vocabulary.</td>
<td>3.21</td>
<td>1.37</td>
<td>Medium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>s37 I think about my progress in vocabulary learning.</td>
<td>3.36</td>
<td>1.17</td>
<td>Medium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>s38 I decide which words are important or unimportant for me to learn.</td>
<td>3.39</td>
<td>1.13</td>
<td>Medium</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Referred to as metacognitive strategies in other research works, selective attention strategies help the learners in controlling their own cognition. These strategies pertain to overviewing and linking with the material previously known, paying attention, organizing, setting objectives and goals of study, self-monitoring, and self-assessing (Zare, 2012). According to Oxford (2003), to manage the holistic learning process, learners employ these strategies. One interestingly salient note regarding the three selective attention strategies is that no high frequency level of use was found in this study. That selective attention strategies were found to be the least frequently used VLS among the participants was
consistent with previous research (e.g. Rabadi, 2016; Al-Khasawneh, 2012), and this could be attributed to the participants’ limited exposure to the target language outside of class, hence their not learning it consciously. Besides, since all the participants were not English majors, they might not have been taught or trained to rely on other useful vocabulary learning strategies other than the VLS they were most familiar with, such as dictionary strategies and note-taking ones.

B. Answer to Research Question 2

In order to determine any significant variation in strategy use pertaining to academic major, analyses of variance (ANOVA) were conducted using this factor as the independent variable and the eight categories of vocabulary learning strategies as dependent variables. The results are reported in Table 6.

Table VI.
SUMMARY OF THE USE OF VOCABULARY LEARNING STRATEGIES ACROSS FOUR ACADEMIC MAJORS (N=267)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategies</th>
<th>AB</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>AI</th>
<th>PH</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dictionary</td>
<td>3.52</td>
<td>.68</td>
<td>3.59</td>
<td>.63</td>
<td>3.68</td>
<td>.75</td>
<td>3.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3.34</td>
<td>1.01</td>
<td>3.44</td>
<td>1.40</td>
<td>3.44</td>
<td>1.40</td>
<td>3.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Autonomy</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>.86</td>
<td>3.52</td>
<td>.82</td>
<td>3.66</td>
<td>.88</td>
<td>3.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Note-taking</td>
<td>3.47</td>
<td>.75</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>.79</td>
<td>3.63</td>
<td>.81</td>
<td>3.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Selective attention</td>
<td>3.05</td>
<td>.99</td>
<td>3.37</td>
<td>.93</td>
<td>3.45</td>
<td>.98</td>
<td>3.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social</td>
<td>3.19</td>
<td>.85</td>
<td>3.48</td>
<td>.99</td>
<td>3.51</td>
<td>1.14</td>
<td>3.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Study preferences</td>
<td>3.23</td>
<td>.77</td>
<td>3.44</td>
<td>.86</td>
<td>3.60</td>
<td>.79</td>
<td>3.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Memory</td>
<td>3.16</td>
<td>.72</td>
<td>3.30</td>
<td>.79</td>
<td>3.57</td>
<td>.79</td>
<td>3.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>3.27</td>
<td>.82</td>
<td>3.45</td>
<td>.90</td>
<td>3.56</td>
<td>.93</td>
<td>3.63</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<.05
Legend: BM=Business major, EM= Engineering major, AM=Agriculture major, HM= Health science major

As indicated in Table 6, findings revealed statistically significant differences (p<.05) in the participants’ use of the five categories of VLSs: autonomy, selective attention, social, and study preferences. However, the data exhibited non-significant differences for dictionary, guessing, and note-taking strategies, respectively. Post hoc comparisons using Scheffe test showed that health science students used VLSs more frequently (M = 3.63) than the rest of the groups of students.

The findings here are in line with other several research works which reported significant differences in the use of VLSs across academic majors (Mingsakoon, 2002; Bernardo & Gonzales, 2009; Hadavi & Hashemi, 2014). A plausible explanation regarding this result might be attributed to the holistic learning styles of the health science major students. Of all the five categories of the VLS used significantly differently by the health science students, autonomy came first with the highest mean of 3.80. In detail, it was found that two aspects of autonomy strategies were reported as being 'always' used by them: VLS25 (I read English books, newspapers, and magazines outside of class for my own pleasure), and VLS28 (I try to make opportunities outside of class to use words I've just learned). On top of these, they also reported 'often' using another two aspects of autonomy strategies: VLS26 (I listen to English music outside of class for pleasure), and VLS28 (I try to make opportunities outside of class to use words I've just learned). On top of these, they also reported 'always' used by them: VLS25 (I read English books, newspapers, and magazines outside of class for my own pleasure), and VLS28 (I try to make opportunities outside of class to use words I've just learned). On top of these, they also reported 'often' using another two aspects of autonomy strategies: VLS26 (I listen to English music outside of class for pleasure), and VLS28 (I try to make opportunities outside of class to use words I've just learned).

As posited by Yu-jing (2010), learning strategies highly depend on individual needs and preferences, health science students in this study could thus be interpreted as more active and determined than the students of other majors in terms of learning English vocabularies. Still, the results also indicated that business, engineering, and agriculture major students were still unaware of the advantages of most of the these strategies, or it might be that they simply did not make efforts to use them. However the findings in this study were contrary to Yilmaz (2017) who reported non-significant difference in the use of VLSs between science-oriented and humanities students. This could be explained that the subjects in Yilmaz’s research were post-graduate students who might basically possessed good English competence as a result of their being chosen to study at the post-graduate level, hence their similarly reported use of
VLSs. But the subjects in this study, in all fairness, were undergraduate students and none of whom were English majors. Their English abilities were generally deemed fair, judging from the author's own direct experience of teaching the students at this university. That the health science students in this study were found to be users of more VLSs than other science-oriented students was therefore worth noticing and further investigating.

To draw on the findings from this study, teaching EFL students of all academic majors to enhance their vocabulary repositories requires teaching of different effective strategies on the language teachers' part because as an adage goes "one man's meat is another man's poison", that is; one strategy could not work effectively when used by one learner rather the other. Therefore, language teachers are supposed to consider academic profiles when teaching English vocabulary items to students of various academic majors. Also, the results of this study indicated that the students still did not know nor realize the benefits of other VLSs than the ones they familiarly used, it would therefore be beneficial if they could be taught to be aware of and employ those less frequently used strategies more often in order to enhance their vocabulary learning, which is in fact, the overall improvement of their English abilities (Boonkongsaen, 2012).

V. IMPLICATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

The implications and suggestions which can be drawn from this study are that the language teachers should encourage the students' awareness of the importance and usefulness of VLS in boosting their learning. With more emphasis on strategy training, the teachers can urge the learners to use VLS more effectively.

In regard to the training of VLS, more should be done with the least frequently used strategies (selective attention and memory strategies) because, in principle, the students can employ the strategies to learn more vocabulary by way of both in class and outside of class activities. Particularly, the students from across different majors need different VLSs that suit their learning styles when dealing with academic materials as they need extensive and direct instruction of vocabulary to succeed in their academic studies (Kafipour, et al, 2011).

Most the students in this study reported using online monolingual dictionaries, but not monolingual ones, this lack of interest in capitalizing on a monolingual dictionary implies their inadequate knowledge about how to it. The teachers should help upskill their use of monolingual dictionaries (English-English dictionaries) in an appropriate way. They should tailor the students' attention to the presence of relevant vital information apart from the definition of each entry word, and these pieces of information include, for example, details of lexis and grammar, as well as register. In addition, teachers should place more emphasis on remembering and taking notes of English words by using the learners' second language rather than first language. Dokchandra (2015) proposed that to acquire vocabulary, learners need to put into use the four–element cycle of vocabulary acquisition–noticing, recording, revisiting, and recreating. This suggestion perfectly applies to the Thai university EFL students in the context of this study who are still moderate users of VLS.

Finally, to obtain a more holistic view about the VLS of Thai university EFL students, further research should be carried out at other universities across academic majors and also across the country. Also, in this study health science students were found to have used VLS more frequently than business-oriented and engineering-oriented students, future research should, therefore, investigate the determinants leading to the difference in VLS use between these three academic profiles. Last but not least, it was found in this study that more than half (58.7%) of the business-oriented students did not perceive the importance of English while the rest of other majors, especially health science majors, showed a higher level of perception, hence their significantly different use of VLS. Future research should therefore look into the link between perception of students of different academic profiles and their employment of VLS.

REFERENCES

Sichabhat Boonnoon is a full-time lecturer in English at the Faculty of Liberal Arts and Management Science, Kasetsart University, Sakon Nakhon province, Thailand. She holds a master’s degree in Teaching English as a Second Language from Silpakorn University, Thailand. Her research interests cover the areas of second language (L2) reading and writing, vocabulary learning strategy and teaching, academic English teaching approaches, and Teaching English to speakers of other languages (TESOL).
Point of View in Narrative

Suhair Al-Alami
Al Ghurair University, Dubai, UAE

Abstract—Point of view in narrative is a focal angle of seeing, hearing, smelling, and sensing the story’s settings, characters, and events. Researchers within the fields of language, linguistics and literature, assert that there are three main types of narrator: first-person, second-person, and third-person. The current paper depicts the three types, highlighting each in terms of aim, use, and potential for narrative effectiveness. Linking the paper to narrative stylistics, aspects and markers of point of view such as locative expression, thought and speech presentation, mind style, dis-narration, and modality are discussed. To examine point of view in narrative through discussing areas of relevance to the topic, the paper sheds light on socio-pragmatic and cognitive dimensions within narrative contexts. Finally, the paper concludes with a number of essential factors for shaping the construct of effective point of view in narrative.

Index Terms—fiction, first-person narrator, narrative stylistics, point of view, second-person narrator, third-person narrator

I. INTRODUCTION

This paper seeks to highlight point of view within narrative contexts, pinpointing a number of points in relation to main types of narrator, narrative stylistics, and socio-pragmatic and cognitive dimensions. Speaking in general terms, point of view can refer to two things: a point of view in arguments or nonfiction texts is an opinion, the way one judges, considers or values an issue. Considered from a narrative angle, on the other hand, a point of view is the narrator’s position in the description of a story’s events.

Part two of the current paper presents point of view as defined by scholars within the fields of English language, linguistics and literature. To offer a comprehensive idea about the main types of point of view, part three describes the three main types of narrator, reflecting on each with respect to aim, use, and so on. Part four offers the reader brief, yet adequate information about an area of study which is highly related to point of view: stylistics. Relating point of view to narrative stylistics, part five discusses essential aspects and markers of point of view such as modality and mind style. Next, part six portrays socio-pragmatic and cognitive dimensions within narrative contexts. Last but not least, part seven concludes with recommendations for language specialists to consider whilst narrating a story.

II. WHAT DOES POINT OF VIEW ENTAIL?

Point of view can refer to two things: a point of view in a discussion is an opinion; the way one judges an issue. In narrative, however, a point of view is the narrator’s position in the description of characters and events. Simpson (2010, p. 294) thinks that point of view embraces the angle of narrating in fiction. Point of view is important because it filters everything in a narrative. It determines the amount of information the narrator shares with the reader. It can also influence the degree to which the reader can identify with the protagonist (Al-Alami, 2016; 2013).

Shen (2010) believes that both first-person and third-person types of narration employ different methods. For example, the pronoun ‘I’ can be used in first-person narration to refer to either an observer or the protagonist. Shen proceeds to emphasize that it is extremely important to gain awareness of two dichotomies relating to point of view. These are: internal point of view which embodies the viewing position inside the story versus external point of view which embodies the viewing position outside the story. Additionally, one should be able to differentiate between outside view which entails observing a character’s behavior versus inside view which entails penetrating into a character’s thoughts and feelings. In Simpson’s opinion (2010; 1993), point of view in narrative can be as limited as that of first-person narrator, or as wide as that of third-person omniscient. Clark (2007) explains that point of view can be deployed for different purposes. Point of view can be deployed to represent an ideological framework or a visual perspective of a story. In addition, it can be deployed to describe different types of relationships within a story’s contexts.

Using a story narrator is a strategy the implementation of which can be achieved in a number of ways. Morini (2011) classifies point of view in narrative into two categories: first person and third person. First-person narration is used in texts where the story is narrated by the main protagonist, or in some cases, by a minor character. Operating as a window on the events which take place in a fictional text, third-person narration can be utilized skillfully. Within third-person narration, a narrator can be internal or external, possessing either unrestricted or restricted knowledge (Durant, et al. 2000). Whereas internal third-person narration paves the way for visualizing characters’ thoughts; feelings and attitudes, external third-person narration is limited to accessing characters from outside. Whatever the type, Jacobus (1989)
emphasizes that for a story to function properly, settings; characters; and dramatic events are all required and should be conveyed effectively by means of expressive language.

Some people may confuse point of view with perspective. Short (1996, p. 256) distinguishes between what is portrayed in the fictional world, and the perspective from which it is portrayed. This distinction in viewpoint has a significant role in making the novel the most complex literary genre in terms of discourse structure. Whereas point of view focuses on the type of narrator used to tell the story, perspective reflects how the characters view and process what happens within the story. While writing a story, one may indicate his/her perspective through using all points of view to assist the reader in clearly recognizing the narrator’s attitude. Logically speaking, one’s perspective influences the way he/she feels about characters and situations. Within the boundaries of a story, characters’ perspectives can be different; there may be three people at one event, each with a unique set of experiences.

III. POINT OF VIEW: WHAT, WHY, AND HOW?

This part of the paper highlights the three types of narrator, shedding light on main points for English language specialists to consider. It should be mentioned that this part is excluded to discussing point of view within fiction contexts rather than other genres.

To start with, first-person narrator can be identified through the use of pronouns like I, me, we, and us in the narrative. Since the information is limited to what the first-person narrator says; thinks; feels; receives and perceives, factors such as reader intimacy, connection with the character’s emotional state, and visualization of physical setting make the story appealing in its own ways. First-person narrator is divided into singular and plural narration. Characterized by the use of I/my/me/myself/mine, first-person singular delineates one’s experiences, seeking to ensure that the reader will and can see the world the narrator has created. There are four main kinds of first-person narrator: firstly, the protagonist. The protagonist is the main character in the story, sharing what happens whilst providing commentary. Secondly: a secondary character, this type of narrator may rely on personal experience in narrating the story. Thirdly: the observer (witness narrator), this type of narrator can neither be identified with the author nor be engaged in the story’s events. To inject commentary, the witness narrator tends to use personal pronouns. Fourthly: the unreliable narrator, this type of narrator cannot be trusted to convey the story accurately as his/her information may be skewed. As if directly communicating with the reader, the first-person singular can have an effective, intimate narrative tone. On the other hand, since the first-person narrator is limited to the narrator’s experience, any events taking place outside the narrator’s zone may not come to the notice of the reader. The first-person singular point of view can be a wise choice for a character-driven novel. A novel with crucial characters all leading their own lives in different venues and at different times can be demanding to convey in a first-person point of view. Turning to first-person plural, determiners and pronouns such as we/us/ours/our/ourselves are used here. First-person plural can be used when a community shares some common features and/or experiences. A major advantage of this point of view is that it is comprised of more than one person, who thus can report and reflect on events more than a single person can do. However, it might be tedious especially in the constant collective presence of several people.

Identified by the use of you, second-person narrator takes its main character you, telling us who you are, what you do, and so on. This type is the least common of all the three types, since it is the hardest to utilize in stretches of discourse without the possibility of sounding slightly awkward. The narrator is the reader, which might be tricky. Second-person is used in short stories where there is less room for redundancy. It creates an intimate relationship between character and reader. This intimate bond and the novelty of voice function can be both engaging and entertaining. However, the novelty of voice may not be adequate to sustain a long narrative such as the novel.

Divided into two sub-categories: limited and omniscient, third-person point of view is characterized by the use of: he, him, himself, she, her, and herself. This type of narrator allows for more flexibility and freedom than the other types do, because it genuinely offers a more global, wider view of what happens in the story. Commenting on third-person limited, it allows the reader to sense and perceive a particular character’s feelings; thoughts and attitudes. Third-person limited offers closeness to the main character being described whilst allowing readers to investigate his/her mood, mentality, thought, feeling, perception and so on. Unlike third-person limited, third-person omniscient provides much freedom, which enables the narrator to move across different generations, numerous scenarios and varied settings. It, therefore, can be seen as an effective portrayal for readers to read between and behind characters’ actions and thoughts. Furthermore, it can be viewed as an appropriate tool for novelists who have complex plots, detailed descriptions, and many casts. Though thorough and promising, much freedom might lead to disturbance of focus, blur of vision, and lack of comprehension while one is reading a narrative. It would be helpful, therefore, if omniscient narrators consider each event a unique unit the details of which are described splendidly and thoroughly impressive.

To conclude, for exploring point of view to be effective, some of the major questions to address are: does the narrator sound detached, does the narrator have a clear opinion of the story, does the narrator participate in the events being narrated, does the narrator announce his/her presence openly, is the narrator of sufficient knowledge to tell the story, and do we trust the narrator’s information? Obviously, without mastering point of view, one’s chances of success in narrative take a nosedive. Equally important in terms of success in narrative writing are the ability to design well-rounded characters and the ability to produce a compelling plot which keeps the reader turning the pages.
IV. Stylistics at a Glance

In its early days, stylistics was considered a method that would allow readers to analyze language. Today, however, stylistics has become a tool for enriching not only language studies, but also culture and society related research. Stylistics has a number of subfields such as narrative stylistics, cognitive stylistics, and feminist stylistics. Crawshaw (1996) points out that stylistics is an integrated field of study, including the study areas of linguistics, sociology, and psychology.

Stylistics can be defined as a thorough examination of language style, which highlights how texts are influenced by different factors such as those of intra-linguistic features (Al-Alami, 2014). Leech (2010, p. 17) defines stylistics as a ‘way of using language’. While examining language style, focus should be made on main features of a specific genre or domain like corpus. Stylistics requires thorough analyses of the text to identify how specific linguistic patterns relate to meaning and effect (Semino, 2004). Explicit, sensitive and rigorous linguistic analyses provide invaluable insights into the workings of texts.

Stylistics can be used to analyze texts of different genres and forms; nevertheless, it goes without saying that the most popular area of exploration is that of literature (Busse and McIntyre, 2010; Simpson, 2004). Cook (2003) mentions that literary stylistics has proved to be effective in the English as a foreign language classroom. It relates language use of certain patterns to the impact a specific pattern may have upon the reader. Literary stylistics is usually concerned with three aspects of a literary text; namely, its appropriate deviation from the conventions and norms of everyday language use, its skillful manipulation of language patterns, and its effective selection of vocabulary items.

V. Narrative Stylistics: Aspects and Markers

A. Deixis, Verba Sentiendi, and Locative Expressions

Stylistics involves examination of individual literary texts or extracts, to relate specific linguistic choices to potential meanings and effects. Examined from a stylistics point of view, markers of point of view can be located in certain linguistic indicators of the narrative. A description of these markers include, amongst others, categories such as ‘deixis’: pointing words (these versus those) whose function is to attach a narrator to a particular context (Short, 1996), ‘verba sentiendi’: words which represent feelings, perceptions and thoughts of narrators and characters alike (Uspensky, 1973), and ‘locative expressions’: phrases which refer to locations and directions indicating the spatial position of the fiction’s reflector (Fowler, 1986).

B. Thought and Speech Presentation

Presentation of thought and speech is an important aspect of the narrative style. Kvantaliani (2014) states that free direct speech has its significance in terms of dramatizing characters’ utterances. It enables the reader to clearly distinguish between reporting of events and reporting of speech. Free indirect speech, by contrast, provides the effects of vividness and immediacy which promote the reader’s involvement in the narrative. Free indirect speech is different from other speech presentation categories due to the author’s increased control of conversations, which thus allows the author to guide the reader’s sympathy towards certain characters. As far as thought presentation in narrative is concerned, presenting a character’s thoughts indicates the use of an omniscient narrator. Kvantaliani (2014) is of the opinion that utilizing direct categories of thought presentation like free direct thought and direct thought may hold a different value from that of the corresponding speech presentation.

Simpson (2010) argues that portrayal of a character’s discourse by a narrator has a considerable impact on the perspective of narration used in the story. An influential technique to be considered is free indirect discourse: an expression which subsumes free indirect thought and speech indirect thought variants. Free indirect discourse can be seen as in-between direct and indirect discourse, depicting features of both. Of interest to narrative stylistics are the effects and images of narrators and characters interacting simultaneously. Vandelanotte (2004, p. 492) stresses that in direct thought or speech, a ‘verbatim representation’ of the original utterances has to be maintained. In indirect thought or speech, meaning of the original utterances has to be maintained through using words other than the ones used in the original utterances (Semino, 2004; Gross, 1993).

Murphy (2007, p. 28) proposes using the term ‘monitored speech’ to refer to indirect speech. Semino and Short (2004), on the other hand, reveal that free indirect speech is the least frequent category of speech presentation. Moreover, free indirect speech is considered more complex than other forms because it is comprised of indirect and direct features whether grammatical, lexical, or deictic markers of subjectivity. According to Leech and Short (1981), the use of direct speech and free direct speech yields an imaginary scene of characters interacting in the presence of readers. What is more, free indirect speech distances the reader from the character, whereas free indirect thought portrays the opposite scenario; it places the reader in the character’s consciousness. Free indirect thought is employed extensively in fictional texts. A number of fiction writers exploit it successfully to arouse the reader’s interest in the story’s world.

C. Mind Style
In Semino’s opinion (2002), mind style refers to a person’s distinctive linguistic presentation of his/her mental self. Mind style is a contextual demonstration of a character’s views of the world. It demonstrates consistent structural options in order to initiate an impression of a world view. Fowler (1977, p. 105) asserts that the consistently restricted nature of mind style is necessary since selection of grammar, syntax, and vocabulary restricts the story to the reflector’s perspective. Mind style is not an easy concept to grasp; it might be confused with point of view. It is related to it, but it is not the same.

D. Dis-narration

Prince (1988, p. 2) considers dis-narration as a gap in the development of a story which can yet be comprehended and realized explicitly or inferably from a lacuna in the chronology. Not all narrative acts need to be related as readers can still infer a story’s coherence from absences in the text. Hardy (2005) addresses dis-narration through highlighting narrative gaps. Instead of focusing on non-narrated areas such as negation and ellipsis, Hardy (2005; 2003) examines narrower examples in narratives the propositions, participants, or events of which are noticeably absent. Mention of the notion of gapping should not be made without mention of the counterfactual concept which refers to a dis-narrated alternative sequence that affects the evaluation of story elements. Because counterfactuals pave the way for adopting attitudinal positions in respect of realized and unrealized story events, counterfactuals should be seen as an essential marker of evaluative stance in fiction (Harding, 2007).

E. Modality

Modality is a traditional marker which makes it possible for speakers to reflect their attitudes and beliefs through what they narrate. Emphasizing that the styles of literature genres can be partly defined by recurrent and specific configurations of modality, Simpson (2010, p. 295) claims that the genre of horror fiction foregrounds certain modal structures to do with knowledge and perception. Additionally, markers of epistemic modality engender a special kind of narrative viewpoint that is not found, to the same extent, in other types of writing. Palmer (2003, p.7) delineates modality as deontic, dynamic, and epistemic. Deontic refers to the circumstances and conditions which are external to the subject of the sentence, dynamic refers to the control which is internal to the subject, and epistemic refers to the specific attitudes to status of the proposition.

VI. POINT OF VIEW IN NARRATIVE: SOCIO-PRAGMATIC AND COGNITIVE DIMENSIONS

McIntyre (2004, p. 157) recommends that future research should focus on the ‘fluid quality of point of view within a linguistic framework’, to investigate how readers move from a viewpoint to another viewpoint in a narrative. With readers moving from a viewpoint to another in mind, Simpson (2010, p. 302) proposes that one’s perception of what makes point of view is open to discussion and re-discussion, since the paradigms we use for text interpretation function differently across different eras. Much work remains within the field of stylistics if we are to reach a coherent explanation of diachronic shifts in interpretation. Simpson (2010) concludes that the way one perceives creativity is influenced by socio-pragmatic matrices through which readers interact with narratives, and that such socio-pragmatic matrices should be subsumed under stylistic analysis in relation to point of view.

Short and Candlin (1989, p. 9) suggest that the prompt, impetus, and testing ground are based on language and literature classrooms. An essential outcome of the cognition ‘turn’ in stylistics exemplifies psychologists’ work on text interpretation. Reflecting on research studies within the scope of the current part, Egidi and Gerric (2006) investigated the way readers responded to narrative characters’ aims, examining how readers identified with characters’ aims the more the aims were narrated. Rapp and Gerrig (2006) explored how readers distinguished between what they referred to as moral outcome on the one hand, and the narrative outcome preferred by a character on the other. Based on these two studies amongst others, a question to raise within this context should center around the extent to which a reflector of fiction would invite empathy from readers towards preferred outcomes. Another question to address should aim to explore the extent to which use of point of view may influence readers’ identification with specific kinds of outcomes in narratives.

To objectively investigate varied issues within socio-pragmatic and cognitive stylistics, synthesis between psychological studies of readers’ responses to narratives and stylistic approaches to point of view would be beneficial in that research findings within one area will supplement the other area. A key point of stylistics in this regard is that it reflects a systematic account of readers’ responses to narrative viewpoints. While psychological research is sophisticated when considering experimental design, narrative structure is more rudimentary. Having these considerations in mind, a number of researchers such as Simpson (2010) and (Zyngier et al, 2008) advocate the idea that combining empirical testing techniques with stylistic analysis will lead to designing a thoroughly developed model of point of view in narrative stylistics.

VII. CONCLUSION

Seeking to offer a transparent idea about point of view in narrative, the current paper presents some definitions which have been proposed and approved by a number of scholars within the fields of English language, linguistics, and literature. As discussed in this paper, the main types of narrator are: first-person, second-person, and third-person. In
first-person, the character is in the story, describing his/her experiences to the reader with no intrusion. This type is popular in fiction. Second-person point of view is told whilst using the pronoun you. This type, however, is not commonly used in fiction. Third-person is divided into third-person limited and third-person omniscient. In third-person limited, the story is about 'he' or 'she'. The narrator is outside of the story, reflecting and reporting on the experiences of the main character. In third-person omniscient, the story is still about 'he' or 'she', but the narrator has access to each and every character’s thoughts, feelings and experiences. Whatever the type, point of view in narrative should reveal which character’s eyes, if any, the reader is looking through at any given moment, how much access to a character’s feelings and thoughts the reader is offered, and how closely a character’s internal and external speech resembles his/her own way of thinking, feeling, and communicating.

A highly related area to studies on point of view is stylistics. The current paper, therefore, sheds light on stylistics as a field of study. As explained earlier, stylistics is an art of exploring and analyzing texts in terms of linguistic features, literary devices, discourse markers, overall organization, and the like. To further explain areas of relevance to point of view, the current paper discusses aspects and markers of narrative stylistics, and socio-pragmatic and cognitive dimensions.

In conclusion, there is no best point of view in narrative to ever utilize. An effective point of view in narrative depends on a number of factors one of which is the form of writing, which in some cases, may necessitate the use of a certain type of point of view over others. Third-person narrator, for instance, can function effectively in creative written pieces where the narrator wants to tell the story without intruding into the plot. Moreover, an effective point of view is derived from the narrator’s aim; mentality and vision, not to mention the story’s main elements such as character; plot; and setting which also play an important role in determining the most appropriate point of view to adopt. On a final note, what should remain as significant factors shaping the construct of effective point of view in narrative are transparency of narration, integrity of reflection, authenticity of tone, clarity of presentation, adequacy of detail, impact of communication, significance of speech, exquisiteness of style, and impression of expression.

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**Suhair E. Al-Alami** holds a PhD degree in English Applied Linguistics from Aston University, United Kingdom, and another PhD degree in English Linguistics from Ain Shams University, Egypt. Currently, she works as Assistant Professor at Al Ghurair University, Dubai. Al-Alami has contributed a wide range of research papers to various ranked journals. Moreover, she has served as a co-editor of six publications, and has also reviewed many articles for refereed journals and conferences. Last but not least, Al-Alami has received a number of recognition awards and certificates for her research, teaching, professional development, and community service activities.
A Three-dimensional Classification System of Second Language Self-repair

Simin Zeng
School of Humanities and Social Sciences, Harbin Institute of Technology, Shenzhen, China

Abstract—Self-repair is the change(s) a speaker makes to his/her ongoing speech due to any concern in talk. Previous psycholinguistic taxonomies of self-repair regard it as manifestations of individual speech production problems. This study questions this stand by investigating the self-repair behaviour of English language learners from two secondary schools in China, examining their task discourse and stimulated-recall comments. The results enable a three-dimensional classification system that analyses self-repair with reference to 1) the change(s) involved in a self-repair that is reflected in a certain domain of language, 2) the strategy employed to make the change(s), and 3) the problem that prompts a speaker to self-repair. Analysis of the problems underlying the occurrences of self-repair demonstrates that L2 learners use self-repair to deal with problems in the interactions and the communicative contexts, in addition to their production problems.

Index Terms—self-repair, second language learner, learner discourse

I. INTRODUCTION

Self-repair, modifications made by a speaker to his/her prior speech, can be frequently found both in the everyday talk of first language (L1) speakers and in the talk of second language (L2) learners. When speakers encounter a problem in their L2 speech, they often self-repair - making changes to the form and/or the informational content of what they have said.

To study self-repair closely and systematically, taxonomies of self-repair have been built, mainly by psycholinguists (e.g., Levelt, 1983; Kormos, 1998, 2006). Researchers working within the psycholinguistic paradigm define self-repair as “surface manifestations of psycholinguistic processes” (Liskin-Gasparro, 1996, p. 318). The construct can include attempts by a speaker to rectify inappropriate or incorrect constructions in their utterances. In psycholinguistic research on L2 self-repair, learners’ self-repairs are analysed to investigate the monitoring processes involved in the production of self-repairs and the underlying cognitive mechanisms (Kormos, 2006). The description of the monitoring processes and cognitive mechanisms are mostly based on Levelt’s (1989) speech production model that was originally built to capture L1 speech production. Therefore, one salient feature of the research on L2 self-repair from the psycholinguistic perspective is its dependence on and extension of L1 self-repair research. This has resulted in a few problems of L2 self-repair classification systems. First, some of the learner-specific self-repair types established in L2 self-repair taxonomies cannot find their root causes in L1 speech production model. Second, by using L1 self-repair research as a starting point, researchers have overlooked the unique identity of L2 learners - that their understanding of “correctness” and “appropriacy”, the two main causes of self-repair identified in past literature, might be different from L1 speakers’. Further, as learners, their speech context (e.g., school) might have a role to play in shaping their self-repair behaviour. Prior research on L2 self-repair has not addressed these problems.

This present study aims to fill this lacuna, by analysing speech data from learner-learner talk to describe how self-repair can be identified and classified in a comprehensive and systematic manner. Classification of self-repair in this study does not follow previous systems of classification (e.g., van Hest, 1996; Kormos, 1998). It is built upon analysis of each individual case of self-repair yielded from the transcription of the recorded data. The different categories of self-repair will be defined and portrayed based on the characteristics of the self-repair utterances identified to cluster within them. While describing the system of classification I have developed for my own project, I also, where relevant, draw critical comparisons with taxonomies used in prior studies in the repair literature. Under each category, examples from the data will be provided, followed by the speaker’s stimulated-recall comments that contain evidence in support of its categorisation.

II. PREVIOUS CLASSIFICATIONS OF L2 SELF-REPAIR

Self-repair is treated as the overt manifestation of self-monitoring - a component of the complete speech production system in the psycholinguistic perspective. Specifically, monitoring is a mechanism through which a speaker inspects their own speech (Hartsuiker & Kolk, 2001), checks the correctness of their production in terms of grammatical rules and the appropriacy with reference to the context in which the language is used (Oomen & Postma, 2001). Psycholinguistic researchers, thus, investigate the monitoring mechanism and attempt to provide insights into the different dimensions and stages of speech production. To reflect the language production system more closely, and to be
more indicative of the functioning of the monitor, psycholinguists (Levelt, 1983; Kormos, 1998; van Hest, 1996) have worked on building classifications of self-repair.

A. Problematising Self-repair Taxonomy Which Was Based on Psycholinguistic Model of Speech Production

On the basis of Levelt’s (1983, 1989, 1993) speech production model, which is the most widely-adopted theory in self-repair studies, and depending on existing taxonomies of self-repair (Brédart, 1991; Levelt, 1983), Kormos (1998, 2006) identified instances of self-repair from recorded dialogue between L2 learners and herself, and distinguished between four main types of self-repair (see Table 1). Psycholinguistic researchers tried to attribute each main type of self-repair to a certain mechanism in the speech production model, and reveal the root causes in speech production that could lead to the occurrences of self-repair.

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<tr>
<th>Main classes of self-repairs</th>
<th>Sub-types of self-repairs</th>
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<td>Different-information repair</td>
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<td>Inappropriate information repair</td>
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In Kormos’s (1998) taxonomy, the first type of L2 self-repair - different information repair (D-repair), is a self-correction which modifies the content of the preverbal plan. In executing the second type of repair – appropriacy repair (A-repair), a speaker makes a correction to previously produced (1) inaccurate, (2) ambiguous, (3) incoherent or (4) pragmatically inappropriate language (Kormos, 1998, p.53). Based on the findings from L1 self-repair and monitoring, she argued that both D-repair and A-repair were due to errors in the conceptualising phase of speech production processes. The third type of repair – error repair (E-repair), is executed to attend to wrong linguistic items not in the conceptualiser, but in the formulator, during the course of message formulation. The last type of repair, Rephrasing repair (R-repair), is a repair type established by Kormos (1998) that reflects L2 speakers’ incomplete knowledge of the target language. Though Kormos (1998) refined and modified Levelt’s (1983) taxonomy of L1 self-repair to accommodate L2 learners’ self-repairs and identified a learner-specific type of repair – R-repair, she did not pinpoint any specific mechanism underlying this R-repair. Therefore, whether this learner-specific type of repair is compatible with the native-speaker based speech production model remains a question.

Viewing self-repair as evidence of the mechanism of speech production, psycholinguistic researchers account for all self-repairs as products of an individual’s language production system which is only relevant to the individual speaker’s language ability (Kazemi, 2006), thus ignoring the interactional and contextual factors that can also affect self-repair behaviour. They have failed to take into account the nature of interaction in a learning environment, and only see the problems that can lead to self-repairs from the perspective of the speaker, not the other participant(s) in their learning environment.

Also, it is worth noting that, within this classification, the first three types can be identified in answer to a “why” question: why is a self-repair conducted. This can be due to a need to deliver different information, to alter inappropriate use of language, or erroneous productions. On the other hand, the fourth type of self-repair identified by Kormos, rephrasing repair, can be accounted for in answer to a “how” question: how is the uttered speech manipulated to produce a repair. Considering the inconsistency in the classification in Kormos’s (1998) taxonomy, I find it necessary to examine other L2 self-repair classification systems for more information.

B. Problematising Other L2 Self-repair Classification System

major categories: phonological repair, morphological/lexical repair, syntactic repair, context-oriented repair and information structuring repair. These five major categories of self-repair were primarily based on a “what” question: what domain of language is the repair focused on. Further, Kazemi (2006, 2011) identified five subcategories within each major category: inserting, deleting, reordering, replacing and abandoning. These five subcategories were termed “manner of repair” (Kazemi, 2006, p. 92). They are similar to the label of “rephrasing repair” in Kormos’s (1998) taxonomy, all addressing a “how” question: how is a self-repair carried out.

However, some inconsistency exists in the case of context-oriented repair. Unlike the other four major types of repair that point to the domain of language where self-repair can take place, its label suggests the cause of trouble for repair - the context. Defined as “changes brought about by the demand of the context in which speech takes place” (Kazemi, 2011, p. 98), this type of context-oriented repair does not specify the component of utterance it targets, and could overlap with the information structuring repair, both of which can involve changes at the message level.

C. Formulation of Research Questions

Drawing on both Kormos’s (1998, 1999a, 1999b) and Kazemi’s (2006, 2011) findings and their respective problems, we can learn that, to build a reliable and comprehensive system of self-repair classification, the issues of “why”, “what”, and “how”, need to be taken into account. No taxonomy in existing repair studies was found to meet this requirement. At the same time, some of the definitions and criteria of identification of these three aspects were confusing.

Therefore, two research questions were formulated:

1. What are the main features of the self-repair behaviour of the L2 students?

This research question has a primarily descriptive aim, which is to scrutinise the self-repairs identified from the learners’ L2 discourse, and to address the issues of how self-repairs lead to change(s) in certain domains of language.

2. How do the students justify their use of self-repair, and how can their comments enable a comprehensive understanding of L2 self-repair?

This question mainly concerns why self-repair is carried out. This question incorporates evidence from the learners’ retrospective comments to explain the motivating factors for their use of self-repair. The problems that motivate students’ self-repair behaviour will be identified and categorised.

III. MATERIAL AND METHODS

A. Research Contexts and Participants

This study was part of a larger study that took place in two high schools in southern China. At each school, six students of similar level of proficiency in English were recommended by their English teachers to participate in my study. The 12 participants were all first-year senior high school students, and had learned English for about eight years. When participating in this study, they paired up with their usual partners from their English classes. The participants are all anonymised in this study.

B. Task as Data Collection Instrument

The prior use of task shows that it can be a successful device to elicit spontaneous self-repairs from speakers. Kormos (1998, 1999a, 1999b) collected her data from task-based conversations between English learners and herself, who was a fluent speaker of English. In Kazemi’s (2006, 2011) study, the learners’ speech was recorded when they made presentations, which were monologues. None of them examined evidence of learner-learner talk, which could contain more problems that prompted learners to repair themselves. Four pair-work tasks were chosen as data collection instruments in this study. The tasks were checked by the teachers who confirmed that the design and contents fell within their students’ competence. Students’ task performance was captured by audio recorders.

C. Stimulated-recall Interview: Transcripts and Recordings as Stimulus

With the recorded learner discourse in the tasks constituting the primary data for analysis, students’ own knowledge and perceptions of their cognitive processes were elicited through stimulated-recall interviews. The stimulated-recall interview method has been widely used in SLA research (Fincher, 2006) because 1) it enhances the vividness and accuracy of data through a stimulus, and 2) it examines the process of language use, rather than just language products (Gass & Mackey, 2000). In this study, it was adopted to incorporate the students’ own perceptions and interpretations of their self-repair behaviour for analysis.

In the two days following the students’ completion of the tasks, I conducted a stimulated-recall interview with each pair of students. Arguably, there are limitations in not conducting the stimulated-recall interview immediately after the tasks, and the students might not have been able to accurately recall and report information on their own actions. Simpson, Eisenchlas and Haugh (2013) were faced with the same problem in their study. They compensated for this limitation by asking the students to only comment on the cases of self-repair that they felt they could remember and discuss. Their approach was borrowed in this study.

Before the interview, I transcribed their task discourse and made a preliminary note of the instances of self-repair. In the stimulated-recall interviews, I played a segment of a recording, and paused if the speaker noticed a change in his/her
speech. This was usually featured by them giggling and repeating their speech in the recording. If the speaker did not notice his/her self-repair, I would replay and ask the speaker if I had heard and transcribed his/her speech correctly. My question, accompanied by the provision of a transcript, helped the students recall their thinking at the time of the task. After an instance of self-repair was identified, the student usually could, without prompts, start talking about the situation in which it had occurred and recall their thoughts at the time. Students’ contributions during the stimulated-recall interviews were recorded.

D. Data Analysis

Transcribing participants’ talk was the first step in data analysis. When the students’ task performance was being transcribed, CA transcription conventions (see Appendix A) were adapted for use to allow more detail to be included. For example, the length of pauses, discourse markers, changes in intonation and pronunciation, non-verbal expressions, like giggling, were all noted. In the next phase of transcribing the stimulated-recall interviews, as they were to be used for content analysis, only the content of speech in the interviews was transcribed.

Coding of self-repair started with the transcripts of students’ task discourse, supplemented by transcripts of stimulated-recall interviews. Analysis of the stimulated-recall interviews first went through a process of data reduction: learners’ comments on each instance of their self-repair were assigned to the transcription of task discourse in order to incorporate a personalised and contextual angle in understanding their use of self-repairs. The aim of this first cycle of reading and examining was open coding: “breaking data apart and delineating concepts to stand for blocks of raw data” (Corbin & Strauss, 2008, p. 195).

With reference to the questions of “what”, “how” and “why”, three tree nodes are involved in this system: change, strategy and motivation. In further iterations with data, I assigned free nodes (child nodes) to excerpts. Some of these nodes were adapted from previous self-repair literature (e.g., van Hest, 1996; Kormos, 2008). Some were in vivo nodes emerging from the students’ own comments, others were denoted by me. After all the identified cases of self-repair in the students’ task discourse were coded, all the child nodes under the three tree nodes were compared and contrasted to enable revision of their definitions and refining of the overall classification system.

IV. Classifying L2 Self-repair: Results and Discussion

As a self-repair occurs, the speaker’s language production alters, and the difference(s), or change(s), can be manifested in a certain domain of language. This is made possible by the application of a strategy to the speaker’s ongoing speech. The speaker uses a strategy to conduct a self-repair upon noticing a problem, which is the fundamental cause why the self-repair is conducted. Therefore, classifications of self-repair in this study are built according to a framework of three inter-related dimensions: change, strategy and motivation.

A. Changes Involved in Self-repairs

In past taxonomies (Levelt, 1983; van Hest, 1996; Kormos, 1998), researchers have delineated the different levels of language where self-repairs could occur, but only in the cases of error repairs. In this classification of self-repair, the change involved in a self-repair (i.e., at what level of language a self-repair occurs) is treated as an inseparable attribute of it. With an examination of all the cases of self-repair available in the data, the changes generated by self-repairs are found to occur in a number of aspects: (1) phonological, (2) lexical, (3) grammatical and (4) ideational.

1. Phonological change
   The speaker makes a self-repair that is reflected in a change of phoneme.
   (1) Helen: We are having an interview and (.) we are enthusiastic about (.) the project
       Maria: → I think it is con convinc ing.
   In the above example, Maria mistook the sound of /v/ for /f/ when she was trying to pronounce the word “convincing”, and therefore made a phonological repair to correct it.

2. Lexical change
   This refers to cases in which a self-repair shows itself as a change of a word or phrase, including both content words and function words.
   (2) Tyler: → Every year my sister feel very er exciting where when when er it comes to Halloween
   In example (2), Tyler used an incorrect word to begin an adverbial clause. He repaired it and resulted in a lexical change.

3. Grammatical change
   This means that the self-repair a speaker produces changes the case of a verb/noun, derivational morpheme, tense or aspect in his speech.
   (3) Noarh: → ok. It’s like every parents loves every parent loves their baby
   Here, Noarh was confused with whether “every” should be followed by a singular or plural noun form. In his second try, he repaired it, reflected in a grammatical change – from plural to singular.

4. Ideational change
   This describes self-repairs that are represented as changes of the informational content of the speaker’s speech. It can
be a complete change of the speaker’s preverbal plan (as in example 4), or just modification of the level of information without altering most of the content of the message (as in example 5).

(4) Helen: → um **is there a plate that is er near er NO. is there a cup near the plate has nothing?**

Retrospection: **cuz I think we just talked about the plate so I want to change it to the cup.**

In example 4, Helen made an ideational self-repair and changed her idea of what to express completely – by moving the subject of discussion from the plate to the cup.

(5) Nancy: → I can’t stay with the people (.) **stupid (. more stupid than me** because I will always make fun of them

Retrospection: **because I was trying to say that people more stupid than me not just people stupid**

Nancy introduced a comparative of the adjective, “stupid”, to alter the level of information delivered in her message. Though it does not change the whole content, it can still be considered as a change of information.

**B. Self-repair Strategies**

Strategy is another facet of self-repair production. It describes how the speaker makes alterations to the problematic segment of speech, turns it into trouble-free language, and resolves the problem. The participants mainly used six strategies to conduct self-repairs in this study, namely, (1) deleting, (2) inserting, (3) replacing, (4) rephrasing, (5) recycling and (6) restarting. They will be detailed in the following.

1. Deleting

By applying the deleting strategy, the speaker removes a part of his uttered speech, without replacing it with an alternative. This is done by repeating the utterance with the deleted part missing.

(6) Tobin: → she screamed help but Tyler was not at home. Em she took a taxi to em to the hospital immediately but there was a traffic jam. It took her half an hour and eventually when she er she reached the hospital and luckily er her baby was born (.) safely. **at this point finally FINALLY** Tyler appeared em.

Retrospection: **I changed it to “finally” because I was going to say that “Tyler FINALLY” but I find it inappropriate to put it with “at this point” because “at this point finally” seems ummm:**

In example (6), Tobin was describing an imagined incident of Tyler’s girlfriend. First, he attempted to use “at this point finally” to bring the story to its end, but very quickly, he repeated “finally”, and this time, it was stressed. The stressed sound with the second “finally” can be seen as a symbol of the speaker restarting the sentence, retaining the use of “finally” and abandoning the previous head of sentence, “at this point”. The speaker’s retrospective comments also provide a clue that he changed “at this point finally” to “finally”, therefore, employing the deletion technique by removing “at this point”.

2. Inserting

This describes the strategy that a speaker adds a new bit of language to connect with the remaining part of speech and supplement the original meaning.

(7) Celia: → so I think why don’t you choose (.) good health? It’s **I think it’s** so important

Retrospection: **emmm I think it’s an individual:: emmm:: (RE: opinion?) yeah. ‘And does not represent other people’**

(8) Maria: → lady gaga is wearing normal clothes so I feel very (.) you said what?  

Helen: Surprise  

Maria: → so I didn’t feel very **surprise-ED**

Retrospection: **(I think it’s a mistake:)**

(7) is an example of the speaker inserting a small phrase, “I think”, to her original message. In this case, she did it to express her idea more accurately.

The inserting strategy has also been discussed in previous self-repair research. Van Hest (1996) created a category of “Appropriacy insertion repair” which he described as instances where “the speaker inserts one or more words to specify his message”. Example (7) can fall into this category. However, van Hest (1996)”s classification and description has its limitations because (a) he limits the units that a speaker can insert to word(s), and (b) he limits the use of this strategy, inserting, to the purpose of a more precise message. Inserting can also work with units other than word(s) for other purposes. In example (8), Maria inserted a derivational morpheme to the word she just said - “surprise”, to turn it into an adjective, for consideration of correctness.

3. Replacing

With this strategy, the speaker uses a substitute to replace an unwanted part of language in speech. The replacement is used to perform the role of the replaced part. In Schegloff’s (2013, p. 43) language, the speaker conducts the replacing strategy while “retaining the sense that this is the same utterance”.

(9) Chris: → **em the man the man on the left er with a with the sunglass oh with the**
glasses

Retrospection:  *because it was wrong. Not sunglasses*

Chris replaced “sunglass” with “glasses” because he realized that “sunglass” was wrong and switched to a correct word.

In Van Hest’s (1996) and Kormos’s (1998) accounts, replacing was used by speakers to deal with nearly all kinds of concerns, as manifested in nearly all types of self-repair they described. Exceptions were van Hest’s (1996) “appropriacy insertion repair” and Kormos’s (1998) rephrasing repair that dealt with resource problems. In this paper, replacing is found to be employed by speakers to manage an even wider range of problems than they have reported.

(10) Irene:  Is there a va/ei/se in front of the window
Noah:  Is there a what?
Irene:  → A va/ei/se. a VA/a:/SE (.). a va/a/se. Do you know a vase?
Retrospection:  Cuz I think British people is like they always say “va/a/se” but Americans say “va/ei/se” so I think this is a bit different and maybe he didn’t understand what is “vase” so I change it to “va/a/se”

Here, Irene replaced the pronunciation of the vowel in “vase”, /ei/, with /a:/ . She made this replacement of a phoneme out of consideration for her partner’s comprehension. Here, “replacing strategy” was applied to facilitate communication.

4. Rephrasing

This refers to the strategy that a part of a speaker’s speech, be it completed or in progress, is formulated in a different way, while its intended meaning remains unchanged.

(11) Nancy:  My dad gots a lot of (. ) how to say s:: (. ) lots of problems with his health and:: because he is over 50 now and more. he is (. ) but sometimes he acts or behaves like a 70s or maybe 60s and my mum finds it really annoying
Retrospection:  I was trying to say the word but I can’t find the word to complete the sentence so I change it

In example (11), Nancy tried to look for an adjective to describe the condition of her father, reflected by her retrospective comments and indicated by the pause after “he is”. With the lexicon search unsuccessful, she resorted to the rephrasing strategy, to describe how her father looked.

Rephrasing repair, according to Kormos (1998, p. 63) is “revision of the preverbal plan by adding something or using paraphrase, because of uncertainty about its correctness, without changing the content of the original message”. In her definition, she specified the form of a rephrasing repair – adding or paraphrasing, and the situations where rephrasing repairs would be used – when concerns for inadequate L2 resources arose. Though this is often the case, with (11) being an example, I find that speakers in this study also apply the rephrasing strategy in other contexts for other concerns. Example (12) will illustrate this.

(12) Maria:  → the second one I think it’s (. ) it should goes to a good listener
Helen:  yah.
Maria:  because * is very important in our daily life.
Retrospection:  Erh first I want to say “I think it’s good manner” and then I change my way to express myself (RE: even if there’s no problem with the previous one?) yes (RE: so what made you change that?) emm::::::: (RE: for good language) yeah!

In example (12), Maria paraphrased herself when she was trying to explain the choice she made in a discussion with her partner. Her use of the rephrasing strategy was not prompted by a linguistic problem. In the retrospective interview, when she could not find the right words to describe why she rephrased it, I suggested that it was for good language, because I felt that “it goes to” was a more sophisticated way of expressing it, and she confirmed my suggestion. This shows that the rephrasing strategy can be used to cope with problems besides limited resource in the target language.

5. Recycling

This is the strategy a speaker applies when he attends to a problem by shifting parts of his speech cyclically for the same purpose.

(13) Tobin:  one day Cathy felt a a extreme stomachache er (. ) the the stomachache was long-lasting and so she searched on the internet for for the reason finally

→ eventually she concluded eventually she made a conclusion she concluded that em her she’s got pregnant. ((both laughed)) and:: she she screamed help but Tommy was not at home ((laughing))
Retrospection:  I think she “eventually concluded” is not appropriate so I changed it again and made it “she made a conclusion” and I find it hard hard* and changed back to she concluded

In example (13), Tobin had the problem that he could not discriminate between “finally” and “eventually”, “concluded” and “made a conclusion”. His way of confronting the problem was to recycle all the possible collocations he could think of to arrive at a better option for saying it.
6. Restarting

This strategy describes how a speaker makes a conscious decision to produce his/her speech again. As a strategy, it differs from replacing in which a speaker rejects an element or elements of his speech, because of a problem with the replaced part of language, and substitutes it with a replacement to express the same meaning. With this strategy, the speaker restarts from the beginning, changes the meaning of his previous speech while keeping some elements of language unchanged.

(14) Tobin: one day Cathy felt a a extreme stomachache er (.) the the stomachache was long-lasting and so she searched on the internet for for the reason finally eventually she made a conclusion she concluded that em her she's got pregnant. ((both laughed)) and:. she she screamed help but tommy was not at home ((laughing)) let me do it again. Em em

Cathy was pregnant and hahah one day she felt a discomfort in her stomach. So she researched on the internet for the reason. Suddenly. Suddenly em she got a severe stomachache. So she concluded that she her baby is coming out.

Retrospection: because I was trying to say that erh erh she's got pregnant for for about eight months like that. Because I thought that if she's just got pregnant she didn't have to rush the hospital and therefore she won't erh later the traffic jam. And she didn't need to scream help.

Above is an example of the restarting strategy employed by a speaker who started his story again to make the story line right. What prompted him to use this strategy was not a problem that could be explicitly identified in his uttered speech, nor one that could be treated with actions towards particular elements of language. It was a problem with the discourse and its embedded logic, therefore, the speaker self-repaired by restarting his utterance.

C. Motivations for Self-repairs

Participants’ self-repairs are motivated by 10 types of problems and concerns, including (1) resource; (2) planning; (3) correctness; (4) coherence; (5) preciseness; (6) appropriateness; (7) communication; (8) good language; (9) context; (10) others. In the following, they will be detailed with definitions and illustrated examples from the data.

1. Resource

This refers to problems caused by a speaker’s limited resource of the target language. The problems can be due to the speaker lacking the knowledge to produce a word or a string of words (as in example 15), or feeling uncertain about the success of the planned or uttered speech (as in example 16).

(15) Helen: → Sheldon is a scientist and I think he is a (.) he is always annoying his roommates.

Retrospection: I don't know the adjective of annoy so I say annoy is better.

Above is an example of a resource problem in that the speaker did not know a certain lexical item and, therefore, had difficulties delivering the planned message. Helen wanted to describe Sheldon as an annoying scientist. However, the adjective of ‘annoy’, ‘annoying’, was not within her repertoire. With the problem pending, she abandoned the uncompleted half of the sentence and reattempted to construct the sentence with the verb form of ‘annoy’ in its present continuous tense, which expressed the meaning she intended.

(16) Renee: What colour of the cups or the bottle on the desk?

Nancy: → two black ones (.) and the cups they have (.) or they are exactly the same.

Retrospection: I wanted to say “same pattern” but I am not sure “pattern” is the proper word here so I think maybe I can say it in another sentence.

Example (16) shows another case of resource problem. The speaker was unsure whether the planned expression, “have the same pattern”, would be proper. Consequently, Nancy paraphrased her meaning by saying “they are exactly the same”.

Kormos’s (1998) rationale for “rephrasing repair” is similar to the resource problem in that it acknowledges that in some cases L2 speakers are unsure of the accuracy of their utterances due to limited L2 competence. However, it is different from the resource-motivation class of repair because of their different angles of classifying self-repairs: the classification of “resource-motivation” focuses exclusively on the motivating factor of a self-repair while “rephrasing repair” describes a self-repair from all angles (i.e., features that have been be discussed earlier in this paper: strategy and change).

2. Planning

My application of the term “plan” draws on van Hest’s (1996) concept of “conceptual plan” in relation to speech. He reported that wrong conceptual plans could result in self-repairs, in which case, “speakers selected the correct words for the concepts they wanted to express but that those conceptual plans turned out to be wrong” (1996, p. 41).

In my discussion of planning, I focus on two interrelated concepts: a wrongly conceptualised plan and inadequate planning. In the case of a wrong conceptual plan, speakers start speaking with a wrong idea. Though they have chosen the correct words to represent their idea, they have to amend their idea upon realisation that it is not right. Their
amendment of the idea takes the form of self-repair. In the case of inadequate planning, as in the example below, there are times when speakers have not figured out what exactly to express before they speak and develop their plan in the course of speaking. The development of a plan can interfere with his/her speaking process, which results in self-repairs.

(17) Robot: → my friend told me a er my friend had a had a (.) my friend traveled to another country, and when he came back he described he described about er he described his journey.

Retrospection: (.没想清楚就说了:) (I haven’t thought it through when I said it)

Example (17) shows that the speaker did not have a clear idea or plan of what he wanted to say when he began to speak, and needed to repair his speech as he developed his idea.

3. Correctness

This describes problems of language that the speaker considers incorrect. The standards by which an L2 speaker’s oral production is judged are not exactly the linguistic rules of the target language. As learners, their knowledge of the L2 is under development, and some of the rules of L2 use that they have built are defective. Therefore, what they decide to correct are utterances that violate the speakers’ perceived rules of correctness (as in example 19), not necessarily the actual rules of the language.

(18) Renee: then um (.) and the marriage if your if you have different VERY different backgrounds that means that your relationship may be unequal (.)

Retrospection: adverb and adjective

In example (18), Renee wrongly connected an adverb to the linking verb. Upon realising the problem, she paused briefly, and replaced the wrong word with a correct one.

(19) Meryl: suddenly she found a mobile phone under the tree and she run towards it and picked it up. to her surprise the mobile phone worked. so she tried to er

→ connect out of er outside but at last she failed

In example (19), Meryl was trying to describe a woman who got lost in a forest and found a mobile phone and tried to contact the outside world. To express this, she used “connect out of” in the first place. Her hesitation immediately after that and the following change of “out of” to “outside” evidenced her realisation that the previous use of “connect out of” was not right, and her attempts to repair the problem. Though the result of this, “connect outside”, was not a fully correct expression with regard to the English language, it qualifies as a “self-repair” because it was what the L2 speaker resorted to when she confronted a problem, and represents the learner’s current notion of correctness within her available L2 resources.

In prior analyses and categorisations of self-repair, the problem of incorrectness is the most frequently cited reason for the occurrences of self-repair. Examples are the category of error repair (E-repair) in both van Hest’s (1996) and Kormos’s (1998) systems of classification. Kormos (1998) contended that L2 speakers used E-repair to correct phonological, lexical and grammatical errors. Van Hest (1996) reported that speakers attended to phonological, morphological, lexical, tense/aspect, syntactic and conceptual errors with E-repairs. In this current classification, the “correctness-motivation” category includes all the types of problems identified by van Hest (1996) and Kormos (1998) as leading to E-repairs, except for the problem of conceptual errors, which falls under the “planning-motivation” category instead. Apart from this, the correctness-motivation category differs from the E-repair category as it is broader and includes self-repairs that L2 speakers conduct to meet their perceived standards of correctness, which are not always of native speaker standards.

4. Coherence

This refers to problems of incoherent uttered speech. In communication, an L2 speaker attends to what he himself has said, what he will say, and what the other party in the conversation has talked about. When they feel that what they are saying is or risks seeming inconsistent or illogical in relation to what is said before and after, they make a repair motivated by a concern for coherence.

(20) Tobin: and:: they’re:: wa* (.) about five cups? And a teapot

Tyler: → =yah. The old lady was er was you know pouring the water tea

Retrospection: because he said it’s a tea pot

The context in example (20) is that Tobin and Tyler were describing two very similar photos. Following his partner’s description of the teapot in his picture, Tyler carried on to talk about what an old lady was doing with the teapot in his picture. He made a self-repair by replacing “water” with “tea” because he felt that there was a problem of incoherence if “water” was poured from a “teapot”.

Under the heading of “appropriacy repair” (A-repair) in Kormos’s (1998) classification, there is a type of coherent terminology repair, which refers to self-repairs that a speaker carries out in order to correct incoherent choice of terminology. This is not the same as the “coherence-motivation” classification discussed here. In the data set of this paper, with respect to coherence, it is found that speakers are not only concerned about what terminology they use, but also the broader discourse, produced from both parties in a conversation, as shown in the example above.

5. Preciseness

This category refers to situations where the speaker judges that his language is not accurate, detailed, or specific
enough, and makes alterations to his language to be more exactly and sharply stated.

(21) Chris: What did the cups look like?
Robin: three big cups was er (.) three big black cups and some (.) some pictures.
→ Maybe paintings
Retrospection: maybe using the word “picture” is not suitable emm:: pictures. “Picture” is just like em a photograph or some emm::: haha. Painting may be erh erh more suitable for this

Above is an example of a self-repair produced to achieve preciseness. Robin opted for “painting” because he wanted to describe a painted picture and he felt that “picture” could imply that it was a photograph, and therefore, not conveying his exact meaning.

Problems of not-precise-enough language that could lead to self-repairs were discussed by van Hest (1996) and Kormos (1998). Van Hest (1996) talked about it only at the lexical level (termed as “appropriate lexical repair”), while Kormos (1998) only saw it happening at the ideational level where “the speaker decides to provide further details when the original message has not been precise enough” (termed as “appropriate level of information repair”) (1998, p. 55). In this current system of classification, problems that lead to both “appropriate lexical repair” (van Hest, 1996) and “appropriate level of information repair” (Kormos, 1998) are both grouped under the preciseness-motivation class.

6. Appropriateness
This refers to the speakers’ concerns for more proper language with regard to the situation referred to in their talk. When they speak, they sometimes feel that the word(s) they use have too strong emotional connotations and they would change for another one that can fit with the situation more appropriately.

(22) Noarh: I prefer advisor to listener
Irene: oh. Ok. (.) why?
Noarh: because if someone can only listen to you and say yes or I agree that’s kind
→ of useless helpless
Retrospection: because “useless” “useless” is like em too hard for the situation (RE: too harsh to describe a person?) yes

The “appropriateness-motivation” category is different from the category of A-repair included in all the past taxonomies of self-repair (Levitt, 1983; Brédart, 1991; van Hest, 1996; Kormos, 1998). In the above-mentioned systems, the standard against which “inappropriateness” was measured was not defined clearly. In the sub-categories of A-repair in these past taxonomies, only “pragmatic inappropriateness repair” (Brédart, 1991; Kormos, 1998) (self-repair utterances produced by speakers to rectify problems of language that is pragmatically unacceptable regarding the context of reference) is found to reveal some similarities with the “appropriateness-motivation” category in the current classification of self-repair.

7. Communication
This refers to the problems that a speaker feels hinder successful communication between himself and the interlocutor. This includes a speaker’s worries that his uttered speech is confusing and might impede his interlocutor’s comprehension. When there is no problem of misunderstanding or confusion, a speaker can also be motivated to conduct a self-repair if he believes that it can create more efficient communication and better cooperation between himself and the interlocutor.

(23) Celia: Popular too popular will maybe will attract others’ attention. I just think about it. So I think maybe familiar is enough. so::: what do you what’s your reason?
→ Retrospection: em what do you think about it. But I but I if I just say “what do you think about it” maybe my partner will just express her opinion. But “what’s your reason” is more directly

Example (23) shows an example of a speaker self-repairing for more effective communication. Celia was debating with her partner if being popular with friends and family was a necessary criterion for an ideal partner. After expressing her point of view, she invited her partner to give an opinion. While there was nothing wrong with her plan to say “what do you think”, she worried that it might not be effective enough to elicit a developed argument from her partner, and, therefore, abandoned the initial question and produced a modified version. This type of self-repair is strong indication that self-repairs of L2 learners are not merely problems of their language production mechanisms, but also considerations of their communicative context and interlocutors.

8. Good language
The name and definition of this class of self-repair motivation is borrowed from Brédart (1991) and Kormos (1998). Brédart (1991) created the group of repair for “good language”, but, in defining what language this particular type of repair is applied to, he did not distinguish between pragmatic errors and pragmatically acceptable language. Kormos (1998) made a distinction between these two and further explained the criterion of “repair for good language” as instances in which “the speaker judges to be not sophisticated enough according to his/her standard of eloquence” (1998, p. 58). Kormos’s development of the definition “good language” was used in my study to categorise instances such as in the following example.
(24) Meryl:
so my mum said it’s important to choose the one who owns the same habits er with you and you can talk have more topics to talk about and so I think the same hobby is very important

Retrospection: I want to say “you can talk more about this one” and I choose er “have more topics”. Because I think the er expression is better

Example (24) shows how a speaker conducts a self-repair out of consideration for good language. Meryl abandoned her previous plan to say “talk more about this one”, though it was error-free, and substituted it with “have more topics to talk about” for she felt that the latter expression represented her idea better.

9. Context
This refers to contextual issues that prompt a speaker to modify his/her uttered speech. These context issues are embedded in the most relevant context of the speaker: for example, task requirements or task goal. Sometimes it is not until the middle of a speaker’s speech that he/she realises or remembers that there is a need to adjust his/her language to attend to one or more context-relevant issues.

(25) Irene: →
I’m full of pressure when I .(.) when I did my homework yesterday (.). oh when I did yesterday’s homework

Retrospection: because the object I mean the object on this paper is “yesterday’s homework” but I said “homework yesterday”. I just want to say the same thing in the paper

In the context of example (25), the task requirement was to make sentences with expressions given, one of which being “yesterday’s homework”. There was no problem with Irene’s utterance, but she modified it when she realised that what she said did not correspond exactly to what was on the task sheet. Therefore, she repaired it by slightly changing her language to conform to the task.

This context-motivation category is similar to the category of context-oriented repair in Kazemi’s (2011) study, which is repair conducted to attend to the demand of the context where the speech takes place. Both these two classes of self-repair are characterised by (1) the nonexistence of error, and (2) no change or very slight change of meaning. This type of self-repair shows that when learners conduct self-repairs, the problems they intend to address are not restricted to themselves.

10. Others
This includes problems that motivate the occurrences of self-repair but cannot fit into the above categories.

V. Conclusion
This paper provides a detailed rationale for the categorisation of identified L2 self-repair in this study. What constitutes the description and the classification of a self-repair are the three inter-related characteristics: change – in what domain of language a self-repair makes alteration(s); strategy – how a self-repair changes a speaker’s speech and performs its “repair” function; motivation – what prompts a speaker to self-repair. These three dimensions, and the sub-categories they subsume, form a three-dimensional classification system of self-repair. This classification system shows that the range of sources of prompt for L2 self-repair behaviour is not restricted to an individual’s speech production problems. When repairing themselves, L2 speakers also show concerns for interactional and contextual issues, such as their interlocutors and the task demand. The strength of this categorisation system is that it is data-driven – developed on the basis of the participants’ productions of self-repair. How different categories could be defined and delineated was also enabled by the participants’ own comments on their self-repairs. Therefore, this self-repair classification system can capture the self-repair data in this study adequately and suit the further analytical needs of future self-repair studies.
APPENDIX A. TRANSCRIPTION NOTATION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>THEY</th>
<th>Words in capitals indicate speaker emphasis.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>()</td>
<td>a short pause (less than 1 second)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(+)</td>
<td>1-2 sec long pause</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(++)</td>
<td>Pause longer than 2 seconds</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>=</td>
<td>Continuous utterances: when there is no interval between adjacent utterances, the second being latched immediately to the first (without overlapping it), the utterances are linked together with equal signs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>//</td>
<td>Overlapping speeches of two speakers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>((</td>
<td>A description enclosed in a double bracket indicates a non-verbal activity. Alternatively, double brackets may enclose the transcriber's comments on contextual or other features.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>: well :)</td>
<td>It means the speaker says what is inside the brackets and colons with laughter or giggling.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>?</td>
<td>A question mark indicates a rising inflection. It does not necessarily indicate a question.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.</td>
<td>A full stop indicates a stopping fall in tone. It does not necessarily indicate the end of a sentence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>::</td>
<td>Colons indicate that the speaker has stretched the preceding sound or letter. The more colons the greater the extent of the stretching.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>!</td>
<td>Exclamation marks are used to indicate an animated or emphatic tone.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>' '</td>
<td>Apostrophes indicate that the particular segment of speech was said in a low voice.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>bold</strong></td>
<td>The bolded words mark sources of trouble and repairs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-&gt;</td>
<td>A line beginning with an arrow contains students' repair(s).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>***</td>
<td>Asterisks stand for the presence of an unclear fragment on the tape.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>italics</em></td>
<td>Students' retrospective comments are italicised.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RE</td>
<td>This is followed by questions or prompts made by the researcher.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(translations)</td>
<td>When the uttered speech is in Chinese, I provide the translations in the following brackets.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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REFERENCES


Simin Zeng obtained her PhD in Second Language Education from the University of Cambridge. She currently serves as Assistant Professor at the School of Humanities and Social Sciences, Harbin Institute of Technology, Shenzhen, China. She is interested in researching issues in second language education, in particular, in a sociocultural approach. Her work mainly examines the evidence of L2 learners’ self-regulation - their self-repairs, and seeks to explore pedagogical interventions that facilitate the growth of self-regulation from the perspective of dynamic assessment.
Poems: From Translating to Rewriting

Ping Lin
Shanghai International Studies University, Shanghai, China;
Sichuan International Studies University, Chongqing, China

Abstract—The presupposition of meaning determines that the history of translation in China and the West is actually a history of transformation of meaning. Under the impact of deconstructionism and postmodernism, however, meaning changes from fixed to indeterminate, and the author and his subjectivity as the incarnation of reason and humanism are no longer deemed as valid. The “death of the author” fundamentally deconstructs the “inspiration theory” of the origin of poetry. With the questioning of the author’s original intention and the inherent characteristics of poetic language, the translation of poetry eventually lead to a path of rewriting.

Index Terms—metaphysics, meaning, uncertainty, death of the author, rewriting

On the methods of translating of poems, opinions differ. In accordance with the metaphysical way of thinking in the Chinese and Western philosophies, this article holds that the presupposition of meaning determines that the Chinese and Western history of translation is the history of translating meaning. Under the influence of deconstructionism and postmodernism, meaning has undergone the change from determinacy to indeterminacy; the author, long regarded as the incarnation of rationalism and humanism, and the authorial subjectivity as well, has been deconstructed to null; the death of the author deconstructs and overturns the “Afflatus Theory of Poems Translation” and the “Chinese Poetic Intention Theory” as far as the origin and heritage of poetry are concerned; the loss and deconstruction of the author’s original intention, the indeterminacy of meaning and the metaphorical language of poetry fail the attempt to translate poetry, hence poetry can only be rewritten.

I. THE PRESUPPOSITION OF MEANING

The Western translation history, dating back to the very prosperity of the Septuagint and up to the modern age when translation theories witness their peak time of diversity, demonstrates itself, without any exaggeration, as the evolution of meaning translating. A good translation, or otherwise a bad one, is subject to the degree of fidelity to which the meaning of the SL text is rendered into the target language. The Chinese translation history, in the true sense, is by no means any exception. Meaning is also the first consideration through the ages. This can be easily proved if one simply has a look at the Chinese history of translation theories at all.

The primary importance of meaning in the Chinese history of translation can be easily demonstrated given a brief review of the history itself. The “Five Loses and Three Difficulties” advocated by the Buddhist translator Dao An (314-385) in East Jin (317-420) Dynasty, the faithfulness to the semantic, phonemic, grammatical and stylistic meanings advocated by Monk Xuan Zhuang (600-664) in the Tang Dynasty (618-907), the “3-character criteria by Yan Fu” (1854-1921) in the Qing Dynasty (1644-1911), and the “Transmigration Criterion” (hua in Chinese) by the great man of letter Qian Zhongshu (1910-1998), all emphasize the faithfulness in the rendering of meaning. No wonder that Eugene A. Nida says “translation consists in reproducing in the receptor language the closest natural equivalent of the source-language message, first in terms of meaning and secondly in terms of style,” and “Meaning must be given priority, for it is the content of the massage which is of prime importance.” (Nida & Taber, 1969, p.12-13) So it can be safely concluded that the history of translation, no matter in China or in the West at large, can never exist without the presence of meaning.

The presence of meaning and priority given to it in translation can find expression in the Western and Chinese philosophies and aesthetics. The Western philosophy, since Plato’s time, is run through by the metaphysics of being present. Philosophers will inevitably presuppose a final eternal presence, such as the presence of Supreme Being, Eternal Reason and Absolute Spirit, when discussing the world, beings, materials, consciousness and other philosophical issues. Only when such a presence is presupposed can the philosophers start thinking, observing the world, inducing and deducing, and making analysis. From such a presence, they will discuss the phenomena, abstract out the

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1 “Five Loses”, according to Dao An, refer to the loss of the original SL grammar, the loss of its simple language, the abolition of redundant Buddhist scriptures, the cancellation of redundant Buddhist moral admonitions and the leave-out of fixed Buddhist story-telling layout. “Three Difficulties” refer to those arising from the difference between the old customs and the new ones, the distance in the accessibility of Buddhist language between Buddha himself and the mortals, and the intrantraslatability of Buddhist terms.

2 Yan Fu’s 3-character criteria refer to faithfulness (in terms of meaning), elegance (in terms of language) and fluency (in terms of readability).

3 Transmigration, pronounces as “hua” in Chinese, is a metaphorical usage of artistic reproduction. It is used in the sense that the meaning in the SL text is so perfectly reproduced into the TL text that it resembles the transmigration of soul.
universals and find out the very essence of the world. Though failing to propose an Absolute Spirit or Eternal Reason, the Chinese philosophy, similarly, presupposes an eternal or presence called “Tao (way)”, as reiterated by Zhuang Tsu as saying, “The Tao (way) that can be named (spoken) is not the constant Tao (way); the name that can be named is not the constant name.” Tao and name, regarded as the symbol of “being present” in a certain sense, best reflect the regard that the Chinese people pay to the philosophical dichotomy of being present and absent, being and not being, right and wrong, and human and nature, etc. (Liu, 2001)

So far as translation is concerned, consequently, the Chinese and Western translation theories, as both are based upon the metaphysical way of thinking or logocentrism, define translation as the transference of meaning, message, or original intention from one language to another. Such a definition is obviously based on the presupposition that meaning, message or intention (in all as meaning, because the three are ultimately embodied by meaning) be present. It is in this sense that the American literary theorist, literary hermeneutical critic E. D. Hirsch claims that the development of Western philosophy and human studies lies in the pursuit and command of meaning in the true sense of the word. (Wang, 2001, p.251) Therefore, the ontology of translation can not be separated from the presence of meaning. If we have no doubt on this point, we can easily understand why Nida emphasizes the priority of meaning, i.e. “first in terms of meaning and secondly in terms of style”; why Yan Fu’s xin (faithfulness to meaning) dominates over ya (elegance of language) and da (fluency in terms of readability); why the famous Chinese translation theorist Zhi Qian in the East Han Dynasty (25-220) stresses that “all methods should serve for the clear translation of meaning”. (Chen, 1992, p.14)

The presupposition of meaning being present, so to speak, is the ontology and the very foundation for the grand mansion of traditional translation theories.

II. THE INDETERMINACY OF MEANING AND THE OVERTURN OF MEANING’S BEING PRESENT

Rationalism, the main stream of European culture and philosophy, comes to its first prime days at the Age of Reason (late 17th to 18th century, also called the Enlightenment Movement) after Plato and Aristotle. The advocates of enlightenment place their faith in human reason and human progress brought about by the gradual propagation of rational principles, trying to clear away ancient superstition, prejudice, dogma and injustice. Their encouragement of rational scientific inquiry and the preference of knowledge over ignorance are gradually put into a logical philosophical system by the great philosopher Georg Wilhelm Friedrich Hegel (1770-1831), and the typical metaphysical way of thinking --- the subject/object dichotomy --- becomes deep-rooted in the Western minds. It is thought that the objective world, or the objectivity of the world, is a Supreme Being and an Absolute Presence independent of human knowledge. Truth is obtained by people’s observance and reconstruction of the world’s objectivity; and the world is subject to knowledge, which is the objective reflection of the objective world; knowledge is of no boundary, so there is nothing that can not be known; the world is unified, so it can be completely known as long as the unified construction is found. The development of natural science and philosophy in the 20th century, however, give fatal blows to rationalism.

The first blow comes from the development of science and technology. In 1927, the famous quantitative mechanics scientist Henrik David Bohr (1885-1962) put forward his Indeterminacy Principle, and in 1931, an American mathematician put forward the Incomplete Theorem. The former shows that our knowledge is relative and not always absolutely right because indeterminacy arises in light, electronics and other micro fields, while the latter demonstrates that any “complete” system must be based on a greater incomplete system. The above two developments undermine the edifice of rationalism for they deny the rationalists’ statement that the world is a unified and complete system.

The second blow comes from the development of modern philosophy. Friedrich W. Nietzsche (1844-1900) declares that “God is dead and man, as the incarnation of the Almighty God, is also dead.” The non-rationalists’ statements about the limits of man turns over the rationalists’ foundation that man’s knowledge is of no boundaries.

The blows that rationalism receives from modern philosophy and the development of natural science help people to broaden their horizons. They come to know that the objective world, as long as it is treated as the object of knowledge, is not always objective. Sometimes it is the object of knowledge for subjective reflections. The involvement of subjectivity in science and truth casts shadow upon their objectivity.

As one of the embodiments of rationalism, human subjectivity, however, always goes along with language, with which the subject knows the object in the typical metaphysical system of subject/object dichotomy. It is thought that truth is obtained through language. Up to the 20th century, however, it is from Saussurean structuralist linguistics that the formalist critics split apart the unified relationship between the signifier and the signified, pointing out that language and meaning is indeterminate.

Hans Gadmer, one of the most outstanding figures of modern philosophical hermeneutics, says that “understanding is a conversation-like event which goes beyond subjectivity; it is a historical consciousness.” (Gadmer, 1998, p.19) Gadmer’s historical view implies that meaning varies with the change of time. He fully realizes that meaning’s changeability with the change of time and context. Hans Robert Jauss, founder of the reception aesthetics, holds that the interaction of one’s aesthetic expectancy of experience and the structure of behavior will inspire and encourage the reader to fill the “blanks” in texts and connect the “gap” therein, transcending the indeterminacy of meaning and producing new meanings. (Lù, 2000, p.53) Further explanations of meaning’s indeterminacy can be found in Jacques Derrida. The signifier and signified, Derrida argues, is not so unified as the two sides of a coin. The appearance of a signifier does not mean that the signified is present, and its presence is deferred. In terms of space, one sign is always
subject to the limit of other signs, so a sign is not always unified. In this sense, the meaning of one sign is also determined by other signs, so meaning is so indeterminate that it can only be determined by the context where it occurs. In terms of time, the presence of the signified is often delayed by the signifier, so there is no determinate meaning. (Liao, 2000, p. 76) The relationship between the signifier and the signified is further split by his coinage of the word “difference”. “In any signifying system,” he says, “meaning is the result of numerous choices available. As the mystery of meaning’s being present is broken, the unified direction of a sign is thus differed; it is cast away to all directions like the seeds. In this sense, text is not a unified and determinate structure any longer, but a far more complicated and wider world of deconstruction.” (Lu, 2000, p. 30) Thus, the determinate and unified relationship between the signifier and the signified, langue and parole, is deconstructed; language is not a self-sufficient system. Instead, the former determinate relationship becomes indeterminate, vague, opaque, metaphorical and obscure. The indeterminacy of meaning results in the deconstruction of the authorial subjectivity and the death of the author.

### III. The Death of the Author

The 20th century is a tumultuous one in which the development of modern philosophy (especially that of non-rationalist philosophy) and natural science brought forth an unprecedented revolution to rationalism and humanism. Naturally, the author, as the incarnation of genius and reason, falls victim to the revolution. Regarded as an objective being, Man is the strongest and firmest human fort in the Western literary heritage and metaphysical tradition since Plato’s time. As meaning becomes indeterminate under the attack of literary criticism and the Western formalist literary theory, the author, which is long regarded as the incarnation of reason and subject in humanism, undermines its authoritative status. At the end of the 19th century Nietzsche’s declaration that “God is dead!” marks the end of the human and rationalist heritage, and in 1960, Roland Barthes declared the author is dead. The death of the author denies the author and the authorial creation, deconstructing the author as being present from the theoretical angle. (Huang, 1997, p. 55).

Writing deconstructs meaning, and at the same time, it produces meaning. The monopoly of meaning and the limitation brought forth by man is shattered into pieces; the very essence of writing is to “weave” a network of the pluralities of meaning. It is by no means an ultimate activity but a revolution and emancipation of the monopoly of meaning. It is in this sense that Roland Barthes proclaims that the author is dead. Here the author is not only the subject of writing activity but also the subject that monopolizes meaning. In his further clarification, Barthes further classifies writing into two groups: transitive and intransitive. Transitive writing treats writing as an implement through which the reader is led from the text out into another world. Intransitive writing, however, is for writing’s own sake, and it leads the reader to the revelation of signs and language and the network where meaning is produced for pluralities. It is writing in the true sense. Meanwhile, texts can also be divided into two groups: legible texts and scriptable texts. The former refers to classical texts while the latter refers to modern texts. The difference of texts results in the difference of readers. In legible texts, the reader is a passive consumer. In scriptable texts, however, the reader is the producer that is destined to discover and produce meanings. Meaning is not something objective that is always there any more. It is what the reader gets by rewriting the meaning of the present text. (Zhou, 2000, p. 380-84) The scriptable text is not an isolated work, nor is it closed. As a matter of fact, it is a large network. Every text demonstrates and refers to each other, which forms into intertextuality. Text is not the coexistence of diverse meanings, but a message and an interweaving of messages. So it does not fall into the fetters of one interpretation; it faces an explosion and a semination. The death of the author means the birth of the reader. The reader steps into the very forefront of reading where he communicates, conciliates and converses with the text to produce new meanings.

Unlike Roland Barthes, Michel Foucault (1926-1984), the French philosopher renowned as the “thinker of power”, deconstructs the author as subject from the relationship between power and discourse. In Foucault’s eyes, power is an evil immanent force which can not be got rid of. Power and knowledge are a symbiotic pair where knowledge appears as the phenomenon whose essence is power. Power is the basis instead of the product of superstructure. It is spread into all the social relationships, covering economy, sex, knowledge, politics, emotions and other realms of social existence. All relationship can find its expression in the tyranny of power. Power is purposeful but void of subjectivity. When power encounters any resisting force, subjectivity can only exist in the random and infinite game of power relationship. The eternal and constant existence of power results in the deconstruction and disappearance of subjectivity. Meanwhile, power is not only a compressing forth but a constructing force. The deconstruction of subjectivity reduces the author, the incarnation of God and the reason of works, into the author-function. By this term, it means that the author is not a general term, but a function of discourse. It leads the vivid man from inside the discourse out into the outside (Zhu Liyuan, 1997, p.337-38). Foucault holds that writing is a constant process of negation where the author is negated and the authorial subjectivity disappears for good sake. Furthermore, he points out that any work has the right to create eternity, and at the same time when such an eternity is achieved, writing gets the right to kill the author. (Foucault, 1986) It is in this sense, as Nietzsche declares that “God is dead!”, Foucault claims that “the man demises” and that the concept of an “author” be replaced by the “author-function”.

As discussed in the foregoing lines, Barthes holds that the author is dead and Foucault argues that the “author” should be replaced by the “author-function”. J. F. Lyotard, one of the most famous French philosophers in the 20th century, arrives at the conclusion that there is no general subject, let alone the “intellectual”, after his thorough investigation into
the situation of knowledge in the postmodern era. (Zhou, 2000, p.171) Moreover, Lyotard's compatriot Paul Ricoer, also a great thinker, argues for the death of the author. “Whenever we read a book,” he says, “we take for granted that the author is dead, and the book is the one after the death of the author. Only when the author dies, is the reader’s reading of the book complete or entire, because the death of the author breaks the command of the author’s original meaning, and what is left is the reader’s reading of the work itself.” (Wang, 2001, p.235)

The deconstruction of the authorial subjectivity by philosophers, thinkers and theorists like Roland Barthes, Michel Foucault, J. F. Lyotard and Paul Ricoer makes it easy and natural for us to cast doubt upon the author’s original meaning and writing intention. Such a skepticism is strongly characterized by the postmodern literary tradition. As shown by the following demonstration, the doubt cast upon the author’s original meaning and writing intention paves the way for poems to be rewritten as far as the rewriting theory is concerned.

IV. FROM THE DECONSTRUCTION OF THE “AFFLATUS THEORY” AND THE “CHINESE POETIC INTENTION THEORY” TO THE REWRITING OR TRANSLATING OF POEMS

Whether poems should be translated or rewritten long remains controversial in the translation circle. The solution to this controversy depends on the origin of poetics. Therefore, we must first have a look at the origin of poems.

As far as the tradition of Western poetics is concerned, the origin of poems can be dated back to ancient Greece. Plato talks about the origin of poems in one of his earliest dialogue with Ion, the storyteller. This is the most ancient record concerning the origin of poems. In Ion, Socrates asked the famous storyteller Ion: “When the poets are singing for wars, they do not have specialized military knowledge; when they are describing the shoe menders, they do not have specialized knowledge on shoe mending, so how can the poets speak? By what do they speak?” Plato attributes this strange and miraculous phenomenon to afflatus, as the “Afflatus Theory” goes. Poets are the spokesmen of the Goddess of Poetry Muse, who gives the poet afflatus. The poet, on the other hand, tells the afflatus he gets from the Goddess. Whichever poet it is, Iliad or Homer, he is in a state of being mad when he is speaking on behalf of the Goddess. Muse is the true source of all poems. According to the “Afflatus Theory”, poems do not originate from the poets. They are neither the brainchildren of the poets nor that of their conscious and spontaneous use of language. The “Afflatus Theory” has exerted great influence upon the western poietical heritage, especially on the Renaissance and the Romanticism Movement.

The origin of Chinese poetics can be best summed up by the “Poetic Intention Theory”. It is recorded in the Book of History (shang shu), one of the ancient Chinese classics, that “Poetry deals with the poet’s intention while songs sing for knowledge.” Confucius once said that “Books are designed to narrate things while poems are designed to convey meanings.” Similar ideas are expressed in the Preface to Poetry (shi da xu): “Poems are what the poets intend. They are intentions before being put into lines, otherwise they are poems.” On this point, the famous Chinese scholar Zhu Xi (1130-1200) of the Northern Song Dynasty (1127-1279) was once quoted by the contemporary aesthete Zhu Guangqian as saying: “The nature of human beings is of tranquility; human heart is prone to be moved….This is where poems are originated.” (Zhu, 1997, p.5) In this sense, poems are the exterior expression of interior intentions and language serves as the medium. The “Western Afflatus Theory”, however, differs from its Chinese counterpart in that it holds that poems do not originate from the poets, and that they are not the result of poets’ conscious and spontaneous use of language. The “Chinese Poetic Intention Theory”, on the other hand, presupposes the existence of the author’s original writing intention, no matter what they are understood, whether as something rational or emotional, an ambition or a strong desire, even as something real or empirical. Meanwhile, it presupposes the existence of a subject that intends. So according to the “Chinese Poetic Intention Theory”, the poets are the creator of meanings and are the very original source of poems. The author’s original writing intention should be the only ultimate reference for all interpretations. (Zhang, 1998, p. 222-23)

In the realistic poietical tradition, the author (poet) manifests absolute authority and right of interpretation to his text, no matter in accordance with the “Western Afflatus Theory” or the “Chinese Poetic Intention Theory.” Owing to such a right and authority, any criticism, no matter how convincing it is or from whatever famous critic it is, will irretrievably remain silent as long as the author stands out and says, “Hey, man! It is not the case!” Under the attack of deconstructionism and postmodernism, the author turns out to be dead, the “author” comes to be replaced by the “author-function”, and meaning undergoes the change from determinacy to its opposite. Since the illusion of meaning’s being unified has been broken into shatters, the author’s original intention and original meaning are thrown into the pit of boundless doubt. Gadmer claims that the author’s original intention does not exist at all, and all effort to find out the intention is doomed to fail. (Xie, 2000, p.54) In the “Western Afflatus Theory”, poems exist beyond the poets, the Goddess of poetry Muse expresses poetical language by means of the poet’s mouth, singing, eulogizing or describing. What is spoken from the poet’s mouth is unique, particular in the employed language and irreplaceable in another. In the “Chinese Poetic Intention Theory”, the poem, owing to the deconstruction of the author’s original intention, becomes a self-sufficient existence as a work outside the author. Any effort to reproduce the author’s original intention is to be a castle in the air. This situation is made even worse by the poetic utterances that are so unique and particular in one language that it is impossible to reproduce them in another. No wonder that Robert Frost (1874-1963) claims that “a poem is what gets lost in translation.” The statement justifies itself and can be manifested in the well-known Italian saying “Traduttori traditori.” (Translation is treason.)
Besides, the metaphorical usage of poetic language decides that the translation of poems is going to meet its waterloo. As is known to all, the metaphorical usage is the internal linguistic feature of poetic language. As pointed out by Zhang Longxi, an American Chinese scholar, things that are simple and clear do not produce sublimity and profundness, which are both based on obscurity. (Zhang, 1998, p.255-56) Such an idea is supported by Renoto Poggioli, who argues that “obscurity and opaqueens is the poets’ natural response to the mediocrity, looseness and banality of everyday language, where the amount of everyday communication destroys the quality of expression.” (Poggioli, 1968, p.37) Similar ideas can be found in the Chinese philosophy, which advocates that speech is the echo of heart and the form that meaning takes, so meaning is metaphysical while speech is physical. Besides, meaning is the oneness while speech is of plurality. Such an idea conforms with Zhuang Tsu’s philosophical statement that “The Tao that can taoed is not the constant Tao, and the name that can be named is not the constant name.” As far as the language of poems is concerned, there is always conflict between the poet’s thoughts and the speech through which the former is conveyed. Whenever the poet’s inner thought bears the form of language, what is to be expressed inside is always in conflict with the language to be used outside. So what is to be expressed is not fully expressed and what has already been expressed is not what should be expressed. In this sense, once the words are put into lines and form a text, the relationship between the poet’s inner thought and exterior speech is unique and particular, and allows for no replacement or reproduction into another language.

To sum up, the indeterminacy of meaning, the doubt cast upon the author’s original intention, the conflict between the poet’s inner thought and exterior expression, and the uniqueness and particularity of the metaphorical usage of the poetic language all add to the impossibility of translating poems from one language to another. In this sense, poems are doomed to get lost in translation. The translation of poems is indeed a treason.

The waterloo that poems meet in translation does not mean that poems can not be transferred from one language to another. For the sake of transcultural communication, poems can be rewritten to satisfy the curiosity of readers in different languages. As discussed above, the poetic language is full of obscurity and connotations. Nevertheless, just because of this, blanks in literary language, especially in poetic language, are larger than those in technical or everyday routine language. Though the signifier is usually in harmony with the signified in the second group of languages, there is a different story in literary language. The unity between the foregoing two is split up. So literary language is more opaque, indeterminate, vague, metaphorical and obscure. From the perspective of text, the gaps and blanks between the semantic units provide much space of creation for the reader. In interpretation, the blanks of meaning and the indeterminacy of the author’s original intention will inspire the reader to fill the blanks and connect the gaps. By doing this, the reader converses, argues and even protests against the author. In this creative process of reading, new meanings are created.

During the process of rewriting poems, the rewriter (similar to the translator in the traditional translation theories) approaches the text with his own experience and cognitive model. He fills the blanks in the text, interprets the text as it is, come up with his own understanding and transfer his understanding into the receptor language. Ezra Pound, one of the greatest American poets and translators of last century, can be the best representative of such rewriters. His rewriting is, come up with his own understanding and transfer his understanding into the receptor language. Ezra Pound, one of the greatest American poets and translators of last century, can be the best representative of such rewriters. His rewriting of the Chinese poems in the Tang Dynasty, Cathay, into English is not translation in the true sense. But it is well accepted by the American and European readers. Its unique, fresh and simple style and exotic flavor added vitality and new energy to the banal Victorian literary circle.

As a matter of fact, Frost has granted us, on behalf of the other poets, the right to rewrite poems when he said that “A poem is what gets lost in translation”. Now that it is impossible for the reader in a different language to appreciate what is called ‘poems’ provided by the author, the rewriter is duty-bound to enable him to have a touch of what is similar to the thing that is called ‘poems’ provided by the author. As the rewriter can only rewrite or recreate according to the “poems” of the original author, he is a “writer of writers” and a “poet of poets”. The poets and the rewriters are none but those invisible who are hired by the great memory of poems. Rewriting is a process in which the rewriter forgets his own self and reproduces what is called or what is similar to ‘poems’ for the reader in a different language. What is eternal and remains poetic is poem itself.

REFERENCES


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Pragmatic Analysis of Verbal Humor in
*Friends*—Based on Cooperative Principle

Jiaosheng Qiu
Taishan University, China

**Abstract**—This paper briefly introduces the main contents of Grice's cooperative principle of pragmatics and the connotation of the linguistic phenomenon of humour. Then, taking the popular sitcom *Friends* as an example, this paper lists the process of producing humor through deliberate violation of the cooperative principle in communication, so as to improve the readers' understanding of the generating mechanism of English humor and increase their interest in learning.

**Index Terms**—verbal humor, cooperative principle, pragmatic analysis

I. **INTRODUCTION**

A. **Cooperation Principle**

H.P. Grice(1975) formally put forward the Cooperative Principle (CP) in his book *Logic and Conversation*. Grice believed that in order to communicate effectively, speakers and listeners must cooperate with each other and abide by some principles. The principles that the two sides of the conversation abide by together are called the principle of cooperation(Li Lanping,2002).

1. The Maxim of Quantity
   1) Make your contribution as informative as is required for the current purpose of the exchange, which means We should avoid inadequate information in an effective conversation.
   2) Do not make your contribution more informative than is required, which means that we should also avoid redundant information in an effective conversation.

2. The Maxim of Quality(Try to make your contribution one that is true)
   1) Do not say what you believe to be false.
   2) Do not say that for which you lack adequate evidence.

3. The Maxim of Relation
   What is said should be relevant to the content of the dialogue.

4. The Maxim of Manner, be perspicuous
   a) Avoid obscurity;
   b) Avoid ambiguity;
   c) Be brief (avoid unnecessary prolixity);
   d) Be orderly.

According to the principle of cooperation, the speaker and the hearer cooperate with each other tacitly and strictly abide by these principles is the prerequisite for the smooth development of language communication. However, in real life, the two sides of communication do not always abide by these principles. Even more often, they are more accustomed to violating the principle of cooperation intentionally or unintentionally. In this case, the hearer often understands an illocutionary meaning, or "special conversational meaning", through the literal meaning of the speaker's words. Humor often arises in this process(Wang Yanyan, 2009).

B. **Humor**

Humor can be divided into broad sense and narrow sense. It is often used in Western languages, including vulgar jokes... In a narrow sense, humor is different from cynicism, sarcasm and ridicule. These three four styles all contain the elements of laughter. However, laughter originally has different kinds of bitter laughter, wild laughter, light laughter and silly laughter, and different attitudes towards laughter. Some are hot and sour, some are gentle, some are contemptuous, some are sympathetic, some are phrases to explain the Yi, some are based on the whole outlook on life, there are ideological sustenance(Xu Han, 2011). The best humor, of course, is the expression of the brilliance of the soul and the richness of wisdom. Humor is the most emotional of all styles, which is a kind of wisdom that can arouse certain emotions in human psychology, and some kind of processing or destroying reality after proper control of logic. Humor or comedy has been promoted to the field of philosophy research. It is no exaggeration to say that humor is a philosophy(Liu Fuchang,1987).

According to Freud's theory, humor can express repressed thoughts in a socially permissible way. He points out that through humor, an individual can freely express his aggression (practical jokes) or sexual desire without fear of self-or
superego-counterattack. In a joke, this energy is released in laughter because it is no longer needed to use the energy of anti-spiritual catharsis (Ouyang Yan, 2011).

C. Friends

The famous US TV series *Friends* is a world-renowned sitcom about the joys and sorrows of six friends in downtown apartment in New York over the past ten years. From 1994 to 2004, the series was updated at the rate of one season a year, with a total of 236 episodes in 10 seasons. Each season's ratings reached the top ten of the year. The actors won Emmy Awards for their roles on many occasions. The play was also rated as the most popular TV Series in history. The main characters in the play are: self-centered, simple-minded, from a charming wealthy woman to Rachel, Monica, a competitive and controlling perfectionist, Phoebe, an eccentric and uniquely minded environmentalist, Joey, a simple-minded, innocent playboy, and sensitive. Near neuroticism, humor is often used to cover up self-distrust in Chandler and over-serious, emotionally focused paleontology professor Ross.

II. THE ANALYSIS OF HUMOR IN *FRIENDS'* VIOLATION OF COOPERATIVE PRINCIPLE

As a classic American drama, many of the humorous passages in *Friends* just appear in violation of the politeness principle. We would like to take the first and second episodes of the first season as the material to show the readers how the characters in the play produce the humorous effect by violating the politeness principle.

A. Violation of the Maxim of Quantity

1. Inadequate Information

The lack of information in conversation leads to misunderstanding because of the inability to complete communication.

[Scene: After saying goodnight to each other, Monica went back to her room. Ross and Rachel were the only people in the living room.]

Ross: Mmm. (They both reach for the last cookie) Oh, no-
Rachel: Sorry-
Ross: No no no, go-
Rachel: No, you have it, really, I don't want it-
Ross: Split it?
Rachel: Okay.
Ross: Okay. (They split it.) You know you probably didn't know this, but back in high school, I had a, um, major crush on you.
Rachel: I knew.
Ross: You did! Oh.... I always figured you just thought I was Monica's geeky older brother.
Rachel: I did.
Ross: Oh. Listen, do you think- and try not to let my intense vulnerability become any kind of a factor here- but do you think it would be okay if I asked you out? Sometime? Maybe?
Rachel: Yeah, maybe...
Ross: Okay... okay, maybe I will...
Rachel: Goodnight.
Ross: Goodnight.
(Rachel goes into her room and Monica enters the living room as Ross is leaving.)
Monica: See ya.... Waitwait, what's with you?
Ross: I just grabbed a spoon. (Ross exits and Monica has no idea what that means.)

(Season 1, Episode 1)

After experiencing the divorce because his wife was a lesbian, Ross fell flat and lost hope in her emotional life. Rachel escaped from the wedding scene because of her sudden awakening. The two failed couples met in a cafe. Rachel was the object of Ross's secret love since high school. After everyone left, they talked about their former school in Monica's living room. Garden life, Rachel has always known Ross's feelings for her, Ross was very unexpected, rekindled the yearning for emotional life, and finally the courage to tentatively ask Rachel if she can ask her out, Rachel agrees cheerfully. Ross was very excited. When Monica came out and saw Ross excited and asked him what was wrong, he answered that she had just picked up a spoon. Obviously, Monica was puzzled by the spoon and didn't understand what Joy, who had a unique feeling for food, had said to Ross before. Ross provides a serious lack of information, the audience can see here, but can understand a smile, humor also produced.

2. Redundant Information

Like the lack of information, if too much information is provided in communication, it will also produce unexpected effects. There are many such situations in the play.

[Scene: Monica and Rachel's, everyone is sitting around the kitchen table. Rachel's credit cards are spread out on the table along with a pair of scissors.]
Rachel: Oh God, come on you guys, is this really necessary? I mean, I can stop charging anytime I want.
Monica: C'mon, you can't live off your parents your whole life.
Rachel: I know that. That's why I was getting married.
Phoebe: Give her a break, it's hard being on your own for the first time.
Rachel: Thank you.
Phoebe: You're welcome. I remember when I first came to this city. I was fourteen. My mom had just killed herself and my step-dad was back in prison, and I got here, and I didn't know anybody. And I ended up living with this albino guy who was, like, cleaning windshields outside port authority, and then he killed himself, and then I found aromatherapy. So believe me, I know exactly how you feel.

Rachel is a spoiled, wealthy woman and a real old-timer. After escaping from her wedding, she went to the Central Cafe to meet her old friend Monica. When she saw that everyone had their own work, she decided to live independently and not be old. However, it's easier said than done. After a frustration in finding a job, Rachel decisively went to buy several pairs of boots that were on sale. Under the pressure of friends, she admitted that she was still using her father's credit card. In order to get rid of the old hat, friends persuaded her to cut off all the credit cards her father had returned. Everyone was pressing. Rachel was very hesitant and felt it was difficult to ride a tiger. But Phoebe says, forgive her, it's the first time she's not independent. Rachel was grateful that someone had finally spoken for her. Thank Phoebe very much. Phoebe answered, "You're welcome. Everyone thinks the conversation should be over. But Phoebe continued to talk about her first trip to New York, from her mother's suicide to her stepfather's imprisonment, from her helplessness to her albino ex-boyfriend's suicide. Finally, she summed up how Rachel felt.

In this conversation, Rachel is in a pressing situation, just want someone to speak for her. As a result, the queer Phoebe talks a lot about his past behind Rachel's platform, which has nothing to do with Rachel's current situation. This strange behavior of Phoebe is the typical redundancy of information in the conversation, which means that Rachel and everyone are at a loss. After she finished, everyone paused. Of course, in the play, the humorous effect of this method is very obvious.

B. Violation of the Maxim of Quality
1. Deliberately stating what you believe to be wrong in communication

   [Scene: Time Lapse, Ross has entered.]
   Ross: (mortified) Hi.
   Joey: This guy says hello, I wanna kill myself.
   Monica: Are you okay, sweetie?
   Ross: I just feel like someone reached down my throat, grabbed my small intestine, pulled it out of my mouth and tied it around my neck...
   Chandler: Cookie?
   Monica: (explaining to the others) Carol moved her stuff out today.
   Joey: Ohh.
   Monica: (to Ross) Let me get you some coffee.
   Ross: Thanks.
   Phoebe: Ooh! Oh! (She starts to pluck at the air just in front of Ross.)
   Ross: No, no don't! Stop cleansing my aura! No, just leave my aura alone, okay?
   Phoebe: Fine! Be murky!
   Ross: I'll be fine, alright? Really, everyone. I hope she'll be very happy. 
   Monica: No you don't.
   Ross: No I don't, to hell with her, she left me!

   Ross came to the cafe to say hello to everyone. Everyone saw that he was in a bad mood. Joey even joked that this guy greeted me in such a way that he wanted to commit suicide. Monica explained that it was because Ross's lesbian ex-wife took away her things this morning. Everyone sympathized with Ross, which made sensitive Ross very uncomfortable. Phoebe, in particular, even began to "clean up the ominous smell on Rose's head." Rose was annoyed and said, "I'll be fine, alright? Really, everyone. I hope she'll be very happy." The "I'll be fine" and "I hope she'll be very happy" here are obviously Rose's wrong words, their hearts are just the opposite, so when Monica pointed out "No you don't." He immediately changed his mouth to "No I don't, to hell with her, she left me!" Not only did he deny his previous blessing to his ex-wife, but he even began to curse her. The humorous effect of this place is very obvious, which shows Rose's frustration of betrayal by her wife appropriately. And not wanting to attract sympathy.

2. Deliberately saying inadequate evidence in communication

   [Scene: Central Perk, Chandler, Joey, Phoebe, and Monica are there.]
   Monica: There's nothing to tell! He's just some guy I work with!
   Joey: Come on, you're going out with the guy! There's gotta be something wrong with him!
   Chandler: All right Joey, be nice. So does he have a hump? A hump and a hairpiece?
   Phoebe: Wait, does he eat chalk?
(They all stare, bemused.)

Phoebe: Just, 'cause, I don't want her to go through what I went through with Carl- oh!

Monica: Okay, everybody relax. This is not even a date. It's just two people going out to dinner and- not having sex.

Chandler: Sounds like a date to me.

(Season 1, Episode 1)

At the beginning of the sitcom Friends, Chandler, Phoebe and Joey pestered Monica to ask her about her latest date. Monica was reluctant to say more because she had no clear relationship, so they began to speculate without any evidence. Joey said directly, "Come on, you're going out with the guy!" There's gotta be something wrong with him." Chandler criticizes Joey's poisonous tongue and asks if he has a hump or hump and a hairpiece, while Phoebe's question is even stranger, asking if he can eat chalk. In the absence of meeting Monica's date at all, the three people made this unfounded assumption that it was a typical violation of the principle of cooperation. On the one hand, it was a kind joke between friends, on the other hand, it was to force Monica to tell more about him. In any case, the three people's practice achieved good humorous effect and aroused the audience. There were bursts of laughter.

C. Violation of the Maxim of Relation

Relevance principle refers to the fact that in communication, what is said should be related to the content of the communication, but not unrelated words. Otherwise, it will lead to poor communication or unexpected effects. Humor in many scenes in the play originates from the violation of this principle.

[Time Lapse. Ross has entered.]

Ross: (mortified) Hi.

Joey: This guy says hello, I wanna kill myself.

Monica: Are you okay, sweetie?

Ross: I just feel like someone reached down my throat, grabbed my small intestine, pulled it out of my mouth and tied it around my neck...

Chandler: Cookie?

Monica: (explaining to the others) Carol moved her stuff out today.

Joey: Ohh.

Monica: (to Ross) Let me get you some coffee.

Ross: Thanks.

Phoebe: Ooh! Oh! (She starts to pluck at the air just in front of Ross.)

Ross: No, no don't! Stop cleansing my aura! No, just leave my aura alone, okay?

Phoebe: Fine! Be murky!

Ross: I'll be fine, alright? Really, everyone. I hope she'll be very happy.

Monica: No you don't.

Ross: No I don't, to hell with her, she left me!

Joey: And you never knew she was a lesbian...

Ross: No!! Okay!! Why does everyone keep fixating on that? She didn't know, how should I know?

Chandler: Sometimes I wish I was a lesbian... (They all stare at him.) Did I say that out loud?

(Season 1, Episode 1)

This scene was mentioned earlier, when Rose was upset that his lesbian ex-wife had taken away her things. Everyone showed more or less sympathy for Rose. Phoebe even began to clean up the stench on Rose's head. Rose also had a little dispute with Phoebe. Rose also showed his true attitude towards his ex-wife, "to hell with her, she left me". At this time, Joey pranked Rose for not knowing that his wife was a lesbian. Rose was very angry and wronged. He said why people had to hold on to this problem. She didn't even know she was a lesbian at first. How could she know that she was a husband? At this point, whether you are sympathetic or ridiculous, you are talking about Rose and her ex-wife, and Chandler Stone's astonishing sentence "Sometimes I wish I was a lesbian" directly obscured all the people in the place, everyone stared at him. Obviously, on this occasion, Chandler's expression from the heart, no matter what the purpose is, is not appropriate. The audience also roared with laughter, indicating that Chandler's unreliable monologue had achieved excellent dramatic effect.

D. Violation of the Maxim of Manner, Not Perspicuous

1. Obscurity

[Scene Central Perk, everyone's there.]

Monica: What you guys don't understand is, for us, kissing is as important as any part of it.

Joey: Yeah, right!.......Y'serious?

Phoebe: Oh, yeah!

Rachel: Everything you need to know is in that first kiss.

Monica: Absolutely.

Chandler: Yeah, I think for us, kissing is pretty much like an opening act, y'know? I mean it's like the stand-up comedian you have to sit through before Pink Floyd comes out.

Ross: Yeah, and-and it's not that we don't like the comedian, it's that-that... that's not why we bought the ticket.

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Chandler: The problem is, though, after the concert's over, no matter how great the show was, you girls are always looking for the comedian again, y'know? I mean, we're in the car, we're fighting traffic... basically just trying to stay awake.

Rachel: Yeah, well, word of advice: Bring back the comedian. Otherwise next time you're gonna find yourself sitting at home, listening to that album alone.

Joey: (pause)...Are we still talking about sex?

In the Central Perk, they are talking about kissing. Ladies all agree that men don't understand the importance of kissing to women at all. Chandler makes a very vivid analogy. If you go to see the famous rock band Pink Floyd, the audience usually has to be patient to watch a talk show before they start performing, because it's a hot event, Ross said. People don't hate talk shows, but that's not why audiences buy tickets. Chandler then complained that girls would watch talk shows after the band ended, and Rachel told men very frankly that if they didn't want to listen to records at home later, they'd better let talk show actors on.

The conversation was wonderful because the metaphor was so appropriate that it caused applause from the audience, but it overlooked an important person who regarded food and sex as equally important Joey. Obviously, he didn't understand the metaphor. He paused for a moment and then asked "Are we still talking about sex". In Joey's opinion, their conversation is obviously obscure. Sex is sex. How can it be related to concerts and talk shows? In this scene, Joey's remark was the finishing touch and won the warmest applause.

2. Ambiguity

Rachel: (on phone) Daddy, I just... I can't marry him! I'm sorry. I just don't love him. Well, it matters to me!

... Rachel: C'mon Daddy, listen to me! It's like, it's like, all of my life, everyone has always told me, 'You're a shoe! You're a shoe, you're a shoe, you're a shoe!'. And today I just stopped and I said, 'What if I don't wanna be a shoe? What if I wanna be a - a purse, y'know? Or a - or a hat! No, I'm not saying I want you to buy me a hat, I'm saying I am a ha- It's a metaphor, Daddy!

After escaping, Rachel came to Monica's house and called her father to explain why she wanted to escape. She explained that she couldn't marry him because she didn't love him. Although we couldn't hear what his father said on the phone, we knew from Rachel's "it matters to me" that it didn't matter whether you loved Berry or not, but you had to marry him.

Then Rachel went on to explain that she made an analogy, like everyone always said Rachel was a pair of shoes, everyone thought so (Rachel himself recognized it), but suddenly one day, Rachel didn't want to be a shoe. What if she wanted to be a wallet? Or a hat? Obviously, the father on the other side of the phone didn't understand Rachel's meaning. As a wealthy doctor, the father should often use money to meet his daughter's requirements. He was also used to interpreting the words of his daughters as shopping hints. Rachel's sentence "I'm not saying I want you to buy me a hat, I'm saying I am a ha- It's a metaphor, Daddy" not only expresses Rachel's helplessness to his father, but also shows his previous life state, that is, constantly asking his father for money and selling what he likes. So Rachel's analogy made his father ambiguous and hit the audience's laughter point.

3. Unnecessary prolixity(not brief)

[Ross and Rachel go to hug but Ross's umbrella opens. He sits back down defeated again. A moment of silence follows as Rachel sits and the others expect her to explain.]

Monica: So you wanna tell us now, or are we waiting for four wet bridesmaids?

Rachel: Oh God... well, it started about a half hour before the wedding. I was in the room where we were keeping all the presents, and I was looking at this gravy boat. This really gorgeous Lamauge gravy boat. When all of a sudden- (to the waitress that brought her coffee) Sweet 'n' Lo?- I realized that I was more turned on by this gravy boat than by Barry!

And then I got really freaked out, and that's when it hit me: how much Barry looks like Mr. Potato Head. Y'know, I mean, I always knew looked familiar, but... Anyway, I just had to get out of there, and I started wondering 'Why am I doing this, and who am I doing this for?' (to Monica) So anyway I just didn't know where to go, and I know that you and I have kinda drifted apart, but you're the only person I knew who lived here in the city.

Rachel, wearing a wedding dress, fled to the Central Cafe. She greeted everyone and fell silent. At Monica's urging, Rachel told everyone about the reason why she fled. In fact, Rachel realized before the wedding that she didn't love Barry. But because of the emotional excitement, Rachel's words are not concise, starting from the boat-shaped steamed meat dish in the gift room, talking about Barry's appearance and his sexual interest, and then saying that he was confused about why he wanted to get married, who I married for, and so on, which made the audience sound worthy but full of laughter. In fact, Rachel wanted to express that she had been living according to the wishes of her parents and friends, and had a successful marriage and birth, but suddenly realized at the wedding that she did not love Barry first, and then wanted to live her own life. That's why she ran away from marriage. Of course, we can also understand Rachel's meaning from her chattering narrative, but the language is too concise, violating the principle of cooperation, and generating humor.
4. Not Orderly

[Scene: Monica and Rachel's, Chandler, Joey, Phoebe, and Monica are watching Three's Company.]

…

Monica: (taking a drink from Joey) Are you through with that?

Joey: Yeah, sorry, the swallowing slowed me down.

Monica: Whose little ball of paper is this?!

Chandler: Oh, uh, that would be mine. See, I wrote a note to myself, and then I realised I didn't need it, so I balled it up and... (sees that Monica is glaring at him) ...now I wish I was dead.

(Chandler starts to fluff a pillow.)

Phoebe: She's already fluffed that pillow... Monica, you know, you've already fluffed that- (Monica glares at her.)

-but, it's fine!

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(Season 1, Episode 2)

Monica's mother is coming to the house. Monica is very nervous. She keeps cleaning up. She asks Joey if he's finished his drink, who throws the paper ball, and beats the pillow on the sofa. Everyone is frightened by her nervous look. Chandler, Joey and Phoebe are all incoherent in the order of speech in this conversation, which keeps the audience applauding. It also shows that Monica's relationship with her mother is somewhat tense and paves the way for her appearance. Although the actors were nervous, the scene was really funny to the audience.

III. Conclusion

Sitcom is a popular artistic form of expression, and verbal humor is its life. There are abundant literates on the theory of verbal humor, but few studies have been carried out from the perspective of pragmatics. From the perspective of pragmatics, this paper makes an analysis of the above humorous dialogues in the play, which helps us understand how the characters in the play produce humorous effects by violating the principle of cooperation, and also enables us to appreciate the film and television works better. At the same time, this paper further develops the study of humor mechanism within the framework of pragmatic theory, deepens the understanding of the internal mechanism of verbal humor, and verifies the cooperative principle, which will also benefit future English learning.

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Jiaosheng Qiu was born in Tengzhou, China in 1983. He received his master's degree in foreign linguistics and applied linguistics from Shandong Agricultural University, China in 2012.

He is currently a lecturer in the Department of College Foreign Languages Teaching, Taishan University, Tai’an, China. His research interests include Second Language Acquisition and College English Teaching.
Project-based Language Learning: Email Exchanges between Non-native English Speakers

Sue Wang
School of Foreign Studies, Central University of Finance and Economics, Beijing, China

Abstract—his study presents the findings of an email exchange project between Chinese and Korean EFL college students. With the non-native speakers of English far outnumbered the native speakers, it is necessary to investigate the interactions between these non-native speakers whose communication is made possible only through English. 36 Chinese EFL college students participated in this e-pal project with a group of 28 Korean EFL college students. This paper reported the Chinese students’ perceptions and their attitudes towards interactions through email exchange with their non-native counterparts. Implications of using project as an approach in EFL learning and teaching is also discussed.

Index Terms—Email, non-native English speakers, project-based learning

I. INTRODUCTION

Technology opened up many possibilities for cross-cultural communication and consequently it has drawn the attention of many scholars including scholars from the language field. Computer-mediated communication has been a focus for a long time in applied linguistics. Issues between the communication between non-native English speakers (NNES) and native English speakers (NES) through technology has also been explored by many researchers. Electronic mail as one of the internet products has been found useful in language learning. It has been examined by a number of researchers (Liaw, 1998; Liaw and Johnson, 2001; Liu, 2011; Stockwell and Levy, 2001).

Liaw (1998) conducted a study with his EFL students to explore the use of emails in writing. He matched the students in two classes and asked them to communicate through email across one semester. The findings suggested that the students generally thought positively of the project though there was no obvious improvement in terms of language skills after the ending of the project. Researchers also investigated the use of email as a way to enhance the language learning of NNES through their interactions with NES (Gu & Zhu, 2002; Wu, 2015). Gu and Zhu (2002) reported a case study between a group of Chinese college students and their American counterparts who conducted a collaborative writing project via internet. The authors examined the impacts of PBL, when combined with technology, on the EFL students’ motivation and performance in language learning. The authors reached the conclusion that project-based language learning together with technology could be effective in motivating the Chinese EFL learners. Ma (2006) investigated four ESL students’ perceptions of email communication in English in Canada. The students were found generally positive towards this experience reporting that the exchange not only provided them opportunities to practice their language regularly but also beneficial in terms of cultural communication and relationship building. Shang (2007) found that the EFL students who participated in the email exchange improved in terms of syntactic complexity and grammatical accuracy but not lexical density. It was also found students had a positive attitude towards this email exchange approach. Similarly, Na and Kim (2010) also went towards this direction and examined whether the language improved during the exchange process. Different from the findings by Shang (2007), the authors did not find significant improvement in grammatical accuracy. The students did report, though, that the email exchange reduced their anxiety level and they became more motivated in communication not only for the tasks assigned to them but also for personal matters. This line of research continued. For instance, Dunne (2014) examined the email exchange between the beginner-level EFL learners in Japan and Chile with a task-based framework. The author discussed the positive effects of this project in spite of the difficulties in terms of logistical and technical aspects. Wu (2015) conducted a collaborative email exchange project between two groups of secondary-school students in Taiwan and United States. The findings indicated that the email exchange improved students’ attitudes in language and cultural learning.

It is also found that many of the studies mentioned above adopted the Project-Based Learning (PBL) approach. PBL as a learner-centered approach, has been applied to ESL/EFL (English as a second/foreign language) teaching/learning in the 1980’s in Europe and later 1990’s in North-America. In Beckett (1999), PBL in second/foreign language field is defined as a series of individual or group activities that involve language/content learning through planning, researching (empirical and/or document), analyzing and synthesizing data, and reflecting on the process and product orally and/or in writing by comparing, contrasting, and justifying alternatives (p. 4). Since then, an increasing number of studies on PBL as an approach in ESL/EFL learning and instruction has been published (Alan & Stoller, 2005; Beckett, 2005). In China, the application of PBL in language studies started mostly around the 2000s and PBL pedagogy and research is drawing the attentions of more and more researchers, particularly in the past several years (Yu, 2017). These studies explored the different aspects of PBL in language learning by offering frameworks for it (Beckett & Slater, 2005; Zhang, 2015) or
give an overview of the studies in it (Beckett & Miller, 2006), or explore the specific factors in the application of PBL. For instance, Xia and Zhang (2017) investigated the learner efforts and factors that affect the efforts when PBL was applied as the pedagogy. In general, these studies have demonstrated that PBL could be used as an effective approach in language learning and teaching.

With the NNES far outnumbered the native speakers, more and more English as a foreign language (EFL) speakers are communicating through English, which is now sometimes described as “English as an international language” (EIL) or “English as lingua franca” (ELF). In this context, it is necessary to investigate the interaction between these non-native speakers whose communication is made possible only through English. However, there is not much literature on the email exchange between NNES in different nations (Dunne, 2014; Fedderholdt, 2001). This study tends to address the issues in the cross-cultural communication between NNES in different nations. Since email as a communication tool has become part of the students’ daily life in both in China and Korea, a project is initiated to encourage authentic communication between Chinese and Korean students. More specifically, the present study attempts to investigate the Chinese college students’ experience towards their Korean counterparts in computer-mediated cross-national writing activities. This study focused on the following research question: how do the Chinese students perceive the email exchange with their Korean counterparts in English?

II. RESEARCH DESIGN

A. Participants

This project is conducted between college students in China and Korea. There were 36 Chinese EFL college students and 28 Korean EFL college students participated in the study. The Chinese students were second year English majors in a top university in Northern China. At the time of the study, the Chinese participants were taking a course called Practical Writing. The author, who was also the instructor of the writing course, made English email writing part of the course taking into consideration the fact that email writing would be part of their professional life when they go to work. 28 of the Chinese students chose their partners after they read the self-introduction from their Korean counterparts. The rest chose to pair up with another group of Korean students and therefore is not in the scope of this paper. The 28 Korean EFL college students participated in the e-paling project were taking a culture course and they came from different academic departments at the time of the study. Both the Chinese and Korean students were required to write at least one email to their partners every two weeks so that the students would not take it as an extra burden. The pairing-up between the Chinese and Korean students took some time and most started their first email exchange with their e-pals from early April and stopped in middle June before the students on both sides started to prepare for their final examination.

B. Data Collection

Data collected for this study include a questionnaire before the start of the project and a questionnaire after the end of the project. The questionnaire before the start of the project mainly focused on students’ previous language learning experience and English email writing experience. The post-project questionnaire mainly focused on the students’ experiences towards the project. Besides these questionnaires, related information such as the email samples written by the Chinese students were also collected. Altogether, 101 email entries from the Chinese participants were collected as part of the data. These data were analyzed following qualitative analysis methods (Patton, 2002). The following are part of the findings from the project.

III. FINDINGS

A. The Paradox of Net Generation

Even in today’s China where the Chinese participants actually grow up with technology, writing emails in English is found to be rarely done by the Chinese participants. For the Chinese participants in this study, everyone has a cell phone and most of them cannot live without it. They are very good at texting messages to their friends and they use all kinds of online social networking to keep in touch with their friends. However, when it comes to using computer for English learning, it can be seen there is a lot to be done to fully take advantage of technology. Among the Chinese participants, only about 15% of the students had previous experiences of email communication in English. And over 80% of the Chinese students mentioned that they were not very experienced with using computer for English writing. Therefore the Chinese participants in the study, on the one hand, were part of the net generation but at the same time, most lacked the chance of communicating in English through email writing.

B. The English Email Exchange with NNES: Meaningful

From the post-project survey, most of the Chinese participants considered it was a meaningful activity for them to get the chance of communicate in English with a real person in the real world. When being asked about their opinion of the English email writing experience, many thought positively about it: “I think it is a very meaningful activity. It is necessary for us college students to know more about the peers in other countries and also communication draw us closer. Personally I think it is very important for this communication being
kept in a longer term and guarantee the regular contact between the key pals.”

“It is such a pleasure for us to have this opportunity to communicate with Korean fellow students, from which we actually learned a lot.”

Similar opinion was echoed by other students as well, for instance: “I think communicate with NNES is also beneficial. We ourselves are also NNES and we can find our weaknesses and strengths and also it is helpful to learn more about the culture of the other country.”

Even with Internet available, it turned out that, for many students, this was their first time to write to someone in another country. Through this activity, they learned about Korean’s students’ life and culture. The study found that most of the Chinese students consider that email exchange between NNES is a meaningful activity because it can promote cultural exchange between different nations.

C. The English Email Exchange with NNES: Disappointed

While most students agreed that the project was meaningful, there were also some students who had less pleasant experiences due to the particular situation they found themselves in. For instance, one student mentioned that “The Korean students sometimes even get stuck in making simple introduction of themselves with simple sentences. Of course there… this is not discriminating their English ability, but to honestly point out it would work out better if both the levels matched up.” It seems that the low proficiency of the partner became a serious barrier in communication. The Chinese student felt that she/he could not communicate well with the partner because the other was really insufficient in the proficiency of the language level. Another student was also quite unsatisfied with her partner: “It’s a little boring when your partner takes no interest in your emails. Can you imagine how disappointed I was whenever I received an email less than 50 words compared to my lengthy and elaborate emails…I want to say to my e-pal: sorry to disturb you, I didn’t mean to. I can’t see any efforts he put in the e-paling. But for my loving professor, I would have said good bye to him long long ago.” If the first student’s dissatisfaction here was caused by language issues, the second student’s problem here was more of an attitude issue. The partner did not show the proper etiquette in this cross-cultural communication and led to the unpleasant experience of the other.

D. Language Concerns: Mixed Reactions

Some Chinese participants expressed their concern about the purity of the English language use when the interaction was conducted in a language which neither side had fully mastered. Some worried that communicating with another NNES, particularly with someone who has lower language proficiency level, would only do harm to their language learning. These students believed that communicating with native speakers would improve their language use in a more effective way. In contrast with such kind of concerns, there were also some other students who were more open-minded towards the language errors and communication breakdowns caused by the limited language proficiency on both sides. These students thought it was a great chance to learn about another country and another culture. Even there were some issues with grammar or use of words or similar issues, they found ways to get around it and kept the communication going. That is to say, some students were less tolerant towards the fact that they were communicating with a NNES while others were more open to this.

IV. DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS FOR EFL INSTRUCTORS

A. Take Better Advantage of the Net Generation

Despite the fact that the Chinese participants grow up as the net generation and they are technology savvy in Chinese-mediated communication, it is a different story when it comes to communicating through English. For the Chinese participants, only very few took advantage of internet and wrote English emails to communicate with other English speakers, native or non-native. There are two reasons for that. First is that the students simply did not have a chance to have these kind of authentic communication in their life. In addition, many students still take language learning as a subject for them, not fully understand the practical use of it in their future life. It would be helpful for instructors to provide opportunities for students to get a first-hand experience of writing in another language. Also the students should be encouraged to keep using the English language for authentic purposes. Particularly with the net generation, email exchange could be better explored as part of language instruction. More opportunities should be created for the students to conduct authentic communications with both NES and NNES as much as possible.

B. Language Attitude: Who Is the Superior?

The study found that many Chinese participants showed their concern toward the correctness and appropriateness of email communication with other NNES through English. Students’ perceptions towards themselves, towards NES and NNES will be discussed in the following because they are interrelated.

The first is the Chinese participants’ perceptions towards their own language learning. In the pre-project questionnaire, most Chinese participants described their English proficiency as low or intermediate. Many were not very confident about their English level and they still focused on a lot learning for examinations, which by nature would stress the grammar and correctness of the target language output. With such a belief, the students thought that by communicating with NES, they would have models to follow and they could contact higher-quality English use. In
general, they hold the belief of NES superiority in language learning. Compared to the positive attitude towards NES, it seemed that many students held negative beliefs towards other NNES in English use. NNES by definition is put in an inferior position, including themselves. The students’ concern is valid to some degree since the non-native speakers often produce what might be called “interlanguage”, which can be confusing at least and might lead to frequent misunderstanding. The Chinese participants worried that the exposure to “incorrect” language use would corrupt or bring negative impact on their English use.

It should be argued here that while it is true that native speakers can provide higher quality language models for NNES such as the Chinese participants, the exposure would not affect the Chinese participants’ language use. There are several reasons. The students were required to write at least one email to their partners every two weeks. This actually was a very tiny part of their language learning, particularly when these students majored in English. The author’s argument is that while some of the Chinese participants hold the belief that impure email message produced by their Korean partners would affect their language negatively, the truth is the impact of such small amount of exposure would be insignificant. Another important point that should be made clear to the NNES is that with the increasing number of NNES who communicate through English, they should be more tolerant towards NNES, including themselves. The attention should be paid to the content of the messages rather than being critical of the form of the messages.

As Kachru (2011) has argued that in his series of works on World Englishes, English is not only the language used by the so-called NES, when the globalization has swept all most every corner of the world. English is also part of the identities of those bilingual or trilingual people, or those who have to use it in their work and life for various reasons. It is also advised that the instructors guide the students in developing inter-cultural communication strategies so that they could be more successful communicating through English in this global village. NNES should be guided to establish a more positive identities of themselves and other NNES, rather than being constrained by the deficiency model in which their ability to speak a second, or for some even third language, is not valued but being critically examined.

C. Project Design and the Purpose of the Key-pal Project

In this study, the Chinese participants were given the task of writing emails to a real person in another country. The authenticity of the task made it more interesting for the students, particularly at the very beginning. They all showed great interest and enthusiasm. However, because it was authentic communication, the process was actually jointly decided by the efforts from both sides. For the students who had positive experiences, many factors led to the successful experience of their email exchange: quick responses on both sides; equivalent language proficiency; effective communication strategies when there was misunderstanding and respect towards each other’s culture, etc. Students who were more motivated with their language learning and better communication skills in general had positive experiences. At the same time, it also depended on the partner they happened to have. There was one particular student who wrote a number of email messages to his partner but did not get any response. It also happened the other way around: some Korean students cannot get response from their Chinese partners who were not motivated to do the e-paling even after repeated reminder from the instructor. Therefore, the design of the project is important. The implementation of the project also needs constant supervision and guide from the instructors on both sides. It might be helpful to ask the students to finish some specific tasks while at the same time let them freely discuss issues that they are interested in. Here, project-based language learning would be beneficial yet the logistics of the project management is important. The instructors of the project need to take multiple factors into consideration and monitor the project as it go along. This indeed would demand the instructors to switch their role from the traditional language teaching and learning class.

V. Conclusion

The study investigated the experience of a group of Chinese college students in a project-based language learning through e-paling between these students and their Korean counterparts. The study found that the email exchange provided an authentic way for the involved students to practice their English or learn more about culture and people of another country. The participants showed great interest in doing such email exchange and considered it as a meaningful activity. Most of the students agreed that this project-based language learning could be an effective way to learn language and practice cross-cultural communication. Some students might need to be better guided about the importance of NNES communication, particularly during the globalization background where the communication between NNES has been increasing.

At the same time, the study found that the project should be carefully designed so that the students would be motivated to continue their enthusiasm at the beginning of the project. The instructor is responsible to facilitate and supervise the writing process so that the problems came along with the project can be solved in a timely manner by the students and instructors on both sides. It is also helpful to further explore what makes the email exchange successful and what are the factors that hampered the successful communication between students so that measures could be taken.

Besides careful design of the project, the instructors planning to start such projects should also help their students develop useful communication strategies between NNES so that the students would be able to effectively use English as a medium of communication in future with other NNES in a variety of contexts.
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Sue Wang. Ed. D, is currently Associate Professor at School of Foreign Studies, Central University of Finance and Economics in Beijing, P. R. China. She has published books and papers on Chinese EFL students’ oral and writing development. Her research interests also include discourse analysis, teacher development and translation studies.
On the Characteristics of Scientific Discourse and Translation

Minggao Wei
College of Foreign Languages, University of Shanghai for Science and Technology, Shanghai, China

Gaofeng Yu
College of Foreign Languages, University of Shanghai for Science and Technology, Shanghai, China

Abstract—The process of translation is essentially to recognize and reconstruct the textual coherence, and to a large extent, the reestablishment of textual coherence and the success of communicative function of translation attribute to the corresponding translation strategy. Illustrated by examples, this paper discusses some appropriate translation strategy in scientific discourse translation.

Index Terms—scientific discourse; textual characteristic, translation

I. INTRODUCTION

Text refers to any natural language unit that is not bound by complete sentence grammar and has communicative function in a specific context and represents complete semantics. Text linguistics was first put forward by Linguist of Germany scientist Weinrich in 1967. Since then, text linguistics has gradually been accepted by people and attracted more and more linguists' attention. The famous Dutch psycholinguist Teun van Dijk) (1979) pointed out that discourse linguistics actually does not refer to a certain theory or a certain research method, but refers to any research that takes discourse as its research purpose. In their book Introduction to Text Linguistics, de Beau Grande and Dressler introduced seven standards of text linguistics in detail: cohesion, coherence, intention, Acceptability, informality, situation and intertextuality have established the important position of cohesion and coherence in text linguistics. Of these seven standards, "cohesion" and "coherence" are undoubtedly the most important, because cohesion and coherence are the basis of other standards, and other standards need to be analyzed and studied on the basis of cohesion and coherence. Cohesion is an important feature of a text, which is mainly reflected in the surface structure of the text. Lexical and grammatical means can be reflected in structural cohesion, that is, structural cohesion. It can be said that cohesion is the tangible network of a text. Coherence is the main feature of a text. It refers to the semantic connection in a text. Coherence exists at the bottom of the text and achieves semantic connection through logical reasoning. Therefore, coherence is an invisible network of discourse.

The so-called discourse refers to any natural language unit that is not constrained by complete sentence grammar, has communicative function in a specific context, and represents complete semantics (Yu, 2009, p47-51). Text is not a combination of simple sentences, but a whole with internal logical structure, expressing a complete meaning. From the perspective of linguistic form and semantic logic, there is a certain cohesion between paragraphs and even between sentences in a text. The whole text has its beginning and end. The concepts or propositions reflected in each paragraph are consistent rather than irrelevant (Zou, 2003, p.32-34). Therefore, in translation, the translator should not focus on the surface of the sentence, but should carefully analyze and understand the meaning of the text, think about the source text as a whole, carefully and reasonably consider and analyze the source text within the framework of the text, so that the translated text can fully reflect the meaning of the source text (Hu, Zhu & Zhang, 1988).

Currently, high technology, especially information technology, has been widely popularized all over the world, and international economic and technological exchanges are booming. People urgently need to understand the information and the advanced scientific knowledge of advanced countries through the translation of scientific texts. Translation speed has also become increasingly important and urgent. Therefore, to fully understand the characteristics of EST texts and to master their translation methods should be the principle that translators should grasp as soon as possible. Based on this, this paper will discuss some cohesion and coherence strategies in the translation of scientific and technological texts according to Halliday's theory of cohesion and coherence, with a view to contributing to the translation practice of scientific and technological texts.

II. COHESION AND COHERENCE IN TEXT AND THEIR RELATIONS

Systemic functional linguistics is the first time to raise language research from the traditional level of words and sentences to the level of discourse, which is a significant contribution to linguistic research. At present, discourse analysis already enjoys popular support in the people. The textual function of systemic functional linguistics can be said to be its essence. The functional part of the text includes three subsystems, namely, thematic-rheme system, known
The concept of cohesion was first proposed by Halliday in 1962. In 1976, he and Hasan co-authored the book Cohesion in English (1976), which can be said to be the symbol of the creation of cohesion theory. The book points out that cohesion is a semantic concept, which refers to the semantic relationship between linguistic components that exist in a text and enable the text to exist. Cohesion can generally be divided into lexical cohesion, conjunction, reference, substitution, etc. In text translation, it is necessary to fully understand the cohesive devices and methods in the original text, so that the translation can reflect the cohesive methods of the original text as much as possible. Sometimes, the cohesive devices and methods can be changed in the translation to achieve the same effect as the original text. In text translation, understanding and grasping textual cohesion will directly affect the quality of the translation.

Coherence is a textual feature that words, clauses and sentence groups are conceptually, logically and properly connected. A coherent text has an internal logical structure that runs through the whole text from beginning to end, connecting all concepts together organically, so as to achieve the effect of clear temporal and spatial sequence and logical progress with distinct levels (Beau, Robert & Dressler, 1981). It can be said that coherence is an invisible network of discourse, and semantic coherence is an important symbol of discourse. Translators can only convey the theme and function of the original work if they can see clearly and fully the inner-sentence, inter-sentence or inter-paragraph relationships that seem to be independent of each other and actually refer to each other. The problems of discourse coherence are mainly manifested in logic reorganization, promotion level and transformation of narrative thinking. Correctly handling these problems is an essential condition to ensure the semantic coherence of the translated text. Otherwise, the translated text will be messy, confused and even mistranslated.

III. TYPES OF COHESION

Cohesion means that all parts of a paragraph are related in grammar or vocabulary or both. This connection may exist between different sentences or between parts of a sentence. Cohesion is an important feature of discourse, which distinguishes the piling up of incoherent and unsystematic sentences. The quality of cohesion is related to the topic of the discourse or whether the information is understood and accepted by the recipient. Cohesion can generally be divided into lexical cohesion, conjunctions, anaphora, substitution and ellipsis. In text translation, it is necessary to fully understand the cohesive devices and methods in the original text, so that the translation can reflect the cohesive methods of the original text as much as possible. Sometimes, the cohesive devices and methods can be changed in the translation to achieve the same effect as the original text. In text translation, understanding and grasping textual cohesion will directly affect the quality of the translation.

A. Lexical Cohesion

Lexical cohesion can be divided into five categories: repetition, general words, similarity, classifiable and collocation (Hu, 1994, p.112). Lexical cohesion refers to the means by which words are used to achieve textual cohesion. Since the meaning and usage of many words in English and Chinese are not one-to-one equivalent, in translation practice, we must first find out the lexical cohesion in the original text and find out the corresponding translated words in order to make the translated words appropriate and reasonable.

Example 1: Four months before Election Day, five men gathered in a small conference room at the Reagan-Bush headquarters and reviewed an oversized calendar that marked the remaining days of the 1984 presidential campaign. It was the last Saturday in June and at ten o'clock in the morning, the rest of the office was practically deserted. Even so the men kept the door shut and the drapes carefully drawn.


The translation of the word office into “办公室” is absolutely correct in terms of the surface meaning of the word, but it seems inaccurate and unreasonable in terms of textual cohesion. Because, there is no one else in the same office, who should close the door and draw the curtains to prevent? Apparently, someone outside the office. The main source of this problem lies in the translator's failure to understand the cohesion of the word office in the original text. In fact, office and headquarters here form the cohesion of the upper and lower words, that is to say, office refers to headquarters. After understanding the cohesion of this word, it is obvious that office should be translated as: there is actually no other person in the headquarters.

B. Connective Words

Linking words refer to certain words in the original text that play a connecting role in the whole text. In translation, sentences and sentences, paragraphs and paragraphs should be connected in a very organized way through certain cohesive devices, so that the whole text forms a complete or relatively complete semantic unit.

Example 2: “There’s certainly too much pepper in that soup!” Alice said to herself, as well as she could for sneezing. There was certainly too much of it in the air. Even the Duchess sneezed occasionally; and as for the baby, it was sneezing and howling alternatively without a moment's pause. The only two creatures in the kitchen that did not sneeze,
were the cook, and a large cat …

**Translation:** “我看那汤里的胡椒一定搁得太多啦！”爱丽丝说着就觉得要打喷嚏。

实在那空气当中的胡椒而儿是不少。连那公爵夫人自己也有时候打喷嚏；要说那个小孩，那就不是打喷嚏就是叫，不是叫就是打喷嚏。那厨房里只有两个不打喷嚏的，一个就是那个做饭的老妈子，一个是只大猫……（赵元任译）

In this example sentence, the translator has strengthened the cohesion between the sentence and the sentence, between the paragraphs and within the paragraphs, making the context of the whole text smooth, and has made wonderful treatment of some words with connecting function. For instance, in order to make the semantics between paragraphs more closely linked, *certainly* is translated as "reality" and placed at the beginning of the sentence; *even and as for* are translated as usual as "even …" and "to say". To translate *alternative without a moment's pause* into "either … or"; two only creatures are translated as "one … one", which better meets the needs of elaboration.

### C. Anaphor

Anaphora is a common cohesive device used in English and Chinese. However, due to the differences in expression habits and modes of thinking, translation should not be limited to the structure and anaphoric relationship of the original text, and word-by-word translation should be carried out. Different treatment methods of anaphora in the original text and the translated text should be found and some appropriate adjustments should be made. Anaphora is usually divided into personal anaphora, indicative anaphora, comparative anaphora and clause anaphora. As far as English-Chinese translation practice is concerned, personal reference and indicative reference are the most theoretical discourse phenomena. In translation, to recognize the relationship between personal reference, in many cases, pronouns in English must be reduced to Chinese nouns and expressed clearly.

### IV. FEATURES OF SCIENTIFIC ENGLISH TEXTS

Due to people's different social activities, different discourses have different linguistic features. Scientific English discourse is different from non-standard discourses such as novels and poems. It belongs to a very formal language, which is determined by its ideographic function, textual function and interpersonal function. Scientific English discourse includes scientific writings, scientific papers, experimental reports, scientific and technological information materials, introduction of scientific and technological trends and operating procedures of experiments, etc. The remarkable feature of EST discourse is that it attaches great importance to the coherence of narrative logic and the clarity of expression, and accurately expresses scientific facts through its strict logic and objective description (Ren, 2009, p.124-126). There is also a clear pattern in the text structure of scientific and technological texts, and the language program and style are basically unchanged. Therefore, the first thing that should be paid attention to in the translation of scientific and technological texts should be the information conversion between the two languages. The important principle of translation should be to be faithful to the original meaning, that is, to preserve the stylistic features of the original text and the translated text and to pay attention to their consistency. In addition, translation also requires clear concepts, clear logical relations, accurate data and concise and clear text.

### V. COHERENCE STRATEGIES IN TRANSLATION OF SCIENTIFIC TEXTS

In the translation of scientific English, due to the differences in morphology, syntax and cohesion between English and Chinese, as well as their different ways of thinking and expression, the equivalence translation between the source language and the target language cannot be completely carried out. This requires the translator to make corresponding modifications in the process of translation, and at the same time to construct the translated text according to the original author’s intention and in combination with the logical relations and structural methods of the text. In other words, the translator must establish a strong discourse awareness in the translation practice. He must look at and organize the translation from a dynamic perspective, so that the translation conforms to the expression habits and laws of Chinese, the meaning is clearer and clearer, the semantics are complete, and the language expression is natural and smooth. In order to meet these requirements, corresponding translation strategies should be adopted in translation practice. The following is the author’s analysis of some common coherence strategies in the translation of scientific texts.

#### A. Adding Necessary Words

Due to the differences between English and Chinese, we need not expect the translation to be consistent with the original, but should make reasonable additions to the translation according to the habitual expression of Chinese. The so-called additional translation is to add necessary words, phrases, clauses or complete sentences to the original text, so as to make the translation conform to the expression habits of Chinese in grammar and language form and keep the translation consistent with the original text in rhetoric, grammatical structure, meaning or tone, so as to make the translation more accessible and smooth. Incremental translation is one of the translation methods frequently used in EST translation.

**Example 1:** Engineers predict that integrated optical circuits will follow the same dramatic trends that have driven semiconductor electronics over the past two decades: they will become *smaller, faster and cheaper.*
**Translation**: 工程师们预言，集成光路将按照过去二十年间促使半导体电子学高速发展的速度发展：其 **体积** 将更小，**速度** 更快，**造价** 更低。

In the original text, three adjectives "small, faster and cheaper" are used to describe the characteristics of the future integrated optical path clearly without any restrictive words, which is determined by the characteristics of the original language. In order to make the translation more in line with the Chinese expression habits, the translator has added three words "volume, speed and cost" to the translation, which makes the translation properly connect the semantic relations before and after the sentence and helps readers to read and understand the original text smoothly.

**B. Repeat Key Words**

Although English and Chinese belong to different language families, human beings live in the same material world, and their thinking patterns have certain consistency, and their thinking contents also have similarities. From the perspective of discourse, they also have similarities in lexical cohesion. Therefore, in translating English into Chinese, the cohesive devices of the source language can be repeated to achieve textual equivalence and coherence.

**Example 2**: In general, drying a **solid** means the removal of relatively small amount s of water or other **liquid** from the **solid** material to reduce the content of residual **liquid** to an acceptably low value.

**Translation**: 一般来讲，干燥一种 **固体** 指的是从 **固体** 材料中除去相对少量的水或其他 **液体**，从而使残留 **液体** 的含量减少到可接受的低值。

The repetition of " **solid**" and " **liquid**" in the source text makes the whole text closely connected and explains accurately and clearly to the reader how to " dry a **solid**" procedure. The translation also grasped the two key words " **solid**" and " **liquid**" and repeated them accordingly, successfully reproducing and retaining the cohesion of the original text and achieving the effect intended by the original text.

**C. Replacement**

English texts are concise and avoid repetition. Therefore, pronouns are often used in English texts to replace the same parts as before. In order to avoid confusion and misunderstanding in Chinese translation, the corresponding nouns referred to by pronouns are sometimes repeated to make the translation clearer and clearer.

**Example 3**: There are two **boxes** inside the boiler, an inner **one** and an outer **one**, which extend a long forward.

**Translation**: 锅炉有两个 **火箱**，一个内 **火箱**，一个外 **火箱**。这两个 **火箱** 都向前延伸很长一段距离。

In the original text, one and which were used to replace the boxes in the previous text respectively, which is in line with the English expression habit. In order to make the translation clearer and more accurate, the nouns they refer to are restored in the translation, and noun repetition is adopted, which conforms to the expression habits of Chinese.

**D. Ellipsis**

Some ellipsis often occurs in English texts. The purpose of context cohesion is achieved by omitting certain words. Ellipsis is a coordination between conciseness and clarity. Ellipsis is usually divided into nominal ellipsis, verb ellipsis and clause ellipsis. In translation, it is often necessary to reproduce the omitted words in the original text so as to make the expression of the translated text more accurate and fluent and conform to the expression habits of Chinese.

**Example 4**: When try to decide whether an object will float in water, you need to know whether its density is greater or less than that of water. If it is greater (than that of water), the object will sink, if (it is) less (than that of water), it will float.

**Translation**: 如果要测定一个物体能否浮在水面，就需要清楚它的密度比水的密度大还是小。如果密度比水大，那么物体就会下沉。如果密度比水小，那么物体就会漂浮在水面。

The boldface text with brackets in the original text is the omitted part. Although there is omission, its meaning is very clear and definite. It also avoids the encumbrance of language use and makes the whole text more concise. However, in translation, these omitted parts need to be restored, otherwise, the translation will appear unclear and lack coherence.

**E. Thematic and Rheme Translocations**

Thematic progression has a very important influence on discourse coherence. English science and technology texts usually use the same thematic progression mode to develop texts, while Chinese science and technology texts tend to use the same thematic progression mode to promote texts. Therefore, in translation, we must not blindly pursue formal equivalence with the original text, but make clear the information structure of the original text, clarify the author's thinking, and make necessary adjustments according to the needs of the translation, so as to achieve maximum functional equivalence.

**Example 5**: The smaller particulates are called aerosols. The largest aerosols are just visible with a good microscope. Examples are the finer components of tobacco smoke, insect dusts, and larger viruses.

**Translation**: 较小的颗粒物叫气溶胶。香烟烟雾的微粒、杀虫剂的粉末和大的病毒是最大的气溶胶，可用高分辨率的显微镜进行观察。

The translation does not follow the sequence of the source text, but integrates the two or three sentences into one sentence, and puts the content of the third sentence before the second sentence, which makes the translation appear more compact, clearer in logic and achieves very good results.
F. Information Structure

In scientific English discourse, important information is often highlighted at the beginning of the sentence to show its importance, while in Chinese, on the contrary, the most important information is usually placed at the end of the sentence to give people a sense of yet we called and urged a thousand times before she started toward us. When translating such texts, the translator should adjust the information structure of the translation appropriately according to the characteristics of Chinese.

Example 6: Aluminum remained unknown until the nineteenth century, because now here in nature is it found free, owing to its always being combined with other elements, most commonly with oxygen, for which it has a strong affinity.

Translation: 铝总是跟其它元素结合在一起, 最普通的是跟氧结合, 因为铝跟氧有很强的亲和力。由于这个原因, 在自然界找不到游离状态的铝, 所以, 铝直到 19 世纪才被人发现。

Through word order adjustment, the translation conforms to the expression order of Chinese first cause and then result, and pays attention to the writing habit of semantic logic. Such a translation not only conforms to the expression habits of Chinese, but also appears clear in structure, coherent in meaning and smooth.

G. Overall Coherence

In translation practice, we usually have the feeling that if we look at a single sentence in isolation, there seems to be no problem with the translation, but if we look at the translation from the perspective of the whole text, we will feel that the translation is not coherent, logical, and confusing and awkward to read. In this case, the translator is required to consider the whole thing and adjust or reconstruct the necessary parts according to the expression habits of Chinese.

Example 7: Initial trips will be within 30 feet or so from the lander, though the rover can maintain radio contact with the lander more than half a mile away.

译文：尽管漫游者离开着陆舱半英里也能与它保持无线电联系, 但漫游者最初离开着陆舱仅限于 30 英尺左右之内。

The translation of this sentence does not carry out literal translation in the order of the original text, but takes into account the coherence and clarity of the full text's semantics. According to the expression habits of Chinese, the clauses used as adverserial elements in the original text are advanced. Therefore, the text of the translation has very good coherence, and the semantic expression is simple, clear and understandable.

VI. CONCLUSION

Based on Halliday’s and Hasan’s cohesion theory, this paper discusses several translation strategies to keep the translation coherence in EST text translation, hoping to provide some enlightenment for the research of EST text translation. Translation takes place at the level of words or sentences as well as the level of discourse, that is, focusing on the connection between sentences and sentences, paragraphs and paragraphs. The process of text translation is essentially the process of identifying and reconstructing text coherence. Whether the coherence in the original text can be reproduced and whether the communicative function of the translation can be realized depends to a great extent on the translation strategy to be adopted by the translator. Therefore, in translation practice, we must establish a clear view of the text. On the basis of fully understanding the structure of the original text, using Chinese cohesion and coherence methods flexibly to make the translation express the meaning of the original text fully and completely, and conform to the expression habits of Chinese also, be accepted by Chinese readers, ensure the accuracy of each translation, and make contributions to scientific and cultural exchanges between China and foreign countries.

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Minggao Wei was born in 1983. He is currently a postgraduate in the College of Foreign Languages, University of Shanghai for Science and Technology, Shanghai, China. His major is Master of Translation and Interpretation.

Gaofeng Yu graduated from Nankai University in 1988. He is currently an Associate Professor at University of Shanghai for Science and Technology. His research interests mainly are cognitive linguistics and translation theory and practice.
A Research on English Translation of Public Signs in Shanxi Province—Based on Three-dimension in Eco-translatology

Zhaodong Zeng
School of Foreign Languages, Shanxi Normal University, Linfen, 041000, China

Abstract—As Shanxi province enjoys rich tourist attractions, there are many problems in English version of public signs in tourism attractions, like mistakes in English usage, unreasonable pragmatic function, obscure cultural transmission and unidiomatic expressions. Based on eco-translatology put forward by Hu Gengshen, the article seeks to explore how to standardize the translation of public signs in Shanxi tourist attractions with linguistic dimension, cultural dimension and communicative dimension and to give some strategies and advice to promote its tourism development.

Index Terms—eco-translatology, tourist attractions in Shanxi, English translation of public signs, translation studies

I. INTRODUCTION

Shanxi province of north China is blessed with rich tourism resources while its tourism develops at a slow pace. As the Belt and Road Initiative presses ahead, an ever increasing number of foreign tourists flood into China to visit inviting and exotic scenery in China and learn about Chinese culture. That promises an exciting opportunity and an enabling climate for Shanxi's tourism growth. The introduction and marketing event for Shanxi province was held by Chinese Ministry of Foreign Affairs in Beijing on February 25, 2019. As part of its efforts of responding to this event, Shanxi has to improve its public sign translation in tourist attractions, which plays an indispensable role in introducing Shanxi to the rest of the world. Translation of public signs can not only serve as a mirror of the quality and level of tourism services in Shanxi province tourist attractions, but also make a great difference to publicity image of Shanxi and even China. However, tourist attractions in Shanxi province are confronted with a great deal of various problems in English translation. Rare researches and studies from the perspective of ecological translation have been conducted by scholars in the past years to probe into the English translation of public signs in tourist attractions in Shanxi province. This paper, on the basis of ecological translation put forwarded by Professor Hu Gengshen as theoretical framework, seeks to analyze the problems in English translation in Shanxi tourist attractions from three dimensions of linguistic dimension, cultural dimension and communicative dimension. The paper will come up with some relevant translation strategies and solutions and try to provide a new perspective for English translation of public signs in Shanxi tourist attractions as part of endeavors to push forward the tourism growth in Shanxi province and make Shanxi’s development driven more by its tourism sector.

II. ENGLISH TRANSLATION OF PUBLIC SIGNS IN TOURIST ATTRACTIONS AND THE CURRENT SITUATION IN SHANXI TOURIST ATTRACTIONS

Tourism translation is a type of translation (practice) for tourism activities, tourism specialty and tourism industry and an interactive activity typical of trans-language, trans-society, trans-times-and-space, trans-culture and trans-emotion features. Tourism translation involves many kinds of texts and is applied frequently, highly practical and lively in style (Chen Gang, 2014). There are many tourism materials, for instance, illustrative handbook, map, public signs, commentary of tour guides and so forth. The purpose of tourism translation is to convey to foreign tourists the cultural information of a certain region in an accurate and friendly way. When it comes to tourism translation, if the translator does not take different cultural factors into serious consideration and yet simply transform the literal meanings of texts in two languages, then the purpose of tourism translation will, if any, be far difficult to be achieved. Beyond that, some unnecessary mistakes and misunderstandings will get in the way and take a toll on publicity image.

Public signs in tourist attractions mainly refer to various texts, graphs, signs and relevant information, for example, introduction texts about scenic spots, guideposts in and outside scenic spots, signs of public facilities and services, rules and regulations for tourists and other types of materials of warning and prompt related to tourism services (Yang Beiyi, 2018). As an integral part of tourism attractions, public signs has the capabilities to direct and prompt tourists and provide tourists with accurate and clear guiding and cultural information. That means, on the one hand, English translation of public signs in tourist attractions needs to be standard and accurate and conform to the expression habits of target language. On the other hand, it is indispensable to add some related cultural information in order to promote
Chinese culture and customs and help foreign tourists get a better understanding of Chinese culture.

There is a popular saying, “if you want to learn about China in the past century, you would better observe Shanghai; if in the past one thousand years, Xi’an, the capital city of Shaanxi province of north China; if in the past five thousand years, Shanxi province,” which vividly highlights that Shanxi province enjoys a time-honored history. Shanxi is not only home to a sea of natural landscape but also a flood of time-honored cultural tourism attractions. It enjoys a great number of national 5A tourist attractions such as Wutai Mountain known as “a holy place for Buddhism”, Yungang Grottoes, one of four great grottoes in China, best-preserved Pingyao ancient city, Royal Prime Minister’s Palace and Qiao’s Grand Courtyard as well as Heng Mountain and Xukong Temple and so on. Some of those tourist attractions have both inviting natural landscape and profound Chinese traditional culture and thoughts. English translation of public signs in tourist attractions features prominently in introducing these tourism places to foreign tourists and attracting them. Excellent public signs can fully exhibit Shanxi’s distinct culture. However, the situation of English version of public signs in Shanxi is anemic as there are various problems in translating. Public signs fail to attract tourists and promote its culture, and even worse, may bring out some misunderstandings for foreign tourists, causing a bad impact on the sustainable and healthy development of Shanxi tourism economy and the publicity image of Shanxi province.

A. Mistakes in Vocabulary and Grammar

Some basic problems in tourist attractions are misspelling of words, wrong use of single and plural form of nouns and incorrect grammatical usage in sentence structure. In an introduction text of figure of Buddha in Yungang Grottoes, there are some mistakes of misspelling. The original text is “释迦牟尼佛像, 高 15.5 米, 北墙……”, and its English version is “The sakyamuni buddhas, 15.5 metres high on the north wall……” (Liu Hongqing, Xu Jing, 2016). In terms of the meaning the Chinese text tries to convey, “buddhas” are misspelled in English version. It should have been the plural form “buddhas”. Thus after the correction, it is “The sakyamuni buddhas, 15.5 metres high on the north wall……”. In the website of Yungang Grottoes for external propaganda, a sentence says “Cave 1 and Cave 2 from a pair of Buddhist cave temples”. It is obvious that “form” is misspelled and it should be corrected as “from”. These two words look similar in their spelling but have totally different usages and meanings. Accurate grammar of target language is the foundation of conveying semantic meaning. The phrase “Please entrance” in some entrances of Yungang Grottoes falls under the category of incorrect grammatical use. The word “entrance” is a noun and “please” must be followed by a verb rather than a noun. The phrase can be translated into “Entrance”.

B. Confusion in English Translation

There are different translation versions of the same tourism spot in many tourist attractions of Shanxi, which may confuse foreign tourists. Some public signs and names of target language in public space are of different types and not standardized. For instance, there exist various English versions of restroom in Yungang Grottoes, as some are translated into “ W.C. ”, which is clearly out of date, some are “ washroom ” an some others are “ man, woman ”. Anyway there is no standardized and unified English version of “厕所” or “卫生间” in Chinese. In fact, men’s and women’s restrooms can be respectively translated into “ male ” and “ female ”, and indoor restrooms and outdoor restrooms can be respectively standardized as “ toilet ” and “ washroom ”. Beyond that, some scenic spots do not have unified names of target language. “五台山” has different translation versions like “ Wutai Mountain , The Wutai Mountain , Mount Wutai , Mt. Wutai ”. In Wutai Mountain, “释迦牟尼” also has different translation versions as some are translated in the way of Chinese Pinyin , some are translated in Sanskrit and some others are translated in English. But the correct name should be “Sakyamuni ”. As for “罗汉” and “菩萨”, there are even more translation versions, the one and only standardized and accurate English name are respectively “ Bodhisattva ” and “ Arahat ” (Li Ertao, 2010).

C. Dysfunction of Public Signs of Target Language

The function of public signs is to direct, guide and warn tourists to achieve some certain purposes. Weakening, strengthening or obscuring the function of public signs make it possible that tourists receive unreasonable emotional expressions, misunderstand the information provided by public signs and feel stressed. In Pingyao Ancient City of Shanxi province, on one old hall reads a sentence, “大堂照相取景收费” and its English version is “ Collecting Fees of Taking Photos in the Court ”. In this English version, the actor of the verb “ collect ” is ambiguous, which fails to reach the goal of conveying correct information as foreign tourists get confused about who exactly collects fees, photo takers or others. It can be translated into “We would charge for taking photos in the court”. In Jin Temple Garden of Taiyuan City, beside the lake reads a Chinese sentence “请爱护水” and it is translated into “ Please Don’t Pollute the Water ”. Here the translation is rigid in its tone and foreign tourists may assume that Chinese people think they would have the intention of deliberately polluting water. That may lead to misunderstanding and unpleasure to foreign tourists. It can be translated into “Please Keep the Water Clean”.

III. THE BASIC CONNOTATION OF ECO-TRANSLATOLOGY

Eco-translatology is a translation theory put forward by Chinese scholar Hu Gengshen on the basis of “adaptive
selection theory” of Charles Darwin and represents the original translation theory with Chinese indigenous distinctive features that Chinese scholars have offered for the first time (Chen Jinlian, 2015). Eco-translatology is an interdisciplinary translation theory that integrates ecology with translation. Eco-translatology is both a “metaphor” and a “notional reference”. The former means that it represents an integral study that conducts a metaphorical analogy between translational ecology and natural ecology, while the latter means that it tends to depend on the inter-relationship between the translator and the translational ecological environment, especially the research on the translator’s living situation and ability development in the translation process (Hu Gengshen, 2008). Eco-translatology emphasizes the translator as the center and argues that translation means adaptive selection. It puts forward brand new concepts and descriptions of nature of translation, translational eco-environment, translation process, translation principle, translation method and assessment standard. From the perspective of Eco-translatology, nature of translation is “the selective activity of the translator adapting to translational eco-environment”. It emphasizes two aspects of translation process: one is that the translator seeks to adapt to the eco-environment of original texts with original texts as the typically prominent component; the other one is that the translator “makes choices” of the translation text with the translator as the typically prominent component after completely adapting. Translational eco-environment refers to the world where the original text, language and target language stay. In other words, it is seen as a whole where language, communication, culture, society, writer, reader and agent are interrelated (Hu Gengshen, 2008). Translation principle can be generalized as “multi-dimensional adaption and adaptive selection”. Translation method means that the translator conducts “three-dimensional transformation” in the translation process, including linguistic dimension, cultural dimension and communicative dimension and the translator needs to do the transformation of various degrees between source language and target language from multiple dimensions. This paper will employ “three-dimensional transformation” translation method to analyze the problems in English translation of public signs in tourist attractions of Shanxi province.

IV. Strategies for English Version of Public Signs in Shanxi

As far as Eco-translatology is concerned, the nature of translation is “the selective activity of the translator adapting to translational eco-environment”, which means the translator’s adaption to the eco-environment of source language and his or her selection of target language after adaptation. In the translation process, the translator needs to do the transformation between two languages from linguistic dimension, cultural dimension and communicative dimension, which is the translation method in eco-translatology. In a general sense, the higher a translation work’s degree of “multi-dimensional adaptation” and “adaptive selection” is, the higher its “degree of holistic adaptation and selection” is (Hu Gengshen, 2018, p.4). Therefore, the translator is required to make the highest “degree of holistic adaptation and selection” to the best of his or her ability. As Shanxi province boasts various types of human and natural landscape with distinct features, the translation of public signs features prominently in appealing to foreign tourists and promoting charming Shanxi culture. This paper will, from the perspective of three dimension of eco-translatology, analyze problems in English translation of public signs in Shanxi tourist attractions and offer some recommendations for improvement and some translation strategies with the eco-environment of Shanxi taken into full consideration.

A. Linguistic Transformation

Professor Hu Gengshen holds the view that the adaptive transformation from the linguistic dimension is “the adaptive transformation of linguistic form in the translation process”. English and Chinese are quite different in expression form, style and rules of use. Chinese focuses on “integration of meaning” while English “coordination of form”; Chinese features its frequent use of short clauses whose meanings are connected through internal relation, while in English, meanings of clauses are connected through conjunctions, prepositions and the like as a way of constructing a complete sentence. In eco-translatology, making translation text adapt to linguistic dimension means the adaptive transformation of linguistic form in the translation process. The transformation includes writing genre, wording and phrasing, sentence structure and language style (Chen Gang, 2004). That requires the translator should conform to the meaning of source language and not be restricted to the syntactic structure of source language when translating. The translator must convey the meaning that source text tries to express after the adaptive selection.

In the translation of public signs in Shanxi tourist attractions, the translator needs to fully comprehend the meaning of source text in order to ensure that the meaning of target language is consistent with that of source language. The translator needs to transform the source language by employing linguistic dimension strategy and make target language in accordance with its eco-translatology to form a smooth and proper text of target language. In Yungang Grottoes of Datong of north Shanxi, on one sign reads a sentence for introduction, “窟中上方开东、西两个明窗” and its translation is “On the upper part of each eastern and western walls is an opening used as a window”. It is clear that there are two windows in Chinese text rather than the single form of “a window” in English text. There stands an error between the meanings conveyed in Chinese and in English. This sentence can be translated into “On the upper part of each eastern and western walls are two openings used as windows” after the adaptive transformation of the translation text. In Wutai Mountain, a public sign says, “文化灿烂、古建成群、文物荟萃、珍品云集，是中国古建、雕塑、绘画的艺术宝库” and its English version is “There are splendid cultures, ancient architectures and treasured relics and it is really the artistic legacy” (Chang Hua, 2011). In Chinese language, four-character idioms are frequently employed as they are
readable and easy to be understood which are absent in English. That means the translator needs to select a translation text accordant with English expression forms and habits after completely understanding the meaning of source text and without being locked in the forms of source text. There are some synonymous expressions in the Chinese text such as “文物荟萃” and “珍品云集” that are partly deleted and integrated and then translated into “treasured relics” to conform to the eco-environment of target language as English tends to avoid repetition.

The English version of public signs in Shanxi tourist attractions serves as a direct channel for introducing Shanxi culture to foreign tourists and a pivotal way of communication with them. From the perspective of eco-translationology, the meaning of English translation text must be consistent with that of the Chinese text. For that to happen, the translator is required to avoid misspelling, grammatical mistakes, semantic distortion and so forth, and to convey the meaning of source text in an accurate way. On top of that, the translator must conduct transformations of various degrees with the eco-environment of target language taken into full consideration and ensure that the translation text should be accordant with English expression habits and adaptive to the eco-environment.

B. Cultural Transformation

Eco-translationology thinks the adaptive transformation from the cultural dimension refers to “the translator focuses on the conveying and interpretation of cultural connotations of two languages in the translation process”. That requires the translator should attach importance to the communication of cultures and thoughts between Chinese and English, ensure to convey thoughts of Chinese text to readers of target language and try not to lead to cultural misunderstanding and ideal conflicts. It is difficult for foreign tourists to understand Chinese culture given the great differences in histories and cultures between China and English-speaking countries. Therefore, the translator needs to be familiar with the culture of both source language and target language, which makes it possible to introduce to foreign tourists the unique culture of source language via translation. Foreign tourists who know little about scenic spots will not get a better understanding and even hold misconceptions about distinctive regional cultures if the translator simply translates the literal meaning of public signs.

In Wutai Mountain, an introduction about Luohou Temple says, “始建于唐, 明万历年间由太后李娘娘重建, 清康熙年间, 改黄庙 (由喇嘛主持)” and its English version is “It is found in Tang Dynasty and rebuilt by empress Li, the mother of emperor, in Wanli Period of Ming Dynasty. Later, it was changed to Yellow Temple (presidented over by Lamaists) in Kangxi Period of Qing Dynasty” (Wang Yun, 2009). Firstly, in terms of grammar, “is found” should be corrected as “was founded” and “presidented” as “presided”. Secondly, from the cultural dimension, the English translation fails to help foreign tourists understand Buddhism culture in Wutai Mountain as some unfamiliar terms and names to them are not explained such as “唐”, “明万历年间”, “太后”, “清康熙年间” and “黄庙”. According to the eco-environment of ecocurrentalology, the English translation needs to be transformed from the cultural dimension. Accordingly, necessary supplementary information is needed to explain the dynasties, for example, Tang Dynasty (A.D. 618-907), Wanli Period of Ming Dynasty(Wanli, A.D. 1572-1620, is the reign title of the emperor Zhu Yijun), Kangxi Period of Qing Dynasty (Kangxi, A.D. 1662-1722, is the reign title of fourth emperor). “Yellow temple”, “黄庙” in Chinese, refers to, which are absent in English translation and needed to explain. Therefore, the sentence can be translated into “it was changed to Yellow Temple, the temple of Tibetan Buddhism for lama” by adding necessary cultural information.

Nida believes that “one of the most important factors of determining the purpose of translation is recipients” and “texts are meaningful only when they are understood by recipients” (Zhu Yumin, 2015). When translating the public signs into English in Shanxi tourist attractions, the translator must fully understand and unmask the history and culture of source language behind the literal meaning. Meanwhile, the translator learns about the historical and cultural background of foreign tourists and then conducts the transformation from the cultural dimension. The English translation of public signs can not only communicate the cultural connotation of scenic spots but also be capable of triggering tourists’ interests and appreciation.

C. Communicative Transformation

Eco-translationology argues that the adaptive transformation from the cultural dimension is “the adaptive transformation when the translator focuses on the communicative purpose of two languages in the translation process”. The purpose of translation is not to simply convey information and culture by transforming source language into target language. The translator needs to build a connection between readers of target language and original texts and make them get superior feelings from translation texts as a way to achieve the purposes of source texts. The translator needs to make full use of all kinds of knowledge and information in her or his cognitive context to induce the communicative purpose behind the source text from different aspects like linguistic form and content, find out the optimal relevance between the information of source text and context setting and ultimately acquire the contextual effect of communication (Huang Dongqun, 2016). There will be a drop between the translation text and the expectation of readers of target language if the communicative purpose of the translation is ignored, making it difficult for readers of target language to accept the translation and causing the failure of communicative purpose.

In Pingyao Ancient City, some English translations of public signs that lack culture-dimensional adaptive
transformation are incongruent with the eco-translatology of English. For example, one public sign reads, “不许随地吐痰、大小便” and it is translated into “Don’t spit, piss and shit everywhere”. This translation is far too colloquial and even a little bit vulgar as it fails to take into consideration the emotional factor and cultural background of English readers. It does not produce any communicative effect yet raises some doubt about Chinese ceremonies and spoils tourists’ pleasure of travelling. For another instance, the public sign “闲人免进” in Yungang Grottoes is translated into “Admittance Denied to Idlers” which reads stiff and gives a unpleasant feeling. The translator can learn native expressions of foreign public signs in terms of such kind of English translation and acquaint herself or himself with English readers’ expectation of translation. Here it can be translated into “Staff Only” which is readable and accordant with English communicative habits.

Public signs need to be effortless to be understood by foreign tourists and make tourists ready to cooperate in order to reach the purpose of communication. Therefore, when it comes to communicative dimension transformation, the translator must take into full consideration foreign tourists’ communicative thinking pattern and cognitive habits and avoid making the translation rigid and stiff. In addition, the translator needs to be clear about the communicative purpose of source texts and foster an optimal context.

V. Conclusion

As the Belt and Road Initiative presses ahead, China is seeing a growing number of foreign tourists, which promises an exciting opportunity for the tourism development of Shanxi province. Meanwhile, Ministry of Foreign Affairs of China has held a global introduction and marketing event for Shanxi province as a way of pushing forward its transformation of development model. Such being the case, it is essential to study how to standardize the English translation of public signs in tourist attractions of Shanxi province as it serves as a “window” for foreign tourists to learn about Shanxi.

This paper, based on eco-translatology, employs the three-dimensional translation method to discuss and analyze some typical cases in the English translation of public signs of Shanxi tourist attractions. That is how this paper seeks to offer some suggestions and strategies for English translation of public signs and reach the psychological expectation of foreign tourists. This paper hopes to provide a new translation perspective to improve English translation in Shanxi province in a way that helps Shanxi fully exhibit and promote its culture and boost its cultural soft power.

References


Zhaodong Zeng was born in Xinzhou, Shanxi province of China in 1995. He received his bachelor degree in English Teaching from Xinzhou Teachers University, China in 2017. He is currently a graduate in the School of Foreign Languages, Shanxi Normal University, Linfen, China. His research interests include foreign linguistics and applied linguistics.
Improving Upper-intermediate EFL Learners’ Communicative Competence through Authentic Materials

Mohammad Hossein Keshmirshekan
Department of English, Faculty of Humanities, Yazd University, Yazd, Iran

Abstract—The present study aimed to investigate the effects of authentic materials on enhancing Iranian English as a foreign language learners’ communicative competence. To this end, 106 upper-intermediate participants out of 136 were selected based on their performance an Oxford Placement Test (OPT) and randomly assigned to two equal groups: one experimental group and one control group. Then a pre-test was administered to assess the participants’ communicative competence at the beginning of the course. Then, the experimental group received the treatment. The control group was taught the course content using the regular communicative method through which students received teacher-course from the textbook. After the treatment, the two groups took the post-test. The data analysis through paired and independent sample t-tests revealed that the experimental group outperformed the control group on the posttest. In other words, teaching authentic materials showed to have a significant effect on improving learners' communicative competence. The implications, limitations, and suggestions of this study are explained at the end of the study.

Index Terms—authenticity, authentic materials, communicative competence, upper-intermediate EFL learners

I. INTRODUCTION

The ratification of the communicative competence in second- or foreign-language instruction has set more significant errand on the accomplishment of practical capacities in the target language. More obviously, language teaching has moved from a syntactic perspective to an informative perspective that underscores understanding and proper utilization of language in communicative contexts. In other words, the major concern in second and foreign-language educational programs has changed from cultivating students' semantic/syntactic precision to upgrading students' communicative competence that is important for real life communication. Continually, there is a requirement for including parts of communicative competence in the English as foreign language classroom (Littlewood, 1992).

Bataineh and Hussein (2015) pointed out that in earlier decades, researchers attempted to plan models of communicative language proficiency and recognized the segments of communicative competence. Additionally, Canale and Swain (1980) proposed the informative fitness model, which contains three essential portions: linguistic skill, sociolinguistic capability, and vital ability. Syntactic skill implies the data that prompts predominance of the language itself. Sociolinguistic ability alludes to how much enunciations are made and saw reasonably in different sociolinguistic settings. Vital skill is the authority of verbal and non-verbal correspondence methodologies that could be actualized to make up for breakdowns in correspondence coming about because of constraining conditions in real correspondence or deficient ability in at least one of different regions of informative fitness, and to upgrade correspondence viability (Hussein & Elttayef, 2016). Also, this is a major intention to distinguish three parts, so as to demonstrate that even those language students who know sentence structure and word implications still neglect to pass on their intended messages since they do not have the essential segments of communicative competence. Each segment is utilized for communication. In real-life communication, everyone utilizes segments of communicative competence to express what s/he mean. In any case, language is more than a device for communication, it also represents social, pragmatic and cultural background. Learning just the target linguistic knowledge cannot effectively connect with students into real-life communications in the target culture.

Hymes (1972) was among the first to utilize the concept of communicative competence. For Hymes, the capacity to talk skillfully not just involves knowing the linguistic tenets of a language, yet in addition realizing what to state to whom in what conditions and how to state it (Namazianidost, Rahimi Esfahani, & Hashemifardnia, 2018). More clearly, a language user should have just a precise learning of phonetic utilization but instead to have a compromise of linguistic competence as communicative competence joining sociolinguistic and relevant skill. Comparability, with improvement of communicative competence, foreign language instructors have come to concur that to have the capacity to collaborate properly with individuals from the target culture, pragmatic, social learners need to likewise learn the principles of language use and the social setting inside which the language is talked.

The wide variety of credible materials ranges from writing, CDs, DVDs, news, movies, TV programs, even to flyers and menus. Floris (2008) points out the requirement for joining real materials in the course structure since they are furthermore moving, and connecting with, and relevant to students' lives. This implies that it is exceptionally important
to teach a foreign language with its legitimate material, since educators discover inconvenience when they show reading materials without authentic forms. EFL students learn lessons without including authentic materials are truly impaired if they attempt to collaborate with individuals from the target language society. This shows that knowledge into stance, development, outward appearances, eyes management, signals, and distancing as they influence communication not only produce sensitivity to other people, as well as extend unavoidably learners' comprehension of their own nonverbal frameworks. Regarding authentic materials, Namaziandost, Rahimi Esfahani, & Hashemifardnia, (2018) express the significance of authentic materials, since when at a sufficient dimension they hoist students' affectability to and ability in the language.

Utilizing authentic material in language educating is maintained among references and various specialists in the field of language instructional strategy. Authentic material gives the understudies various huge focal points and advances their inspiration and excitement for language learning and lead to upgrading informative ability (Namaziandost, Rahimi Esfahani, & Hashemifardnia, 2018; Omid & Azam, 2015). This implies that authentic materials in FL class can be propelling because that they are evidence that the language is utilized for real-life reason by real individuals, and valid writings will convey them closer to the objective language culture. In addition, authentic materials are utilized for learners' communicative competence, learners will have a feeling that the real language for communication is being educated, instead of classroom language itself. They are created to satisfy some social, cultural, and realistic purposes in the language network. In this way, this authentic material will result in them making the learning procedure in general a significantly progressively pleasant and hence, motivating.

Furthermore, Bataineh and Al-Abdali (2015) revealed that socio-cultural capability is vital to create EFL students' English language skill and competences. Throughout Bataineh and Al-Abdali's study, they inferred that innovation particularly web-cam talk is a vital apparatus to progress English language teaching and learning. Rogers and Medley (1988) communicated "the legitimate materials should be qualified the extent that goals, understudies' needs and nature of the huge correspondence" (p. 467). Furthermore, Dornyei (2003) has shown that students' motivation and learning accomplishment are influenced by the teachers' mindsets. Moreover, the utilization of authentic materials assists learners in bridging the gap between classroom learning and their ability to take part in real occasions (Hussein & Eltayef, 2016). In other words, incorporating materials enables learners to gain a compelling communicative competence in the target language. In this regard, a lot of researchers recommend utilizing authentic so as to enable students to learn better data especially in teaching language in FL classroom. Along these lines, they respect the utilization of this sort of authentic materials as a valuable way to propel students, excite their advantage, and expose them to real language, they will face in the real world. Continually, authentic materials encourage students to learn a specific language viably because they are dealing with the language in real life situation. Furthermore, authentic materials have made a perceptible commitment in foreign language teaching and learning, there are additionally a few researchers who are against the utilization of this sort of materials asserting that they have no esteem. In help to this view, the schedule designers are encouraged to consider the students' needs and furnish them with the chance, to have the capacity to impart the educated language in real circumstances by means of the utilization of authentic materials which is viewed as one of the qualities of communicative language teaching.

A. The Objective and Significance of the Study

The goal of the study was to examine the impact of utilizing authentic materials on improving upper-intermediate EFL learners' communicative competence. This study is significant since it helps the existing literature on pedagogical intervention in the improvement of EFL learners' communicative aspects via utilizing authentic materials.

B. Research Question and Null Hypothesis

This study endeavored to answer the following question:

RQ. Do authentic materials have any significant impact on upper-intermediate EFL learners’ communicative competence?

Based on the preceding research question, the following null hypothesis is formulated:

HO 1: Authentic materials do not have any significant impact on upper-intermediate EFL learners’ communicative competence.

II. REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Communicative Competence

The hypothesis of communicative competence was presented because of the Chomskyan revolution in linguistics. A response to Chomsky's to some degree restricting meaning of the extent of linguistic theory left the route open for Hymes (1972) to propose the complementary notion of communicative competence, in which the attention is not on a well-formed sentence but on one which is suitably utilized in an explicit setting. The term communicative competence was defined by Dell Hymes (1972) who characterized it as the learning of the two guidelines of syntax and tenets of language standards of utilization in a given setting. His work plainly showed a move of accentuation among etymologists, far from the investigation of language as a framework in isolation - found in the work of Chomsky (1965) - towards the investigation of language as a system of communication.
As indicated by Chomsky (1965), linguistic competence is the information of language that empowers the speaker-audience to deliver and comprehend a boundless number of articulations and recognize linguistic and ungrammatical sentences. He believes that linguistic competence can be isolated from communicative competence and concentrated in disengagement. However, Hymes (1972) disagrees with Chomsky in this point, he thinks about that linguistic competence and communicative competence are indistinguishable and trusts that the thought of linguistic competence is stunning and there is no advancement without examining types of language alongside the manners by which they are utilized. In another sense, Hymes (1972) did not claim that a language user does not need an exact information of linguistic forms or use, yet rather, he asserted that the ideal learning of phonetic shape is not sufficient to make him/her communicatively competent language user. Wolfson (1989) bolsters Hymes as he would like to think and focuses that grammatical competence is an indistinguishable piece of communicative competence and demonstrates that Hymes accentuates that “Communicative competence is the thing that empowers the individual to perform properly in discourse occasions. It incorporates not just linguistic skill, which enables a person to make a decision to what degree something is formally conceivable, yet in addition the ability to pass judgment on feasibility, appropriateness, and to what degree something is in actuality done” (Cited in Riley, 1996, p. 115). Along these lines, Communicative capability for Hymes incorporates the entire of linguistic competence in addition to the information of the tenets and traditions for utilizing language items in settings.

A few language linguists and sociolinguists categorized communicative competence components into: linguistic component; discursive component; socio-cultural component; and strategic component.

A. Linguistic component: It is the domination of language code itself (syntactico-morphological, semantic, and morphological) rules. Shohamy (1996, p.143) defined it “linguistic component includes knowledge of lexical items and rules of morphology, syntax, semantics and phonology.”

B. Discursive component: It is an information and comprehension of various kinds of discourse (formal/informal speech) and of their association as an element of the circumstance of correspondence inside which they are delivered. In addition, it is the authority of how to consolidate syntactic structures and implications to accomplish a skilled social circumstance. For Shohamy (1996, p.143) “discursive component is identified with authority of how to join syntactic structures and implications to accomplish a bound together spoken or composed content in various classes.” Schachter (1983, p. 144) relates her definition to cohesion and coherence in written or spoken text, “discourse knowledge is viewed as cohesion and coherence.”

C. Socio-cultural component: It is the learning of the social principles and standards of collaboration between people, including information of social history and of the relations between social articles. It is additionally the capacity to utilize and react to language appropriately given the setting and subject and the connection between individuals communicating. Shohamy (1996, p.143) defines it “knowledge of socio-cultural rules of use.”

D. Strategic component: it is concerned with the strategies of communication and how to utilize them. For Van EK (1995), “it is the ability to use compensatory to resolve communicative problems and deficiencies (break downs in communication)” (p. 18).

With regards to the role of authentic materials in the language classroom, both Omid and Azam (2015) and Namaziandost, Rahimi Esfahani, and Hashemifardnia, (2018) agree that they are not made for language showing purposes and don't have "thought up or disentangled language." papers, magazines, accounts, or maps are clear occurrences of legitimate materials. Regardless, Morrow (1977) goes further and ensures that "a bona fide context is a stretch of genuine language, made by a certified speaker or creator for a real gathering of individuals and expected to pass on a genuine message or something like that" (p. 13). This last definition totally supplements that language reality and true materials should be understood inside the outside/second language getting the hang of setting as any kind of spoken or composed act which does not contain any pursues or signs of language showing mediation, and rises up out of the maker's very own first language, culture, and prerequisites for correspondence. Given the appreciation and qualities of authentic materials, various scientists have regarded and criticized their use in the remote/second language study classroom. From one perspective, Omid and Azam (2015) claim that authentic materials are proper means for learners to adapt to the authentic language of this present reality. Likewise, Peacock (1997) comments that authentic materials "may build students’ dimensions of on-undertaking conduct, fixation, and association in the objective movement more than counterfeit materials” (p. 152).

So as to conquer these troubles, Namaziandost, Sabzevari, and Hashemifardnia (2018) recommended that when students are tested by the intricacy of some genuine dialect highlights, it is important to give instructive help by pointing out learners’ equal articulations that are different in linguistic structure or wording/expressing in the languages that are found out. Consequently, since authenticity does not really signify "great," similarly as creation does not signify "terrible" (Namaziandost, Sabzevari, & Hashemifardnia, 2018), this investigation put the utilization of authentic materials as a system to supplement the utilization of non-authentic materials, and with the objective of satisfying the students' communicative needs.

Soliman (2013) endeavored to perceive Libyan EFL instructors’ attitudes and convictions with respect to the utilization of authentic reading materials at college level in Libya. Ensuing to using frame of mind and trusts poll toward the use of bona fide materials to EFL teachers from the University of Gareuness in Libya the results demonstrated that EFL Libyan instructors had a rousing demeanor towards the use of credible material. Additionally,
the examination demonstrated that a perfect perusing class ought to use a mix of both bona fide messages and course books. Accordingly, language programs should consider carrying real materials into the instructive modules as a gadget to improve the present learning condition. The possibility of valid material in homeroom outfits students with opportunities to get introduced to and practice a language that typically occurs outside the study hall. Regardless, the impact of valid materials on language execution at various measurements has exhibited upgrade in language execution because of presentation to real language in the classroom. In this way, real material furnishes the students with numerous huge preferences and advances students with high inspiration and enthusiasm for language learning and Students' accomplishment in learning EFL is constantly affected by educators' demeanors.

Furthermore, Omid and Azam (2015) carried out a study on the impact of utilizing authentic materials in the foreign language classrooms. The outcomes uncovered that the majority of the educators had positive attitudes toward giving authentic contribution to their classes, paying little notice to their nationality, showing foundation, and educational degree. The clarification behind such a frame of mind was to upgrade students' capacities and open them to the genuine English language. What's more, educators demonstrated that they would in general utilize more authentic materials in perusing as opposed to listening classes. Moreover, the outcomes showed that the web and TV would be the most utilized hotspots for acquiring authentic materials. As indicated by this examination, the educators differ on the reasonable dimension of learners for exhibiting such materials. The majority of the instructors believed that the language dimension of the content and the course destinations are the managing criteria for choosing suitable writings. At long last, most members showed a requirement for extra preparing in utilizing authentic materials, especially in planning suitable tasks. The consequences of this examination could be seen as a beginning stage for further investigation into the utilization of authentic materials in EFL educating.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

The participants of this study were 106 upper-intermediate language learners who were selected through availability sampling among 136 EFL learners at a private language institute in Yazd, Iran. The selected institute was purposefully chosen by the researcher for the following reasons: Firstly, it has up-to-date Internet connected laboratories. Secondly, it has enough number of students. The participants' age range was from 19 to 22. The selected participants have been studying English as a foreign language for at least six years. Their level of English language proficiency was determined on the basis of their scores on the Oxford Quick Placement Test (OQPT). The learners were randomly divided into two groups, the experimental group (n=53) who used authentic materials, and the control group (n=53) who used the regular communicative method.

B. Instruments

The primary instrument which was utilized in the present investigation to homogenize the members was the OQPT. It helped the scientist to have a more prominent comprehension of what level (i.e., elementary, pre-intermediate, upper-intermediate, and advance) her members were at. Based on OQPT standards, the learners whose scores were between 38 to 47 (out of 60) were considered as the upper-intermediate learners. The next and the most important instrument for gathering the needed data to answer the research question was Key English Test (KET) which was administered as both pre-test and posttest. There was no distinction between the pre-test and posttest regarding time and the quantity of things. The main contrast of posttest test from the pre-test was that the request of inquiries and options was changed to crash the plausible review of pre-test answers. The pretest was administered before the treatment to decide the actual level of communicative competence of both groups. The KET evaluates language execution through three papers: perusing and composing (R&W), which gauges 50; tuning in (LIST), which conveys 25 points; and (talking), which conveys 25 points. The test is intended to keep going for two hours around and during its execution, members are required to comprehend straightforward composed data, produce basic composed messages, and get declarations and other spoken material when individuals talk sensibly gradually. Then, after 20 sessions of treatment, the posttest was administered to see if authentic materials have an effect on upper-intermediate EFL learners' communicative competence. To avoid subjectivity, students were interviewed by a team of six external native examiners of English, each one evaluates their level of English and the average score of each examinee was calculated.

What is significant before utilizing any instrument of examination is to ensure that it meets all the necessity of a decent test i.e., it ought to be legitimate, dependable and with a satisfactory level of trouble. In this manner, the test was tested to make sure of its validity, accuracy, clarity and the appropriateness of the tool. Although KET is a standard test and its validity was previously confirmed, the validity of the test was confirmed by 5 English experts who were familiar with second language research and were taught English for more than 18 years. Moreover, to establish the reliability of the test, scores were calculated after testing and re-testing with two weeks between them. The researcher calculated the reliability coefficient of the results of the test and it was (r=0.986).

C. Instructional Treatment
Various authentic materials were utilized by the researcher as contemporary instructional technology. The sources of authentic materials that used in the classroom were infinite, but the most common were newspapers, magazines, Brochures, Greeting Cards, Wall Papers, Television programs, films, tunes, and writing. A standout amongst the most valuable was the Internet. Though papers and some other written word date all around rapidly, the Internet was ceaselessly refreshed, all the more outwardly animating just as being intelligent, in this manner advancing a more dynamic way to deal with showing instead of an aloof one. Moreover, authentic materials like CDs, DVDs, and YouTube videos were used that present an authentic image of everyday life of the English language community.

D. Data Collection Procedure

In the first step, 106 upper-intermediate students from a private language institute were selected through administering an Oxford Quick Placement Test (OQPT). Then the chosen participants were randomly divided into two equal groups; an experimental and a control group. The learners were pre-tested in order to know their actual level of English before starting the treatment. After the participants were all pre-tested, the treatment was practiced on both groups. At then end of the study, to ensure the effectiveness of instructions and to assess learners’ communicative competence, a posttest was administered. The scores were tabulated and prepared for statistical analysis.

E. Statistical Analysis

The collected data through the aforesaid procedures were analyzed and interpreted according to the objectives of the study. Firstly, Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) test was run to check the normality of the gathered data. Then, descriptive statistics were calculated through using SPSS software, version 25. Finally, Independent and paired Samples Test were run to determine the effectiveness of authentic materials on Iranian EFL learners’ communicative competence.

IV. RESULTS

The gathered data were analyzed through using SPSS, version 25. Firstly, the normality of the data was checked.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pretest</td>
<td>Experimenta Group</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>43.56</td>
<td>2.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Control Group</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>42.94</td>
<td>2.17</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In Table 2, the descriptive statistics of both groups is illustrated. The means of both groups are almost equal. The control group’s mean score is 42.94 and the experimental group's mean score is 43.56. This means that both groups had almost an equal performance on the pre-tests.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Levene’s Test for Equality of Variances</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Difference</th>
<th>Std. Error Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pretest Equal variances assumed</td>
<td>.005</td>
<td>.944</td>
<td>1.43</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>.154</td>
<td>.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variances not assumed</td>
<td>1.43</td>
<td>103.77</td>
<td>.154</td>
<td>.43</td>
<td>.43</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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Table 3 illustrates that the Sig (.154) is greater than 0.05, therefore there is no significant difference between the experimental and control groups at the beginning of the study (p<0.05). In fact, they performed the same on the pre-test.

### TABLE IV.
GROUP STATISTICS (POST-TEST OF BOTH GROUPS)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>65.09</td>
<td>1.99</td>
<td>.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>43.52</td>
<td>2.79</td>
<td>.38</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4 indicates the descriptive statistics of the post-test of the both groups. The control group's mean score in posttest is 43.52 and the experimental group's mean score in posttest is 65.09. This means that the experimental group performed better than the control group on the post-test.

### TABLE V.
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST (THE POST-TEST OF BOTH GROUPS)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Levene's Test for Equality of Variances</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
<th>Mean Difference</th>
<th>Std. Error Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Equal variances assumed</td>
<td>8.28</td>
<td>.005</td>
<td>45.70</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>21.56</td>
<td>.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variances not assumed</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>45.70</td>
<td>93.95</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>21.56</td>
<td>.47</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5 indicated that the difference between EG and CG posttest scores was of statistical significance due to the fact that the p value under the Sig. (2-tailed) column was less than the significance level (i.e. .000 < .05). In fact, the experimental group outperformed the control group on the post-test. This implies that using authentic materials was effectual in assisting EFL learners acquire the communicative competence.

### TABLE VI.
PAIRED SAMPLES STATISTICS (PRE AND POST-TESTS OF BOTH GROUPS)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pair</th>
<th>Experimental Group, Posttest</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Experimental Group, Pretest</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>65.09</td>
<td>1.99</td>
<td>.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Control Group, Pretest</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>43.56</td>
<td>2.79</td>
<td>.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Control Group, Posttest</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>42.94</td>
<td>2.17</td>
<td>.29</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As table 6 shows, the mean scores of the control group on the pre and post-tests are 42.94 and 43.52, respectively. The experimental group's mean scores on the pre and post-tests are 43.56 and 65.09, respectively. Table 6 actually shows the amount of progress each group had achieved. The experimental group got an increase of 21.53 in their mean score on the post-test compared with their mean score on the pre-test. On the other hand, the control group got an increase of 0.58 in their mean score on the post-test compared with their mean score on the pre-test. To figure out whether the differences among these mean scores were significant or not, one needs to check the p value under the Sig. column in the paired samples t-test table below (Table 7).

### TABLE VII.
PAIRED SAMPLES T-TEST (PRE AND POST-TESTS OF BOTH GROUPS)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pair</th>
<th>EG, Post – EG, Pre</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>21.52</td>
<td>3.08</td>
<td>.42</td>
<td>50.78</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>58.52</td>
<td>2.23</td>
<td>.30</td>
<td>1.90</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>.062</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In Table 7, the single most important piece of information is the p value under the Sig. (2-tailed) column. This p value should be compared with the pre-specified significance level (i.e., .05) to see if the difference between the pretest and posttest scores had been statistically significant or not. A p value less than .05 would indicate a significant difference between the two sets of scores, while a p value larger than .05 would imply a difference which did not reach statistical significance. As the p value under the Sig. (2-tailed) column in Table 7 was smaller than the significance level (.00 < .05), it could be construed that the difference between the pretest (M = 43.56) and posttest (M = 65.09) of the experimental group learners was of statistical significance. Hence, it can be concluded that there is a statistical impact of authentic materials on the learners’ communicative aspects of language, in which the experimental group got higher scores than the control group. Moreover, the p value under the Sig. (2-tailed) column in Table 7 was smaller than the significance level (.00 < .05), it could be understood that the difference between the pretest (M = 42.94) and posttest (M = 43.52) of the control group learners was not statistically significant.
V. DISCUSSION

The main research question of this study is answered below.

RQ. Do authentic materials have any significant impact on upper-intermediate EFL learners’ communicative competence?

In view of the consequences of the present examination, the experimental group would be advised to execution than the control group on the post-test. As indicated by the information examination, the experimental group and control group had nearly similar scores on the pre-test yet their scores on the post-test were unique. Therefore, authentic materials helped Iranian EFL learners to develop their communicative competence.

As the researcher observed, the students of the experimental group were very eager to learn. The authentic materials were very interesting to the students. The effectiveness of using authentic materials were obvious in the experimental group’ post-test.

The major reason behind the attained results is using authentic materials. There is a general accord among scientist in language instructing that "the utilization of real materials in the study hall is helpful to the learning procedure” (Namaziandost, Rahimi Esfahani, & Hashemifardnia, 2018, p. 9). They are full of feeling as they are certifiable in time, area and individuals. As it were, they advise about recent developments in reality and in this manner, it is simple for learners to relate the occasions to their very own understanding, to what they know, and to what is commonplace to them. Legitimate materials are viewed as the most appropriate methods for demonstrating the authentic utilization of English for communication instead of materials which were planned particularly to educate purposes.

The significance of utilizing real materials is commonly recognized as they may be "a method for keeping up or expanding understudies' inspiration for learning as they give the student the inclination that they are in contact with a living substance and the objective language as it is utilized in the network which talks it" (Namaziandost, Rahimi Esfahani, & Hashemifardnia, 2018, p. 9). Most researchers additionally share the supposition that "students ought to be presented to credible content so they may have direct contact with info information which reflects authentic correspondence in the objective language” (Breen, 1985, p.63). Another explanation behind utilizing true materials is that they speak to a boundless hotspot for arranging and sorting out instructing and learning exercises. Bona fide materials are very useful in upgrading students' involvement in adapting new vocabulary so as to utilize them in day by day discussion, and improving them comprehended in genuine correspondence. "Acquiring even a little level of cognizance of bona fide writings gives understudies the trust in managing perusing for genuine purposes” (Omid & Azam, 2015).

One other advantage worth considering is that real materials help understudies stay aware of the "living" language. No language is stationary and solidified; all dialects are in a ceaseless procedure of advancement: they change, advance and create. Certifiable materials record these changes, helping the understudies stay in contact with the language truly utilized in the individual language network. In addition, genuine materials open understudies to a huge scope of content kinds and language styles, which they won't regularly run over in course readings, helping them get progressively intricate information of the language being referred to. Last, however not least, these materials may demonstrate to have an inherent instructive esteem ((Namaziandost, Rahimi Esfahani, & Hashemifardnia, 2018) as they help the students be informed and learn more about that particular culture.

More importantly, by being in contact with these materials, students are exposed to real discourse. These materials can be utilized in class by requesting that the understudies hear them out and expecting them to number the means incorporated into a graph gave. Sources like these and numerous others, are exceptionally valuable as class material as "bona fide writings will incorporate the kind of language which the student may be presented to, to create aptitudes for comprehension, and conceivably even to deliver.” (Namaziandost, Rahimi Esfahani, & Hashemifardnia, 2018, p. 8).

Authentic material may likewise serve to get ready EST understudies for genuine target language informative association. Significantly increasingly, genuine materials mirror the progressions created in language, being the two understudies and instructor refreshed of such changes, since as Namaziandost, Rahimi Esfahani, and Hashemifardnia (2018) designate "the data passed on is probably going to be progressively exact and to have high validity. and will most likely be more exceptional" (Namaziandost, Rahimi Esfahani, & Hashemifardnia, 2018, p. 9). As a result, genuine materials have a surprising instructive incentive since they keep understudies educated about what's going on the planet.

The results of this study are in line with what investigated by Omid and Azam (2015) who adopted a study to explore the effect of using authentic materials in the foreign language classrooms. The outcomes uncovered that the majority of the educators had uplifting dispositions toward giving genuine content to their classes, paying little mind to their nationality, showing background, and scholastic degree. By a similar token, real materials were observed to be a decent instrument for making a persuasive domain. This finding concurred with Soliman (2013) who found that genuine material gives the students numerous noteworthy focal points and advances students with high inspiration and enthusiasm for language learning.

Moreover, the consequences of this examination are in accordance with Marzban and Davaji (2015) who led an exploration concentrate to research the impact of real messages on inspiration and perusing perception of EFL understudies at middle of the road dimension of capability. After organization the exploration, they presumed that "perusing real messages has beneficial outcome on the perusing cognizance of halfway understudies. Directing the inspiration poll on the bona fide gathering indicated positive changes on four areas of inspiration “ (p. 85).
Similarly, Habouti, Mohammad, Mahmoodi and Ziae (2015) have researched the impact of legitimate listening materials on EFL students’ listening perception. The results demonstrated that there were noteworthy contrasts among EFL students in connection to their listening appreciation capacity, true materials were while learning. In another examination, Alijani, Maghsoudi, and Madani (2014) have analyzed the impacts of bona fide materials on listening capacity of sixty female language students. To this point, sixty Iranian EFL students in upper-middle dimension who concentrated in two organizations in Esfahan were taken an interest to this examination. Toward the finish of the examination it was reasoned that utilizing bona fide materials in language classes would be more productive for EFL students than non-legitimate ones. Obviously, in light of the upsides of genuine materials, we concluded they are valuable and relevant. Anderson and Lynch (1988) trusted that if understudies need to a fruitful audience, in actuality, should be progressively dynamic in listening process. As you probably are aware the essential explanation behind learning another dialect is to turn out to be nearer to its way of life and individuals’ (p.156).

VI. CONCLUSION

This study was designed to investigate the effect of authentic materials on developing the learners’ communicative competence. In view of that, future research could examine the effectiveness of authentic materials to enhance other major and sub-skills of the Iranian learners such as reading, writing and listening. It was noted that this research studied male upper-intermediate learners. Hence, future studies could study female EFL learners. Because of the limitation of the present study, this study was done with a restricted number of EFL learners. Therefore, future researchers could be carried out on large number of the learners.

In summary, the present study which aimed to examine the effectiveness using authentic materials on communicative competence showed that authentic materials in teaching the communicative aspects of language and in teaching English language is one of the best chances for language learners to interact and improve their learning and the communicative aspects of language outside/inside classrooms whenever and wherever they desire. Language learners would be able to expand their learning chances and take part in a various kind of learning. In other words, authentic materials aided learners' findings, that was because of their motivational and developed features, easiness, and new method of teaching and learning. This new orientation created a motivated and healthy atmosphere which in terns helped students to study freely, without fear and hesitation, and they could get rid of their shines.

The findings of the present study may be effective for materials and curriculum developers in designing and preparing authentic materials that are more adaptable with those communicative and learner-centered approaches in order to help EFL/ESL learners to utilize language communicatively. Nowadays, the field of communicative and pragmatic competence is very vital specifically in the present condition of need of English in Iran so, changes from the traditional teaching methods which utilize non-authentic based materials to novel and communicative teaching methods which utilizes authentic materials are needed to make sure learners’ engagement in pragmatic competence process. Developing pragmatic competence of language learners is very paramount for academic education. Therefore, EFL/ESL teachers should pay particular attention to this area in their teaching and improve their learners’ ability in pragmatic competence in order to lessen their pragmatic failure.

This study also has a number of limitations. Firstly, in the present study, the number of the participants were limited to 106 students. However, working with bigger groups is more difficult and time-consuming. Secondly, only one level (upper-intermediate) of English students were participated in this study. Thirdly, only male students were included in this study, therefore; the results may not be generalizable to the female students. Fourthly, only 19 to 22 years old students were included in this study.

In order to complement the findings of the present study, the next researches can be suggested:

1. Much empirical research is needed world-wide to further our understanding of the positive effects of the authentic materials on communicative competence.
2. It would be beneficial to look at a larger sample of participants across a broader age range.
3. Next studies are advised to include both genders in order to gain more reliable results.
4. The future studies are offered to examine the effects of authentic materials on other skills and sub-skills of English language.
5. Future studies can be done on other proficiency levels, namely pre-intermediate, intermediate and advanced.

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Mohammad Hossein KeshmiriShekan was born in Yazd Province of Iran in 1981. He holds an MA degree in TELF from University of Yazd. His main interests of research are second language acquisition, EFL teaching, sociolinguistics, contrastive analysis, and language learning strategies. His research papers have been published by various international journals.
Reading *The Color Purple* from the Perspective of Ecofeminism

Lianghong Wu
The Faculty of Foreign Languages, Huaiyin Institute of Technology, Huai’An, Jiangsu 223001, China

**Abstract**—Alice Walker is one of the most influential black female writers in modern America. The summit of her literary achievements, *The Color Purple*, wins her three awards since its publication and becomes a milestone in the black literature. This paper sums up the three stages of the relationship between human, women in particular, and nature—fragmentation, over-sewing and wholeness. In this novel, Walker attempts to arouse black women’s self-consciousness by showing the fragmentation state of black women and nature under oppressions. She looks for ways of over-sewing the broken souls to realize the wholeness of survival. Advocating people to attach importance to the problems of women and environment, Walker expresses her ecofeminist consciousness to establish a harmonious society where human and nature, men and women could co-exist peacefully.

**Index Terms**—Alice Walker, *The Color Purple*, ecofeminism

I. A BRIEF INTRODUCTION TO ALICE WALKER AND THE COLOR PURPLE

Alice Walker is one of the most influential writers in contemporary American literary field. She is not only the first black female Pulitzer winner in American history, but also reputed as a writer comprehensively representing our times. Walker, coining the term “Womanism”, is the spokeswoman of the black women in America who have been ignored by the mainstream culture. Actually, most of her works are feminist- and black-oriented, which go deep into their inner world, portray their suffering, awakening, resistance and independence, and speak highly of their tenacious living ability and strong will of fighting in adversity as well.

*The Color Purple*, generally considered one of her best works, wins her three great American literary awards since its publication in 1982 and is undoubtedly regarded as a great and long lasting masterpiece of American literature. It has captured intensive attention in both western and domestic critical circles. Critics’ research on it covers a wide range of topics. The theme of the novel and the characterization are often the major concerns of scholars. For example, Judith Plant interprets the subject about Celie’s status and believes that holding the naming right can make a forceful stand against fatalism and sexism. (Plant, 1989). There also exists certain research on religion and culture revealed in the novel, as Li Jin points out the importance of religion and culture for the rebirth of black women. (Li, 2004). Some essays have been devoted to “womanism” in this novel, among which Dr. Wang Xiaoying, shows clearly that the pursuit of human’s whole survival, permeating Walker’s literary creation, constitutes the soul of womanism advocated by Walker. (Wang, 2006). Some other comments tend to discuss the writing techniques employed in the book, including the narrative strategies, epistolary structure, the language features, etc.

These critics at home and abroad do provide deep insight and broad perspectives for the reader to understand the works better. Undoubtedly the close link between race, gender and nature demonstrated by Walker in the novel does deserve further studies. This thesis intends to read *The Color Purple* from the ecofeminist perspective, and offer a relatively comprehensive and detailed look into Walker’s ecofeminist consciousness in order to evoke more people’s environmental awareness and to make it easier to build a harmonious world.

II. A BRIEF INTRODUCTION TO ECOFEMINISM

Since the 1950s, as people are aware of the constantly deteriorating crisis of ecology and the necessity of survival in a clearer way, the ecological and green thinking have spread to every corner of human society. With the publication of Rachel Carson’s *Silent Spring*, a milestone in both ecological history and eco-literature, the ecological movement flourished in the late sixties and early seventies insisting on new vision of society on a par with the peace movement, the civil rights movement, and women’s movement. But that was far from perfect since the close relationship between female and ecology hasn’t been paid much attention to. Under this circumstance, ecofeminism appears, in the 1970s, as a social and political movement sharing the considerable common ground between environmentalism and feminism. Ecofeminists point out that the patriarchal world view leads to the oppression of women and the destruction and misuse of nonhuman nature in the male-dominated culture.

Ecofeminism was first coined by Francoise d’Eaubonne in her book *Le Feminisme ou la Mort* in 1974. Spretnak, a classic ecofeminist, defines ecofeminism as “a joining of environmental, feminist, and women’s spiritual concerns.” (Spretnak, 1990, p.5-6) Warren asserts that “what makes ecofeminism distinct is its insistence that nonhuman nature
and naturism are feminist issues.” (Warren, 1997, p.4). Susan Griffin, in Woman and Nature, states that women have some level of communion with nature that men can not attain. Though the understanding of ecofeminism varies from person to person, ecofeminists share a common awareness of the inextricable connections between women and nature.

Ecofeminists advocate the need to establish a harmonious society that connects nature and humans, male and female, rich and poor. As a black woman writer, Walker expresses her eagerness for the equality of all the living things in the world. In The Color Purple, Walker describes her deep concern for the binary oppositions between male and female, humans and nature, and her worries about the earth environment and the status of women. In the novel, the relationship between male and female, humans and nature is in progress and it experiences three different stages for fragmentation, overseeing and wholeness.

III. Fragmentation—Women and Nature: Victims of the Patriarchal Society

According to ecofeminists, the exploitation of women and domination of nature are interconnected, which is the result of Western male dominance. In other words, both women and nature are the victims of patriarchy. The main task of ecofeminists is to criticize the patriarchal oppression of women and nature. In The Color Purple, both the relationships between human and nature and that of men and women are previously in a state of fragmentation. Women and nature have long been rendered objects of attention, domination and conquest by patriarchy, which make them in an inferior position. They both lie in the marginalized area of the world.

A. The Maltreatments of Black Women

In The Color Purple, Walker expresses her deep sympathy for the black women by depicting their dual oppressions from racism and sexism in patriarchal society. They are tortured both mentally and physically, deprived of all the rights and even their status and individuality.

The racial conflict between the black and the white in this novel is very conspicuous. The white people constitute the mainstream of the society and have all the privileges over the black. They think they are the saviors of the black who have freed them from slavery, so they have the right to rule them. Therefore black women are always expected to keep obedient and those who dare to resist will undoubtedly have severe penalty. Sophia is just a typical victim of racism in the novel. Although a black girl, she fights frequently against someone who does wrong to her, including the mayor of the city. Yet unfortunately, her struggle couldn’t change her fate, instead, it brings her tragedy. Because of her sassing the mayor’s wife and hitting the mayor, she is put in prison where she experiences all kinds of hardships one can imagine: being beat, humiliated and forced to do hard jobs. What’s worse is that she is then transferred to the mayor’s home as a maid. In this way, she is tortured and the white people finally attain their aim to make her as submissive as other black women.

Being at the bottom of the society, besides racism, another major threat to the black women is from sexism, which involves rape, deprivation of rights, and psychological control. In The Color Purple, the female characters are considered to be mules, whose will is subjugated to the will of the men. As victims of patriarchy and male chauvinism, most of them have the experience of being raped, being deprived of basic human rights and finally become psychologically controlled by men.

Take Celie, the protagonist of this novel, as an example. She is raped by her stepfather when she is only 14 years old and later gives birth to two children. After her stepfather’s repeated physical and sexual violence, Celie is sold to a widower with four children to tend to. It’s her industriousness and obedience as well as an attached cow that leads to the widow’s decision of marrying her. However, this marriage doesn’t eliminate any slightest oppressions she suffers but throws her into another “cage”. To the widower, her so-called husband, she is nothing but a laborer in the field, a worker for domestic household and a sexual servant.

According to the traditional western culture, women are universalized as passive, fragile and inferior to men. Then the black women are in the poorer condition, who are stripped of all the rights and hence lose their individuality. Firstly, the black women are deprived of economic freedom. In the The Color Purple, the Olinka women are the ones who work hard in the field, with their husbands idling about all day long, but nothing in the household belong to them. Without money to support themselves, women could only depend on men for survival. Secondly, the black women hardly have opportunity to receive education. In the novel, Celie isn’t the only one forbidden to school by men. In Olinka in Africa, girls are kept at home to do housework while boys go to school. Since they believe knowledge is power, men are afraid if women possess the power, women may find out the truth hidden by the regime and finally endanger their authority. Thirdly, the black women are stripped of their right to speak. In the novel, those who desire to make their inner thoughts heard will be cruelly beaten by men. The patriarchal authority makes women keep silent so that men’s crimes could be concealed and their exploitation of women will never cease.

The black women in the novel, with the traditional idea that women are born to be humble, do believe without doubts that they are inferior to men, and they ought to put up with all these tortures poured onto them. This kind of mental torture is actually the most severe misfortune for them and by doing so men could practice their supremacy through their psychological control over women. Oppressed both physically and mentally, the black women are bearing the burdens that everyone else refuses to carry, and play roles of mule in patriarchal society. They lose their status and individuality. Simone de Beauvoir writes in the introduction to The Second Sex that “She is defined and differentiated
with reference to man and not he with reference to her; she is the incidental, the inessential as opposed to the essential. He is the Subject, he is the Absolute—she is the other” (Beauvoir, 1972, p.16). It’s self-evident that women, without independent status and identities, couldn’t escape the fate to be men’s accessories or playthings in male-dominated society.

B. The Devastations of Nature

In western culture, nature has always been considered something to be suppressed and overcome and natural resources should be used to serve the needs of men. In fact, human beings’ attitude toward nature could be traced back in the Bible. When God creates everything in the world, he says, “...let them (hummankind) have domination...over creeping thing that creeps upon the earth.” “I have given you every plant ...and every tree; you shall have them for food.”(Holy Bible, 2) Having been greatly influenced by this value, human beings have no doubts that they are the controllers and masters of nature. As a result, they have a random exploitation of nature, which leads to the destruction of the natural world.

With the emergence of environmental crisis, the protection of nature has become an international issue of increasing significance. More and more people get to know the crisis of ecology and start to explore the root of it. Rachel Carson criticizes that mankind has sought to insulate himself, in his cities of steel and concrete, from the realities of the earth and water and the growing seed. Intoxicated with a sense of his own power, he seems to be going further and further into more experiments for the destruction of himself and his world. Ecofeminist believe human’s over-exploitation of nature is rooted in anthropocentrism. In other words, men’s domination of all the creatures in nature leads to the devastation of nature. Walker, along with other ecofeminists, attacks chauvinistic and anthropocentric views about nature, seeing nature as the source of energy, the place where everything coexists. In The Color Purple, in order to arouse people’s attention to the disastrous natural world, she presents before the reader the environmental deterioration in Olinka.

According to Nettie’s letters, Olinka previously is a peaceful village located in Africa where people live in a “place without walls but with a leaf roof” (Walker, 1982, p.141). And there are “trees and trees and then more trees on top of that. They are so big they look like they were built. And vines. And ferns. And little animals. Frogs. Snakes too.” (Walker, 1982, p.139). The natives live in a peaceful natural environment. But the appearance of the white road builders breaks the harmonious scenery. It is posited that almost overnight, the Olinka village turns to be the territory of the white colonists with the fields being occupied, huts leveled, leaves of the trees cut away. In addition, the victims of this ecological disaster include not only the Olinka village but also its neighbor villages. The white colonizers aim to turn the village into a headquarters of the rubber industry by replacing the forest with rubber trees. The biological balance is completely destroyed with the animals nowhere to stay, and local people being expelled away from their homeland and forced to buy water from the planters. The white colonists, under the cloak of modern civilization, succeed in conquering the peaceful creatures there and destroying the previous ecological environment as well.

As above-mentioned, Olinka is not the only place that suffers from deterioration. According to Doris Baines, a sixty-five-year-old woman whom Nettie and Samuel meet on their way back to England, signs of war are all over Africa and India. Trees are hauled off to make ships and captain’s furniture, while the land is planted with something people can’t eat. Animals are also victims of advanced human society from the primitive one to modern one, with their meat cooked into food, fur made into clothing, bones into ornament.

In addition to arousing people’s attention to the problem of environment, Walker’s portrait of the destructiveness of nature in the novel implies her attack against the dominant hierarchy system and the mainstream western anthropocentric aggression. There’s another point in the novel that needs to be noted. Before the aggression of the white colonists, people in Olinka have gone through the disaster caused by their destroying the balance of ecology. This experience teaches them the lesson of the importance of keeping a harmonious relationship with nature and this lesson is then passed on from generation to generation among them. However, their awareness isn’t enough to protect themselves and their natural world. The white people’s colonialism once again puts them in the environmental crisis. Here, Walker intends to criticize the conspiracy of racism and colonialism that leads to the severe ecological crisis. She is convinced that economic profits drive men to over-exploit nature and it’s men’s inherent depravity that bring about their reckless oppression to nature. Walker believes that only when all human beings tend to protect environment consciously and put themselves in the same position as nature, could all the creatures in the world live peacefully and harmoniously.

C. Natural Alliance between Women and Nature

From what’s analyzed above, it’s self-evident that women and nature share the same miserable fate under common oppressions. The connection between women and nature lies biologically in women’s reproductive roles as child-bearers as well as the language used to describe women and nature: women are often described in animal terms such as cows, foxes, etc. On other hand, nature is often described in female and sexual terms: nature is raped, mastered, conquered, and controlled. Because of this interconnection, when suffering from oppression, women tend to get merged with nature to pursue power and comfort from it; whereas being happy, they can also generate resonance with nature. Based on the fact, it truly brings the two together so closely that they form natural alliance, a strategy of vital to overcome and survive the patriarchal society. In the novel, there are many natural images bearing this kind of
characteristic like tree, the hut in Olinka, etc.

In *The Color Purple*, natural alliance between women and nature first presents itself in the close relation existing between women and tree. Trees have always been described as the selfless giver in various cultures. Walker has emphasized this view that “we are connected to them (the animals) at least as intimately as we are connected to trees.”(Walker, 1999, p.310) In *The Color Purple*, Celie regards tree as her redeemer, whenever she is beaten, she tells herself: “all I can do not to cry. I make myself wood. I say to myself, Celie, you a tree. That’s how come I know trees fear man.”(Walker, 1982:30) She, in adversity, is so helpless and powerless that she can only turn to the trees for comfort. Shug Avery has special affections to trees, too. As for her, trees also have feelings and ought to be protected. She says “My first step from the old white man was trees. Then air. Then birds. Then other people…being cut, the arm would bleed and people would feel pain; being felled, the tree would also bleed.” (Walker,1982, p.185)

The hut in Olinka also displays the inseparable relations between women and nature. In Nettie’s narration, the hut, “unlike their school, which is square, and unlike their church, which doesn’t have walls—-at least during the dry season—the hut is round, walled, with a round roofleaf roof.” (Walker,1982, p.158) As is known that square represents law, rule and order, while round is symbolic of nature, peace and comfort. Therefore round has special appeal to women. From women’s affections to hut, it can be said that their outpouring of love for nature is obvious. It just reflects from another aspect the natural alliance between women and nature in the novel.

Nature constitutes the tie closely connecting women. Women’s life can’t be separated from nature, and their real psychological protector is not God but nature. In *The Color Purple*, Celie and her sister Nettie, though separated from a long distance, enjoy mutual telepathy and resonance in their hearts through nature. As long as they are under the same sky, they can gaze into the eyes and share the feelings of each other. Through their arduous work in the fields Olinka women do strengthen their affections to nature, and become allies with nature.

Another close alliance between women and nature lies in the fact they are oppressed and dominated by men. With the probe into the inner connections between women and nature, ecofeminists get to know that the root of domination over women and nature is the Western traditional thought—-hierarchical dualism which divides the world into pairs of entities, such as men and women, human and nature, mind and body. In each pair, the first entity is always in a superior position to the second one, the common things the two entities share being ignored and differences being over-emphasized. This idea could explain why women and nature have become the objects of the male control in patriarchal society. By showing this point in the novel, Walker just deduces that to end the oppression of women and nature people must transcend the most basic conceptual categories of hierarchical dualism.

Just as what Walt Whitman, a prominent American poet, remarks, “Each of us inevitable; each of us limitless—-each of us with his or her right upon the earth; each of us allowed the eternal purports of the earth; each of us here as divinely as any is here.” (Whitman, 2004, p. 27) It advocates for the equal right between men and women and pursues for eternal co-existence, which is one of core goals of ecofeminism. Although human beings have power gaining over nature, they ought to use it in a humanistic way. Otherwise, they would end with being destroyed by nature.

IV. OVERSEWING—THE AWAKENING OF HUMAN AND THE REVENGE OF NATURE

Too much water drowned the miller. Neither women nor nature would like to receive the torture from men willingly. Men’s unbearable oppression on women and insatiable demands for nature will finally meet resistance from women and revenge from nature. It can be proved from feminist movement started from the late 19th century and continuous natural disasters in modern society. According to ecofeminists, women’s awareness of their due rights and nature’s revenge on humankind are the essential steps to establish the harmonious society. With the revenge of nature and the awakening of women, men are forced to contemplate the whole situation. Under pressures, they recognize that women and nature are no longer under their control, and their only solution to survive lies in throwing away the previously traditional thoughts and pursuing equity among women, nature and themselves. Walker thinks the process of oversewing makes the relation between human and nature, men and women move towards balance.

A. Women’s Awakening

In *The Color Purple*, with the help of sisterhood, women under the highly strict suppression and domination gradually realize the necessity of spiritual liberation, learning the truth that they should have known and the rights they must possess. Black women’s collective life and helpless state brought by slavery and androcentricism make it easy for them to seek solace and happiness from other black women rather than men. Sisterhood delivers support and strength to help black women fight against their fierce oppressions. It is regarded as an important way to the women’s consciousness-raising.

In the novel, most women have experienced the change in their spirit from naivety to maturity. They help each other to learn the truth and finally realize the importance to unite themselves. Suffering from repeated physical and psychological abuse, Celie at the beginning can find nobody to turn to but confide to the God by writing letters. She imagines God to be “big and old and tall and gray bearded and white. He wear robes and go barefoot” (Walker, 1982, p.201) telling him everything including her confusions, worries, and even some secrets. She bears in her heart a belief that as long as she can write the word “God”, she has a companion; and that God will rescue people when they are in trouble. Even when Sofia is thrown into jail Celie still fancies God’s rescue. Finally, the real redeemer turns out to be
Mary Agnes. It’s under Shug’s instructions that Celie realizes that “God is not a white, not a man. God is everything, just inside of everyone.” (Walker, 1982, p.202). With the help of other women, Celie eventually learns God in fact doesn’t exist in the world. Then she starts to communicate with other women to get help and courage.

Another truth women in the novel learn is the necessity to appreciate their own beauty, to shake off the dominations and to be themselves. For instance, the encouragements of vital significance from Shug do stimulate Celie’s transformation. When Celie knows that Albert has hidden all Nettie’s letters, she, who used to obeying every instruction of her husband, gets erupted and makes the decision to go to Memphis with Shug. She responds to Albert’s mock saying “I’m pore, I’m black, I may be ugly and can’t cook, a voice say to everything listening. But I’m here.” (Walker, 1982, p.214), which is actually her declaration of independence and resistance to the patriarchal society. Now she is asking for the equal rights to men instead of the mercy from them. It can be concluded that these great changes in Celie suggests the black women’s progress in consciousness.

B. Nature’s Revenge

As Susan Griffin writes: “We say he should have known his action would have consequences…We say every act comes back on itself. There are consequences. You can not cut the trees without a flood.”(Griffin, 1978, p.186) Human’s constant over exploitations on nature will inevitably stir its resistance, namely, its revenge on human. Just as the proverb shows us—“fire and water are good servants but bad masters”, human beings have tasted the bitter fruit of their own behavior and are meant to realize that it’s time to balance their relationship with nature in the planet. In this novel, the Olinka people unfortunately become the objects of nature’s revenge.

To them, the roof leaf is a savior to protect them from natural disasters. But one time, in order to make profits out of the land on which the roof leaf is cultivated, the chief asks people to remove the roof leaf to plant economic crops like cassava, groundnut. Then they get abused by the wind when the storm comes: their hut fall and many people get high fevers which even cause death. By the end of the rainy season, half of the village is dead. They pay high price for their stupid behavior and eventually come to know the interdependent relationship between human and nature. So after the rain stops, they search everywhere for the root of the trees, and immediately cover the land with the roof leaf again. This brings the village to its previous peaceful state again.

After the white colonists cut down all the roof leaves, the Olinka people suffer revenge again: “they have been eating yams to prevent malaria and to control blood disease for thousands and thousands years. Without sufficient supply of yams, the people are sickening and dying at an alarming rate” (Walker, 1982, p.250). It’s really sad that the Olinka people should pay off for the evil actions taken by the white colonists, just like the reason why people forever are the victims of wars no matter what the motive of the war is.

As an equal part of the ecological system, human beings always set themselves as the dominators, and act the role of exploiter and destroyer, which causes the deterioration of ecological system and even makes it on the verge of breakdown. If people don’t stop it, human beings doom to be destroyed by nature one day.

C. Men’s Awakening

The androcentric ideology has deprived black men of their soul freedom and humanity and left them in loveless marriages. Women’s increasing resistance and nature’s revenge put men in a position where they have to rethink deeply the whole situation. Only when they realize their previous evils to black women and nature can they throw off the masculinist thoughts and reach the goal of self-healing. It’s Walker’s belief and dream for men’s final disillusionment that sets the male characters in this novel to achieve spiritual survival, and change their attitudes toward both women and nature.

The awakening of black women’s self-sense is a major element leading to men’s transformation. In the novel, after Celie starts her way of a new life, tremendous changes take place in Albert’s fate. Thus his awakening starts with Celie’s leaving for Memphis. He gets himself locked in the house and wouldn’t let anybody in. To be exact, he lives like a pig. During the period when Celie is absent, Albert makes retrospections unconsciously, rethinking about various kinds of violence he exercises on Celie since their marriage, Celie’s value to him as a woman, and the changes of his life after Celie’s leaving. He then comes to a conclusion that women, with their own dignities, should be treated equally and be loved. His abandoning the traditional masculinist ideology also stimulates him to do something he has never done before. All these changes prove that he has experienced an ecofeminist-like rebirth and now is a natural man.

Besides, true love also contributes to men’s progress in consciousness. Since Albert is not the only one experiencing transformation, compared with his father’s change, Harpo’s is more believable to be a result of the true love between Sophia and him. At first, their family circumstance is quite harmonious: Sofia works in the field or chops wood while Harpo does cooking and cleaning at home. Though violating the traditional family model, they feel at ease in this way. The reason why he tries to control Sophia is that other men are doing this like his father, grandfather, etc. Out of outer pressure, he is destined to do so. After a series of incidents, he also gives up his attempts to bring his wife under control, realizing that it’s not a shame for not controlling Sophia but allowing her to do things at her own will. This becomes a major theme of this novel that “love redeems, meanness kills” (Persecott, 1982, p.67) His efforts to reestablish friendship between him and Sophia earn him Sophia’s love, and finally reach the goal of spiritual survival.

The final reason for men’s transformation of course is owing to nature’s revenge. Men eventually learn the importance of treating women and nature kindly. The possibility of men’s development and growth is just one of the
reasons why Walker is preferentially fond of *The Color Purple* in all of her novels.

V. WHOLENESS--TOWARD THE WHOLENESS OF SURVIVAL

Through the process of overseeing, the relationships between human and nature, men and women have experienced tremendous changes. Men, women, and nature, respectively having changed a lot, jointly walk toward the wholeness of survival. Walker’s setting a Utopian ending expresses her expectation and belief of fantastic life. Her dream goes hand in hand with the ecofeminist ideas. Thus as what ecofeminists point out, in order to build a really harmonious world, humans have to contemplate different kinds of contrasting relationships: men and women, the whites and the blacks, human and nature, etc. This is just the ideal pursuit of ecofeminists for the wholeness of human and survival.

A. Women’s Change from Subjugation to Independence

Physical and mental freedom is a kind of response to nature which enables people to regain freedom and creativity on the aspect of ecological sense. Women in *The Color Purple*, attain their real freedom through economic independence based on their mental liberation. In this way, they become independent ones in the world, no longer subjugating to men.

As is known to all, women who want to be independent have to be spiritually liberated and get rid of their economic dependence on men as well. Virginia Woolf, a feminist activist, points out in her book, *A Room of One’s Own*, which the most important thing for females to become themselves is to have their own houses, with an annual income of five hundred pounds. Undoubtedly, having a job as well as independence in economy is the first step for women to develop their independent identity. Many women in the novel take this way to liberate themselves, like Celie and Mary Agnes.

In Memphis, accidentally, Celie finds that she is talented in making pants and thus she opens a pant shop. To Celie, Making pants itself is a challenge to the patriarchal society where making pants are reserved as the patent of men. She is born to be a designer since she knows how to make the pants beautiful and economical, and to show a person’s feature through her design. By opening a pant shop and making pants for people around, she demonstrates her artistic gifts and true emotions and thoughts, enriching her life and stepping on her way to be a whole and independent woman. As to Mary Agnes, under Shug’s instruction, she can not only compile songs but dare to sing in public. Singing on one hand becomes an indispensable part of her life; while on the other hand gives her courage and confidence. Mary Agnes gets acknowledgement from others through her endeavors to be a professional singer. She is no longer an invisible person but a new woman with her own job and aggression. She won’t be bothered by her color or experience of being raped because what she has now compensated the hurts she previously suffers and she has proved she can do what she wants to. This proves what K. Bonetti once said: one function of art lies in helping you to grow up, to be an intact person. It goes hand in hand with Walker’s belief that art can make human beings better.

Having their own jobs also helps Celie and Mary Agnes gain material liberation, and they gradually taste the sweet fruit of independence and finally fulfill their own values. They have succeeded in proving that they are the kind of women with identities and full of confidence that can’t be ignored.

B. Men’s Respecting Women and Nature

In the novel, after their disillusionment, men start to respect women and nature, which is shown from their learning from women and understanding of women and nature.

During the process of self-improvement, black men find themselves learning a lot from women. By changing their attitude toward housework or fieldwork, they tend to do things they have never done before. For example, Albert, who never does any work at all before, begin to do housework like cleaning and cooking as well as farm work. In addition, men also learn to care and love people around them. Take Albert and Harpo for example, to help Haopo’s daughter Henrietta recover from blood disease, Albert tries every means to feed her yarns to cure the disease while Harpo goes to great lengths to help Albert go through the blow of Celie’s leaving home.

After experiencing all the hardships women have met in housework and fieldwork, men learn to know the true meaning of working and then start to understand women. Albert’s learning to sew shows that he has thrown away the wrong idea that women are inferior to men, and that males are supposed to be worth more than the other gender. And he is willing to do labor work together with women in an equal manner. He tells Celie that “I’m satisfied this the first time I ever lived on Earth as a natural man. It feels like a new experience.” (Walker, 1982, p. 230). His changing from an oppressor into a natural man makes him the only person who understands and comforts Celie when Shug leaves her. Albert’s kindness and understanding win him Celie’s forgiveness, which does reestablish a new kind of friendship between them.

Men’s transformation in the novel is disclosed in their respect to women and nature. After Celie’s leaving, Albert begins his inner revolution by starting to take a new look at his attitude toward nature. To some extent, his working in the field shows his attempts to get closer to nature. Working in nature calms him down and offers him the chance to think about his past and future. It is nature that helps him get rid of the idea on men’s supremacy. Staying in the wilderness, he feels peaceful and mentally improved. Besides, he takes to collecting seashells which is the symbol of nature. From the sounds of the waves uttered from the seashells, he learns to listen to the voice of nature. His collection of the seashells is actually his unique way to show his respect to nature. It’s conspicuous that as black men fulfill their self-improvement and enhance their close friendship with black women and nature, the wholeness of survival is just
around the corner.

C. Realization of the Ideal Human-nature Relationship

The co-existence of human and nature is a preface of a peaceful and harmonious world. Throwing away belief in God, Celie, along with Shug gets closer to nature which has cured their spiritual wound by giving them inspirations and creativities. From her last letter with the addressee as dear God, dear stars, dear trees, dear sky, dear people, dear everything, it can be seen that at this moment, there is no boundary between human and nature since everything gets emerged into one thing harmoniously and there is no discrimination between human and nature, men and women, white and black.

The same is true of the Olinka people, to whom the roof leaf is regarded as a savior to protect them from natural disasters. After the village is occupied, they choose to run away to join the mbeles or forest people, who live isolately in the jungle, refusing to work for whites or be ruled by them. Their going to nature’s embrace indicates the primary formation of the harmonious relationship between them and nature.

On the other hand, great progresses have also been made in the relationship between men and women, white and black. In the novel, men’s respect for women undoubtedly improves their relationship. Celie and Albert become good friends, and Harpo and Sophia reunites. What’s more, the black and white begin to cooperate. Sophia teaches the mayor’s wife to drive and shows her kindness to the mayor’s daughter who treats her well while the white missionary, Doris Baines adopts a black as her grandson, and builds hospital, high school and university in Africa. And in the end Celie hires white people to work in her shop. All these demonstrate that the whites and the blacks can get along well with each other, equally and cooperatively. And the harmonious co-existence is built just on the basis of the balanced relationship between men and women, white and black.

All these show that it is likely to realize the harmonious co-existence between human and nature, between men and women. As long as people learn to abandon their racial oppression and human’s exploitation on nature, to discharge the bond between men and women. She expresses it through Celie’s writing that “The only way to stop making somebody the serpent is for everybody to accept everybody else as a child of God, or one mother’s children, no matter what they look like or how they act” (Walker, 1982, p.132) Her designing a happy ending for this novel has some realistic meaning to the American society where contradictions exist almost everywhere. While her dream is fantastic, it’s covered by Utopian color and is anyhow future-oriented. This means that there still needs intensive efforts of our following generations to make this harmonious world dream come true.

In a word, what The Color Purple leaves to the reader is not only a literary and artistic shock, but infinite thinking space for readers to ponder over the reality. As the environment is deteriorating with the passing days, the ecological balance is broken and terrible consequences have been brought about with more and more species dying out, and humankind’s survival is threatened. It’s high time human beings realized the urgency of stopping destroying and to protect nature by treasuring water, forest, animals on this planet. It is a prelude necessary to the realization of a harmonious world.

VI. CONCLUSION

Walker, as an ecofeminist, never ceases to concern about the victims of racism and patriarchalism and is committed to fighting for the equal rights of all. She is convinced that art can save the human beings. The Color Purple is an example, through which she attacks the androcentrism and patriarchalism. Unlike other writers, she concerns not just the pain and hardship of black females but that of black males as well. Her greatness doesn’t lie in her focusing on men’s violence and maltreatment on women but in her insistence on believing the oppressors can be changed, and that’s her most reformative interpretation of patriarchalism.

What she pursues is the harmonious coexistence of men and women, of blacks and whites, and, in a large sense, of all the inhabitants on this planet. She expresses it through Celie’s writing that “The only way to stop making somebody the serpent is for everybody to accept everybody else as a child of God, or one mother’s children, no matter what they look like or how they act” (Walker, 1982, p.132) Her designing a happy ending for this novel has some realistic meaning to the American society where contradictions exist almost everywhere. While her dream is fantastic, it’s covered by Utopian color and is anyhow future-oriented. This means that there still needs intensive efforts of our following generations to make this harmonious world dream come true.

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Lianghong Wu was born into Suqian, China in 1973. She received her M.A. degree in literature from Nanjing Normal University, China in 2006. She is currently a professor in the Faculty of Foreign Languages, Huaiyin Institute of Technology, Huai’an, China. Her research interests include British and American literature.
Studies on the Legal Translation from the Perspective of Legal Pluralism*

Xia Dai
Southwest University of Political Science & Law, Chongqing, China

Abstract—Legal pluralism has made certain theoretical development in the field of law, which has certain enlightenment on the concept and opinion of legal norms, legal system or order to the intercultural communication of legal culture. In addition to linguistics and translation field, the study of legal English should also make use of relevant legal theories to achieve beneficial interdisciplinary research. This paper focuses on the legal pluralism in the field of legal English and how to make innovative use of the theory. Facing the problems of "vacancy" and "dislocation" in Chinese legal translation, how to explore the nature of legal norms or the definition boundaries, and try to seek the enlightenment of the social system theory on legal translation.

Index Terms—legal pluralism, legal English, system theory

I. INTRODUCTION

The theoretical exploration of legal pluralism has attracted the attention of academic circles already, especially in the field of law. Relevant papers and monographs are blossomed in the theoretical discussion. Legal English, as a key branch of ESP, English for Specific Purpose, has gradually become an independent subject in the curriculum design of Chinese colleges and universities. Its growth must depend on the parallel development of legal theory and English theory, which also represents a strong indication that the interdisciplinary study in the field of legal English will definitely become the main trend. However, as far as the present situation in the China mainland is concerned, there are few studies on the application of legal pluralism theory to the field of legal English. This paper focuses on the enlightenment of legal pluralism to the study of legal English and how to realize the innovative application of legal pluralism theory. It probes into the nature of legal norms or their conceptual definition boundaries, and tries to seek the enlightenment of the social system theory on legal translation.

II. THE PROPOSAL OF LEGAL PLURALISM

Legal pluralism refers to the coexistence of two or more legal norms, legal systems or legal orders in the same social field. Initially, legal pluralism began with the use of research methods of legal anthropology and sociology of law, focusing on the analysis of the relationship between non-state order and state legal order (for example, the confrontation and integration of colonized areas and European legal system). In the 1980s, academic circles mainly concentrated on the study of "theoretical generalization" of "re-conceptualization of social-legal relations". Then in the 1990s, the traditional state-centered legal concept in the jurisprudence was challenged, and there were divergences between jurisprudence theorists and jurisprudence sociologists. The former upholds the general jurisprudence as the cornerstone of state law, takes national substantive law as the center, and emphasizes the norms of law; the latter supports multiple legal patterns, adheres to the de-centralization of the order of state law, and emphasizes the facts of law. Generally, the study of legal pluralism is normally under the jurisprudence tradition with the method thereof. Scholars interpret the legal pluralism as a normative pluralism, or a norm and system with legal effect which is separated from the compulsory machinery of the state. According to B. Tamanaha, law has dual meanings of "confirmation and implementation of norms" and "specific types of social arrangements" (the latter belongs to normative order). Similarly, W. Twining states that legal pluralism is only one kind of normative pluralism, implying the non-central status of the state, while at the same time, it exists how to delimit boundary of legal phenomena and non-legal presences and how to distinguish the large variety of legal orders, systems, traditions and cultures conceptually.

III. CHINA MAINLAND RESEARCH STATUS

Chinese domestic scholars have not done much research on legal pluralism, if any, mainly in the field of legal science. Yang has analyzed and discussed the research path, dilemma and outlet of legal pluralism (Yang Jingzhe, 2013). Yang also have pointed out that the "Triple Dilemma of legal pluralism development", "integration", "positioning" and "demarcation" originated from the separation of legal and social disciplines from the norms of legal pluralism in the

The enlightenment of legal pluralism on the study of legal English can be explored in many aspects. On the basis of the interdisciplinary study of legal pluralism, it can be applied to the study of legal translation, legal linguistics and judicial investigation of legal language by analyzing the schools of legal pluralism theory and making use of the frontiers research results of legal theories. It has strong theoretical innovation and practicability, and exploring how the theory can be used to solve the legal concepts dilemma in understanding during legal translation, tackling the issues concerning specific cross-cultural legal language problems, and declassifying the language dilemma in judicial practice.

First, from the perspective of legal pluralism theory, the research objects of legal English are: basic legal pluralism theory, legal text, translation theory, linguistic theory, linguistic evidence in judicial practice, etc. The theoretical framework of the study may include the following aspects:

Second, evolution path of legal pluralism theory. This perspective mainly analyses the origin and extension of the concepts of legal pluralism, and combines the advanced theoretical achievements both in China and overseas to construct and improve the cohesive framework between legal pluralism and legal translation theory.

Third, the generating logic of cross-cultural legal culture system under the theory of legal pluralism. Firstly, from the perspective of legal culture, it analyses various conflicts of legal culture in cross-culture, traces back to the logic of the formation of legal culture system from various manifestations of conflicts of legal culture, and demonstrates the inevitability and contingency of its existence.

Fourth, cultural turn under the legal pluralism. To clarify the possible translation dilemmas in legal translation, combining with specific translation theory, then constructing a new mechanism to solve the conflicts of legal culture with the cultural turn as the main research paradigm.

Fifth, the strategies of legal translation under the theory of legal pluralism. On the basis of the above analysis, enforcing the application of cross-cultural cultural turn in the field of legal translation, formulating corresponding regulations on legal cultural conflicts, and finally proposing legal translation strategies to solve the translation dilemma under the theory of legal pluralism.

Of course, there are also some key and difficult points in this study. Takes the study of legal translation as an example, the problems may exist as following: First, an analysis of the current situation of cross-cultural legal culture in the context of legal pluralism. To sort out and summarize the relevant theoretical research in the relevant academic circle, then find out the similarities and differences of legal culture in different countries, and analyze the reasons. Second, the evolution of legal translation theory under legal pluralism. Combining the relevant theories of legal pluralism with traditional translation theories, locating the specific problems during the process of legal translation and the predicament of "difficult to translate" and "untranslatable", and extracting practical and operable methods. Third, the strategies of legal translation under the theory of legal pluralism. It contains the detailed methodologies concerning application of legal pluralism into the interdisciplinary research and solutions of the practical dilemmas in the legal translation, and feasible translation strategies.

V. THE INNOVATIVE POINTS OF THE THEORY OF LEGAL PLURALISM IN THE STUDY OF LEGAL ENGLISH

First, the application of legal pluralism in the field of legal English is innovative. The theoretical exploration of legal pluralism has attracted expanded attention among the western academics. Legal English, as an important branch of ESP, must be supported by the development of legal theory and English theory, and take it as the backbone. This interdisciplinary study will systematically study the development process of legal pluralism theory, as well as the possible cultural conflicts and their manifestations are the combination of theory and practice. The application of legal pluralism in legal English is an innovative application of the frontier theory.

Second, the innovation of legal English research paradigm under the theory of legal pluralism. At present, most of the studies on English translation, legal linguistics and judicial language are limited to the traditional theoretical research, while the interdisciplinary angle provided the combination of theories in the law field, and be applicable to the
theoretical research of legal translation, legal linguistics and judicial language, breaking through the traditional research paradigm limits.

Thirdly, the comprehensive application of interdisciplinary. Breakthrough is made by no longer constrain the research methods in a certain discipline. It integrates systematic and interdisciplinary research, combines the knowledge of law, sociology, linguistics, translation and other disciplines into one, and carries out research methods such as text analysis and field investigation.

VI. LEGAL TRANSLATION IN THE SOCIAL SYSTEM THEORY

Under Luhmann's social system theory of law, it claims that there should be a uniform judicial adjudication mechanism, that is, the dual code of "legal/illegal" acts on the whole legal system, while Gunther Teubner believes that different departmental laws can have different judicial adjudication mechanisms, which will inevitably lead to conflicts between different legal systems. Relying on Teubner's view, the social system theory of law can be used to solve the problems brought about by the pluralism of law, then to solve the problems in legal translation, and to identify non-state laws without abandoning the basis of distinguishing law from other parts of society. It is more like denying the existence of law to distinguish the definition of law only by the understanding of officials or by the behavior of a person who enforces punishment. For example, in the post-colonial period, the application of uniform standards in central areas had advantages, so people gradually evolved from a consistent practice to customary law. In contrast, the functionalist theory regards law as a way to resolve disputes, which blurs the boundaries between law and society. How does the code operate in different legal and cultural contexts? If the "legal/illegal" code only has a semantic difference, it will still run in the traditional way. However, if such communication only exists in a specific context, and the specific communication is a part of the system, the use of code in the system is very important for the formation of specific communication.

Unlike the multi-word substitution of the word “law”, the "legal/illegal" code is used in many languages. For example, the word "law" can be translated into languages as: loi, droit, rech, gesetz, and in these corresponding languages "lawful/unlawful" appears in the form of homology as “legal/illegal". If the target language lacks corresponding phrases, can legal codes be identified by the translation alone, even without the use of "legal/illegal" codes? For example, in some specific cultures in Chinese minority world, the legal origin of minority nationalities is called "governing the exogenous world", that is, kinship organizations of geographical and consanguineous origins are more binding on the people than that of the legal orders. There are some form of regional adjudication assembly still exists among minority nationalities in remote areas of China, like in Wa minority village, the code of "legal/illegal" may appear here as "compliance/non-compliance" code, while outside the country, the code of "legal/illegal" related to Italian Mafia may be replaced by "honour/dishonour" code. Teubner’s theory refers this phenomenon as the conflict between “law and social norms”, that is, between the state law and honor of the family or morals of the tribe.

The emergence of "legal/illegal" codes in different languages and the binary differences reflected in their application just reflect the problems in legal translation. That is to say, in the face of two languages with different etymologies, how can translators determine the rationality of adopting "legal/illegal" codes? What guides translators to find equivalents in source and target languages? From the beginning of Saussure, people began to realize the semantics of symbol generation in language and its related linguistic relations. From Wittgenstein's theory, people found that this relationship is not based on the use of language, but on rules. Semantic translation from one language to another is often difficult to achieve accuracy, because certain words are inextricably linked in different languages, sometimes even if the same phrase is in the same sentence pattern, it is not consistent in different languages. The social system theory of law replaces this tool by replacing the supply code with function or structure, and the translation of legal code (legal/illegal) should conform to certain norms. One can not only focus on how to find the corresponding "legal / illegal" phrase in another language, but should explore how the code is generated in the system. Functional equivalence is only a by-product attached to the running of system code, and it is not a determinant of coding possibilities.

In addition, sometimes a similar dilemma arises even if the target language comes from the same source. The world “legal” is is a Latin word that originated in the 15th century and means "related to law". If legality refers to "law-related, legal, lawful", then “not legal” is naturally "law-unrelated, non-legal, illegal". Is it more straightforward to translate "legal/illegal" into "law/not law"?

VII. EVOLUTION OF LEGAL TRANSLATION MODEL

The system code has positive code and negative code, and its operation will makes its structure (program) more stable, rather than being determined by the program. As we all known, the legal system is not entirely equivalent to state law. State Law refers to a stage of the legal system in the development of modern society, not the ultimate stage. The central position of national legislation in the modern legal system forms the self-description of law or jurisprudence, which makes the communication of law more abstract. However, the system theory does not need to determine whether communication originates at a certain period in the evolution of the legal system, whether the self-description of the legal system is a whole or a core part, or whether the possibility of the future is coded as "positive/negative" (or
legal/illegal) within the system. Generally speaking, attributing the law to state law is a negation of the existence of law, not to mention in the context of the current expanding cross-border legal communication.

How do we recognize that such transnational communication is legal, not scientific, medical or even economic? In the context of the legal system, we should not only distinguish "legal/illegal" from specific semantics, but also regard it as a developing and evolving system. Through the application of code, especially on the positive/negative distinction, we can determine the key characteristics of the advance procedure. Or through the application of legal code in communication, it can be considered that the communication is the continuation of the legal system. By identifying the multiple forms and sources of law, and by using legal codes rather than absolute semantics, it provides a method for legal observation and jurisprudence research. Systematic theory operates in the legal system in this way and can be distinguished from other social subsystems in different societies. This does not separate the law from society through the application of definitions or concepts, and the coding process enables communication within the system to be established. The separation of social subsystems is a characteristic of modern society. On the one hand, we try to make law equal to legal rules, norms or social commitments. On the other hand, we can expand the scope of legal observation. It is difficult to explain the difference of behavior (performance or function) in different social structures or the value attached to it. One is the duplication of attributes among different subsystems, and the other is the dilemma of explaining the contradictions among these attributes.

Therefore, system theory no longer pays attention to the basic or necessary attributes in the system, but regards these attributes as programs to guide or fix (rather than determine) the application of system code. With the shift of emphasis from procedure to code, the basis of our study of law should be changed to that law does not exist only in state law, but state law can provide a general paradigm for other non-state forms of law. Based on these advantages, we can draw a basic methodology to solve the problem of language translation. Similar to the previous theoretical arguments on translation, there are no specific rules in legal translation under legal pluralism, just as there are no rules to determine the use of language. Codes in different cultures convey linguistic information in context. Such successful communication is based on ordinary text decoding to generate common semantics for information exchange.

This means that language is not only embedded in culture, but also a form of cultural expression. Translation is the re-creation and expression of a culture in a new language. In legal translation, for example, the term "law". In language, it refers to the conditional procedure for the application of legal codes in a particular legal system, and it can also refer to the conditional procedure for the application of legal codes in other systems. Recognition of legal systems is linked by the application of ordinary codes, not economic, scientific, religious or moral, but at the same time can produce certain norms, so the legal system can be regarded as abstract but not anxious for common culture. Based on this, the study only focuses on the actual use of code, how the program can produce extremely useful descriptions through secondary observation. Of course, this interpretation can not provide an absolute answer to the problem of legal pluralism, but it provides a general theoretical perspective, not based on the general concept of law, but on the understanding of sociology. For example, "collateral attack", although according to the res judicata jurisprudence of the United States, the request for invalid confirmation once a judgment is concluded is generally not supported. However, the basic requirement of res judicata is "jurisdiction of adjudication", due process and other problems. On the basis of proper respect for the jurisdictional reasons of other states' judgments given by the courts of the states that have recognized the judgments, the parties who advocate opposite opinions in the original judgment bear the correct and appropriate burden of proof, and then judge the problem through the correct procedure. The translation of the term "collateral attack" has different versions in Chinese, such as indirect attack, indirect re-suit, indirect objection, ex post facto attack and parallel review can be found in the current literature. In the absence of corresponding judicial level in Chinese, only based on the understanding of the Anglo-American legal system, to give a relatively appropriate comment, "indirect re-suit" may be more appropriate.

VIII. CONCLUSION

Modern Chinese legal culture is an open system. Diversity is the essence of legal culture. Any legal culture is bound to be national and epochal, and develops continuously with the change of material production mode and the change of the times. With the further expansion of the openness of the country, the reconstruction of legal culture has naturally entered a new stage. Pluralists generally believe that religion or customary law is a part of life, and it is also reflected in systematic theory. This process also means that the existing customs of local communities (people) are in conflict with the rules and practices of the national legal system. This kind of conflict not only means whether the state law can regulate the local customs, but also means whether such special groups can stand in the modern society with "habitual lifestyle". The application of legal code makes people realize the multiple types and sources of law, and provides a way of legal observation and exploration, rather than to solidify the semantics.

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Xia Dai. Master in Psycholinguistics (University of York, U.K.), Ph.D. in Laws (Law School, Chongqing University, China), now a lecturer at the School of Foreign Languages, Southwest University of Political Science & Law, China. She specializes in second language acquisition, legal languages and legal translation.
Language Sociality and Its Enlightenment on Foreign Language Teaching

Guijie Liu
School of Foreign Studies, North China University of Water Resources and Electric Power, Zhengzhou, China

Abstract—Language is a unique tool used to express meaning and exchange ideas while sociality is a basic attribute to it. The language sociality lies in that languages exist in social activities and evolve simultaneously. Cognition of language sociality, to some extent, has an implicit or explicit influence on foreign language teaching (FLT). As one social behavior affected by the environment around, language is interfered with social, cognitional and cultural factors, which is evidently reflected in difficulties in FLT. To apply language sociality into FLT and improve the validity and reliability in the process, the following aspects need to be considered and innovated: the curriculum, process of teaching, quality of teachers, involvement of students as well as research on cultural fusion.

Index Terms—language sociality, FLT, relationship, enlightenment

I. INTRODUCTION

Language is a unique tool used to express meanings and exchange ideas. Language, an important tool for building and creating society, is also the product of a certain society. Yu Genyuan (2010) holds that language belongs to the common behavior of all members of society. Concerning foreign language teaching (FLT), talks and discussions on the reform and innovation have always become the focus among researchers in educational circles. As a language, its main purpose is to ensure communication with each other, and as a foreign language (English as the case study hereafter), it is a tool generally used to carry out interlingual or cross-cultural communication. However, the reliability and validity of traditional teaching model deviates from the original function and purpose of a language. It is no denying that when researchers consider appropriate research methods, sometimes the ethical concerns, dilemmas and conflicts in scientific research will bring them to a standstill (Seidman, 2006). Shu Dingfang, the famous educationist and linguist in China, states that the theoretical research of foreign language teaching in China is weak, and there has been a lack of scientific, reasonable and effective evaluation criteria for foreign language classroom teaching. In actual classroom teaching, there are still some problems, such as the ambiguity of teachers’ teaching objectives, the incompatibility of teaching content with students’ needs, the lack of innovation in teaching process, and the lack of cohesion between classroom teaching and extracurricular learning (2014). Hence, the voice of “changing the mode of foreign language teaching and promoting its effect” has gradually become the common understanding as well as consensus of great scholars, teachers and other participants in the educational field. Improving the comprehensive ability of listening, speaking, reading, writing and translating of foreign language learners is clearly the task in teaching practice in the new era.

Due to the difference and lag in the cognition of language, the foreign language teaching in China has been focusing on the study of language forms, such as grammatical structure, spelling, and misuse of words, etc. for a long time, regarding phonetics, grammar and lexicon as the sole element of foreign language teaching, and ignoring the positive influence of the culture attached to language on the acquisition and intercommunication of skills. In reality, language is a kind of social phenomenon, including the structure of language and social environment as well. When languages are considered in a society-related environment, the sociality is involved without exception. On the basis of the analysis of the sociality of language, this paper puts forward some determinant factors, such as cognitional, social, cultural and inter-linguistic differences, in language teaching, so as to provide a definite guiding value for the study and the teaching of a foreign language.

II. THEORETICAL ANALYSIS

Specifically, language is shared not by an individual, but by all members of society and it is a system of social meaning, which reflects and constructs social reality and is the foundation of human society (Hu & Yu, 2015). Besides, it is the means for thinking and communicating but not a pure physiological phenomenon or psychological activity. In such a sense, language is a special social phenomenon but not a common one. Edward Sapir (2004), the linguist, stated in his Language: An Introduction to the Study of Speech that Language is a particular expression of thought and culture which may be defined as what a society does and thinks. The message Sapir is delivering here is that language should be applied and used in a social environment. Speakers of one language belong to the same kind of people (or many kinds of people), that is to say, a group which is separate from other groups because of its different conditions. language

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cannot exist without culture, and cannot exist without the practices and beliefs that continue to be inherited by society, and the totality of these practices and beliefs determines the nature of our lives: the sociality. When it comes to the relationship between language sociality and language teaching, there are two different concepts: one is to regard language teaching as a combination of phonetics, pragmatics and lexicon, or just as a sign system; the other is to regard it as closely related to culture. It is indisputable that the use of language and the study of language are inseparable from the social environment.

Thus, the second concept is acceptable and applicable at present, which highlights the fact that language teaching is involved with a number of factors, not merely with language itself. The educationist James E. Alatis (2012) adheres to the fact that language teaching and its process is a complexity made up of linguistics, sociology, pedagogy and culturology. In other words, FLT is supposed to be combined with linguistic, social, cultural and educational factors. As can be seen from the above, language is a complex and comprehensive system which includes anthropology, sociology, sociolinguistics and other disciplines. Thus, the sociality of language can be clearly demonstrated in the theoretical aspect.

The sociability of language is also manifested as interlingual cultural interference. Teachers should all have cultural awareness and cultural sensitivity when carrying out their teaching activities. Elvin, a researcher specialized in teaching methodology and conceptualization, reminds teachers that cultural interference actually creates many difficulties and conflicts for teaching, whether teachers are aware of it or not. The reflection of the learning layer is the anamorphosis in the learning process of college students. As Marx said, “even when I am engaged in a scientific activity, that is, in a kind of direct intercourse with others which I can only on very rare occasions, I am social, for I act as a man; Not only are the materials necessary for my activities, but even the language which the thinker uses for activities is itself given to me as a product of society, and my own existence is a social activity.” However, in most teaching practices, students are regarded as individuals abstractly without concern for specific social survival circumstances and personality differences. Language teaching is actively generated in the interaction with other social practice activities. Therefore, sociality is the essential attribute of teaching activities.

To be true, sociality of language has long been reflected in teaching practices. The only problem is that few has put emphasis on it, particularly in FLT. The following examples can be the demonstration.

一个和尚挑水吃，两个和尚抬水吃，三个和尚没水吃。
Translated version: One boy is a boy, two boys half a boy, three boys no boy.
腊月二十三灶王爷上天，后台封戏，要等年初一开始戏。
Translated version: On the twenty third of the twelfth lunar month, the kitchen god went up to heaven...

As a culture-loaded and socially manifested character, “和尚” is full of traditional Chinese feature, and there is no equivalent in English language. Thus, the English version “boy” can not totally convey the cultural implication in Chinese. In the second sentence, the western world tends to misunderstand or even cannot accept “灶王爷”. To make it clear or acceptable by the westerners, the English version has been translated into “kitchen god”. Obviously, “和尚”, “灶王爷”, “boy” and “kitchen god” will not be understandable or communicative if confined to the language itself and do not take into account the underlying cultural differences, of which sociality of language is the most effective way to tackle. Besides, the differences between target language and the source language lie in the sociality of languages. Under such a circumstance, the following three relations should be successfully addressed: language and culture, ability between language and communication, and the integration and implantation of cultural elements in language teaching. As we know, one of the key tasks of sociolinguistics is to deal with contradictory relation between linguistic form and social constraint, as well as relation between interlingual difference and linguistic comprehension.

From what has been discussed above, we may draw the conclusion that sociality of a language can be vividly expressed and exposed implicitly and explicitly. As for teaching practice, it is the manifestation in the explicit way. “About 800 years ago, Oxford University was founded, and then 100 years ago, Harvard University was founded, and then Jingshi Teaching House was built in 1898 in China which was the so-called university in modern China ” (Liu Guijie, 2010). We may safely say that all these universities are built to cater for economic, a social and cultural development. The author here intends to make it clear that education, in any sense, is a social practice with clear intention. Teaching practice and other social activities are interactions in which the original purpose of education itself comes to a reality.

In a nutshell, sociality is the fundamental factor of teaching practice and curriculum can be regarded as the implicit representation. Concept of curriculum, teaching materials, teachers’ lead-in methodology and students’ understanding towards what they learned are all involved in a scientific process, and at the same time, in a social process with complicated parameters. So, sociality of language can not be ignored in teaching practice, particularly in FLT. Reasons for the low validity and reliability in China in FLT are mentioned above. Based on the above discussion, the following will focus on how to innovate and reform in FLT practice.

III. ENLIGHTENMENT IN FLT

The sociality of language implicitly expresses that the process of foreign language teaching cannot be a vacuum and must be restricted by the internal and external elements of a language. In the specific teaching practice, due attention
should be given to these three elements: language, language learners and language environment. Language environment determines the validity and breadth of learners. Language learners are supposed to be active information receivers, while language transmission (informational or cultural transmission) evaluates and demonstrates teachers’ professional standards and ethics. The above elements are mutually conditioned relations. Any of these factors may result in the failure of teaching, that is, the failure of informational or cultural transmission. The correct cognition of the sociality of a language is helpful to foreign language teaching in the following aspects.

A. Curriculum of Foreign Languages

The cognitive reflection of language sociality is that in addition to linguistics, sociolinguistics, pedagogy, psychology and other major disciplines, when conditions permit, sociology, anthropology and other marginal disciplines should be added in time. That is to say, Teaching should not simply stay on the students’ existing learning ability, which will restrict the development of students, especially the students with outstanding learning ability; but teaching can not go beyond the students’ current abilities without limit, otherwise the teaching process will be a meaningless dialogue, and students will not be able to carry out effective learning.

At the same time, it should be noted that language is influenced by social and interlingual environment, cultural background and customs. In teaching, the use of foreign original textbooks and an increase use of authentic material should be encouraged. The advantage of “authentic material” is that it reflects the differences in social factors, such as identity, close relationship, communication occasion, and culture and habits often are reflected in the annotations. According to Vygotsky’s theory of the zone of proximal development, we understand that the courses offered by schools must not only be based on the existing foundation of students, but also have certain difficulty and height. This does not only ensure that students learn knowledge in practice, but also promote the improvement of students’ ability. It also respects the individual differences of students to a greater extent.

In fact, the relation between Linguistics and foreign language teaching has been misunderstood for a long time. While they are two different disciplines, and are closely related and interdependent. This fact also reflects the common trend of academic development in today’s world: integration, interdisciplinary, integration of theory and practice. Besides the traditional literary knowledge and the ability of listening, speaking, reading and writing, foreign language majors and translation majors should master many other kinds of knowledge, such as philosophy, Chinese, culture, computer application and so on. Mr. Guozhang Xu (1991) pointed out that “Language is a unique symbol system of human beings. When it acts on the relationship between human beings, it is an intermediary to express mutual reaction; when it acts on the relationship between human beings and the objective world, it is a tool to recognize things; when it acts on culture, it is the carrier and container of cultural information.”

B. Students’ Involvement

The difference between the target language and the native language often becomes an obstacle to oral and written communication. Language sociality requires the process in FLT highlights students’ cross-cultural and inter-lingual awareness. Teaching is a dynamic process, which requires communication and experience between teachers and students. Participation is the core of modern teaching activities. Subject participation is restricted by factors such as teachers’ accomplishment, teacher-student relationship, emotional limitation, situational setting and technical resources (Zhao Dongsheng, 2015). Students should be guided towards paying attention to the accumulation of a cultural background, social customs and social relations when reading literary works and foreign newspapers. Moreover, autonomous learning should be the main way, and learners’ attitudes and sources of autonomous learning materials should be regularly evaluated and confirmed.

With a correct understanding of the sociality of language, the requirements for teachers’ quality have also been improved. In the process of teaching, teachers should not only pay attention to the accuracy of language forms, but also pay attention to the proper use of language and strive to make students gradually acquire “sociolinguistic awareness”.

Since we have a clear understanding of sociality of language in FLT, interaction and experience may be one of the ways for students’ involvement. Culture is a dynamic and vivid phenomenon. Every day people participate in the practice of culture in a common way of life, while experiencing and creating their history or civilization. The author here wants to emphasize people’s participation in cultural experience. Cultural teaching should use experiential education and take “cultural experience” as the core concept of cultural teaching theory. To help students understand culture, we can start with three frameworks: the wireless cycle of cultural knowledge, cultural experience and experiential learning. This is actually a series of methods, through a circular process of cultural learning. This process includes four steps: participation (direct or indirect), description (understanding content), explanation (understanding reason), and response (self-understanding). This method aims at organizing students to participate in language practice activities in order to deepen the understanding of foreign culture. In the process of experiencing culture, learners can construct rules of cultural behavior, acquire cultural information, and form awareness of cultural understanding and personal response. The forms of cultural experience activities can be diversified. They can be high participation in theatrical performances and dialogues, as well as watching related movies, reading literary works, observing pictures and other activities such as listening, speaking, reading and writing.

In FLT in modern era, Language teachers should help students understand the differences between the world and Chinese and Western cultures and broaden their horizons. It also helps students to create contact with, understand and
learn the knowledge of intercultural communication when they begin to learn English, and lays a good foundation for them to improve their sensitivity, discrimination and intercultural communicative competence in further learning.

C. Innovative Teaching Method

Today’s language teaching is more interactive and imaginative than any time in history (Zhao Yang, 2017). In order to improve validity and reliability in FLT, it is of necessity to make full use of multimedia, pictures, slides, movies and other visual teaching aids to enrich students’ foreign cultural complex. Tolstoy once said, “Knowledge is real knowledge only when it is acquired by positive thinking.” The use of multimedia and other auxiliary means. It can give full play to students’ active thinking, but also provide students with a comprehensive and creative after-class practice environment, so that the rich amount of information in the classroom can be internalized as part of students’ knowledge structure.

According to the theory of cultural transfer, if the learner’s language culture differs greatly from the target language culture, the learner will keep a distance with the target language in social and psychological aspects. Foreign teachers can bridge the gap between the native language and the target language. As the imparter of foreign culture, foreign teachers have unique conditions in cross-cultural cultivation and awareness. The learners’ interest is abundant, and the transmitter can handle it freely. Naturally, the phenomena of cultural conflict and shock are solved.

In a sense, we are supposed to continue to advocate task-based teaching, and even try content-based language teaching, in order to create a social practice activity system in the classroom; in task-based teaching, learn to use the various elements of activity system—themes, objectives, tools, rules, etc. to organize and operate tasks, strengthen the mediating role of teachers, and improve the efficiency of task operation. At the same time, we should pay attention to not only students’ language development, but also their language socialization and self-identity development. As far as second language learners are concerned, the peculiarity of classroom mediation lies in the following aspects: first, providing and optimizing language resources, such as choosing appropriate language materials for students; acting as a model or model for the use of the target language in classroom communication; creating opportunities for students to use the language and assisting them when they have difficulties in understanding or expressing the target language. Secondly, the rational allocation of language activities with emphasis on form and meaning, such as: when setting up exercises, consider the proportion of balanced input and output. Thirdly, to create a supportive emotional environment, especially to help reduce the anxiety and tension peculiar to second language learners.

Taking relationship between language and thinking into consideration, we may safely draw the conclusion that diversity of language and culture cannot be ignored. Language and thinking have two-way interaction. Thinking determines language. Language in turn influences thinking. Specific ethnic groups have formed a relatively fixed group thinking tradition based on long-term and stable co-production and life. Therefore, cultural relativity brings about the relative stability and pluralism of language, which enlightens us that in foreign language teaching, we must pay attention to comparing the differences of thinking characteristics between different countries and nations, and then accurately grasp the differences of cross-regional cultural characteristics, so as to effectively enhance students’ interest, clear up the obstacles of context and background for language learning itself, and eliminate the despair of literary meaning and rote memorization. Back-leaning also provides understanding and supporting factors for cross-cultural communication. It is suggested that language learning should establish an organic and unified relationship with the popularization of human geography and physical geography, achieve classroom integration and knowledge linkage, and enhance a three-dimensional and appealing teaching.

D. Emphasis on Inter-cultural Differences and Inter-lingual Research

The sociality of language is accompanied by the difference of language. Therefore, it is difficult for cultural guidance to be realized in foreign language classroom teaching. Teachers are required to pay attention to the transplantation and innovation of culture and strengthen understanding and research. However, it is not necessary and should not be blindly imitated and used, nor should there be cultural discrimination. We oppose cultural hegemony and isolation. Educators’ research results should be applied to teaching in real time to serve the goal of language teaching.

“...the differences between China and the West are mainly manifested in culture and thinking.” Cultural studies guided by social theories. If they had been forward-looking rather than lagging behind reality, the translation of mascots for the 2008 Olympic Games will not cause so much controversy, “Friendlies” will be replaced by “Fuwa”. At the same time, Li Ning’s slogan “Anything is possible” and Adidas’s slogan “Impossible is nothing” were naturally accepted.

Chinese is made up of a variety of Chinese characters and English is also made up of various English vocabularies. Therefore, in College English teaching in China, teachers should start with English vocabulary, analyze the different uses of the same vocabulary and its symbolic meanings in different countries, and let students understand and grasp the core of vocabulary according to the different meanings of the same vocabulary and its different contexts. In the usage, we should fully grasp the use of vocabulary in different contexts to avoid embarrassing problems caused by misunderstanding or ignorance. For example, the word “dragon” symbolizes the supreme right in China, while in some European and American countries, “dragon” symbolizes the devil. It can be seen that there are obvious differences in the meaning expressed by the same vocabulary in different countries. Therefore, it is far from enough for teachers to improve students’ English proficiency in an all-round way. Besides, students need to understand each other. Understanding of national culture, in some sense, embodies students’ cultural literacy.
Teachers should interpret English textbooks in detail. First of all, they should clarify the cultures of different countries so as to transmit the cultural knowledge of different countries to students and enable them to fully grasp the cultural information in the textbooks. For example, when explaining the content of “thanks-giving day”, teachers should first collect all kinds of literature and information resources, fully understand the historical and cultural origins of the festival, and then tell the students about the origin of Thanksgiving Day in class, as well as the development process abroad, so that students can learn English under the premise of mastering English culture. Textbooks are not only carriers of culture, but also ways for students to learn. Therefore, in English teaching, we should first let students understand foreign cultural knowledge and improve their cultural literacy. On this basis, we should strengthen the interpretation of textbooks and improve students' English level.

E. Guidance of Current Educational Theories

Language acquisition is inseparable from the communication between people and people, people and society. When people are embedded in the same social system, each person will construct characteristics for the whole system through his own experience, and at the same time generate a language learning occasion with the help of this system. According to some researchers, society and people interact with each other, so researchers put forward the sociocultural theory of second language acquisition, which regards social interaction as a model of language acquisition. The learners are no longer regarded as the receivers of mechanical processing of language input, but as the actors of their own language learning. They gradually learn language through the above models and methods for their own use in social interaction.

Considering the fact that globalization, post-modernism and internationalization are warming up and profoundly affecting the trend of social development, foreign language education has become an invisible yardstick of the most important social resources and cultural soft power of a country. Foreign language education has naturally become the bridgehead of communication and exchange between states, nations and cultures. It also bears the important mission of promoting the dissemination of traditional Chinese cultural values. Moreover, it plays an important role in maintaining national ideology, national identity, coordinating the harmonious development of society and achieving international understanding. As we all know, education is a spiritual purified land to relay knowledge, pursue truth and defend justice. However, in the current cultural logic, education gradually loses its inherent essence and ideal. Foreign language education is also “alienating” its true face. It is gradually falling into the utilitarian mud pit created by pursuing the value of educational tools. As is accepted, to ensure that learners spend their time and effort meaningfully and for maximum benefits, there must be a plan for them to work according to specific learning targets which are geared towards the aims of the curriculum. All learning and assessment activities, including the contents and strategies for such activities, should be geared towards maximum learning effectiveness for achieving the learning targets. In order to win dignity in college foreign language education, we must pay close attention to the construction and combining of theories, devote ourselves to the exploration of the laws of foreign language education and the establishment of teaching theories, attach importance to the relationship between theory and practice, find out the discomfort and distance between theory and practice, and pay attention to the complexity and uncertainty in the field of practice, so as to standardize the behavior and uncertainty in educational practice. Anyhow, as is stated by Gao Wei (2018), constructing educational philosophy is a long historical process. It is the mission and rational consciousness of educational philosophers who are supposed to carry out academic research and ideological creation.

IV. Conclusion

In today's English teaching, we believe that we should aim at cultivating students’ practical language application, overcome learning and teaching obstacles caused by differences in cognition, social culture and subject groups, constantly broaden and expand students’ knowledge of various cultural backgrounds, and conduct intercultural communication training in a suitable, timely and appropriate manner, so as to improve teaching efficiency and cultivate students’ consciousness of intercultural communication. At the same time, the problems related to the reform of education system that need to be solved urgently will also be successfully and satisfactorily addressed.

It is true that the change from teacher-oriented to student-oriented and from translation-oriented to immersion-oriented will be the result of the renewal of educational theory. The introduction of linguistic social cognitive theory will inevitably provide a new perspective and teaching method for foreign language teaching, thus enriching the research content of foreign language teaching and deepening our understanding of this issue. The perspective of language learning is multidimensional. If we compare the sociocultural perspective with other perspectives, such as psycholinguistic perspective, although the two perspectives have different cognitive perspectives, they are not necessarily contradictory in practical application, but complementary or even compatible.

Language, as a unique thinking carrier, communicative information symbol system and external behavioral expression, has multiple social and natural attributes. It belongs to cultural phenomena and serves as a direct observation basis to characterize specific national cultural traditions, and in turn promotes cross-regional and inter-generational cultural transmission and inheritance. Consistent with general cultural phenomena, the production and expression of language is not disorderly, but based on the specific thinking function of human beings, which is restricted by specific production and living practices. It can be said that specific production and living patterns directly determine the types and characteristics of thinking patterns, and reinforce them in repeated practice, thus prone to
“stereotyped thinking”. Along with it, linguistic and cultural achievements such as vocabulary and grammar, which are based on service-specific thinking expression and collaborative objective needs, will show the characteristics of diversification and individualization.

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Guijie Liu was born in Shandong Province, China in 1979. He finished his MA in Linguistics and Applied Linguistics (Translation) in Shaanxi Normal University, China in 2009. He is a lecturer at the School of Foreign Studies, North China University of Water Resources and Electric Power, and he is currently studying for a Ph.D degree at SISU (Shanghai International Studies University). His major research interests are in Comparative Literature and Cross-cultural Studies as well as Teaching Methodology.
Modal Operators and Personal Pronouns in Roosevelt’s Inaugural Addresses

Xiaoli Dou
School of Foreign Languages, Chongqing Normal University, China

Abstract—This paper tries to apply the interpersonal function of Halliday’s systemic functional grammar to analyze the interpersonal meanings of modal operators and personal pronouns in Roosevelt’s four inaugural addresses, that is, the dynamic and close relationship between the speaker and the hearers. By means of statistic method and stylistic analysis, this paper takes Roosevelt’s four inaugural speeches as objects of study, and mainly explores the interpersonal meanings of modal operators or linguistic forms so as to bring home Roosevelt’s linguistic techniques and stylistic effects. Roosevelt shows great interest in modal operators and personal pronouns to appeal to his audience’s emotional responses, to strengthen his in-group intimacy, and to convince his audience of his political purposes.

Index Terms—modal operators, personal pronouns, interpersonal function, Roosevelt’s four inaugural speeches, emotional appeals

I. INTRODUCTION

Presidential inaugural address is a special sub-genre of public speech and a heated topic for those scholars of text analysis, but there is scant literature dealing with this topic from functional stylistics. Recently, the author has got some 1665 results by retrieving the keyword “public speech” in CNKI (Chinese National Knowledge Infrastructure), but few of them are discussed from functional linguistics. Inaugural address is delivered by the president-elect on the inauguration day, in which the speaker tries to not only present himself as the highest authority of the country but also mitigate his power to some extent in order to establish an affable or rapport relationship with the audience. On one hand, mood and modality are the linguistic realizations of the interpersonal relations between the speaker and hearers; on the other hand, the interpersonal meanings can also be realized through the system of personal pronouns. Our research data include 4 Franklin D. Roosevelt’s inaugural addresses: his 1933 inaugural address in Great Depression(Text 1), 1937 inaugural address just after Great Depression(Text 2), 1941 inaugural address calling for domestic safety(Text 3) and 1945 inaugural address for peace(Text 4). By means of statistic method and stylistic analysis, this paper takes Roosevelt’s four inaugural speeches as objects of study, and mainly explores the interpersonal meanings of modal operators or linguistic forms so as to bring home Roosevelt’s linguistic techniques and stylistic effects.

II. MODALITY SYSTEM

According to functional linguistics, broadly speaking, our language perform three key metafunctions, i.e. ideational function, interpersonal function and textual function. For ideational function, we mean that by means of language, may talk about the external world around us, including discussing the things, events, qualities around us, or describe our internal world such as our thoughts, feelings, beliefs, etc. The ideational function is best represented by transitivity system or material process, i.e. whether the verb is transitive or intransitive, material process or non-material one, and physical actions are typical examples of material process, such as running, throwing, cooking, sitting down, etc.

For interpersonal function, it means that we also use language to interact with other people, to establish and maintain relations with them, to express our attitudes, views, feelings and emotions; For textual function, it means that we use some typical words or phrases to organize our messages in a cohesive, logical way.

Interpersonal function is to establish and maintain appropriate social relationships by exchanging information among people in various ways. Thompson argued that we also use language to “interact with other people: to establish and maintain appropriate social links with them.” (2000, p. 44) It also expresses the speakers’ attitudes, judgments, demands, expectation and their inference of the matters. It is mainly realized by the system of mood system and modality system.

In addition, there are some other linguistic sources which also carry some rich interpersonal functions, such as various sentence types(declarative clauses, interrogative clauses, tag questions, exclamatory clauses, imperative clauses), personal pronouns, most adjectives, some notional words, some adverbs, etc.

Modality is considered as a chief exponent of the interpersonal function in Halliday’s systemic functional linguistics. What the modality system does is to construe the region of uncertainty that lies between ‘yes’ and ‘no’. Generally, there are two types of modality: modalization and modulation, as is shown in Table 1.
There are two types of modalization: i) degrees of probability and ii) degrees of usuality. Modalization consists of probability and usuality. Probability means how likely it is to be.

Modalization refers to different degrees of likelihood between Yes and No. It consists of two sub-categories: probability and usuality. Some typical words on the probability scale are: may/might, can/could, will/would, should, must, possibly, probably, certainly, perhaps, maybe. Usuality, which means how frequency it is true, is equivalent to both yes and no, that is, the answer may be sometimes yes, sometimes no, with different degrees of oftenness attached. On the usuality scale, some typical words include may/might, can/could, will/would, should, must, usually, sometimes, often, always, never, ever, seldom, rarely.

Modalization refers to the speaker’s obligation or inclination towards the statement or proposal, or the speaker’s judgment of the desirability of the proposal. Some typical examples to show obligation are: may/might, can/could, should must, definitely, absolutely, at all costs, by all means; some typical examples to show inclination are: may/might, can/could, will/would, should, must, willingly, readily, gladly, certainly, easily.

Halliday argues that value is attached to the modal judgment. He distinguishes some three basic values of modality: high, median and low. (1994, p. 358) In our daily conversation, we may express a higher or lower degree of certainty about the validity of a proposition (it will/may rain), or a higher or lower degree of pressure on the other person to carry out a command (you must/should leave). Please observe the following table:

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</table>

Both types of modalization can be expressed in the same three ways: (1) by a finite modal operator in the verb group, e.g. that will be Mary, she’ll be happy again; (2) by a modal adjuncts, e.g. That’s probably Mary, she is usually very happy; (3) by both together, e.g. that will probably be Mary, she will usually sit there all day.

### III. Modal Operators and Personal Pronouns in Roosevelt’s Addresses

#### A. Modal Operators

As is discussed above, modality in clause can be realized through several ways. But it can be seen that modality is mainly realized by finite modal operators in our texts. Finite modal operators are called modal auxiliaries in their traditional term, such as will, would, can, could, may, might, shall, should, have to, ought to and so on. For their interpersonal function, they may show some possible hearer---speaker relations, ie, the interaction between the speaker and the hearers. Finite modal operators may show different degrees of meanings to unmodified utterances. In addition, these modal operators may suggest some different degrees of the speaker’s feelings, emotions and attitudes towards his audience. As the newly- elected president, it is quite natural for Roosevelt to establish his a close relationship by using some typical modal operators.

Generally, modal operators can be classified into three kinds of values: high, median and low. Table 3 shows that median value accounts for the largest proportion taking up 46.43%, low value covers 37.5%, and high value only 16.07%.
Besides, most frequently. The low finite modal operators are helpful for Roosevelt to intrude his attitude in more polite manner. Accepting the actualization of the promise, the addressers achieve their interpersonal function. Willingness is often used to show a prediction and commitment. With the help of modalities, the speaker is in a strong position to carry out his future policies. The newly-elected president tries to avoid giving some orders or making some requirements, which may hurt the audience. However, high value modal operators are quite necessary in some specific situations and contribute to the realization of interpersonal meanings in the addresses, e.g.:

1. High-value Modal Operators

It can be seen from Table 3 that must appears most frequently for 18 times and takes up 14.29%. According to Halliday (1994/2000), must carries the highest degree of obligation in the sphere of modulation, which implies that the speaker is in a strong position to carry out his future policies. The newly-elected president tries to avoid giving some orders or making some requirements, which may hurt the audience. However, high value modal operators are quite necessary in some specific situations and contribute to the realization of interpersonal meanings in the addresses, e.g.:

(1) If I know aught of the spirit and purpose of our Nation, we will not listen to Comfort, Opportunism, and Timidity. We will carry on. (Text 2)

(2) A nation, like a person, has a body—a body that must be fed and clothed and housed, invigorated and rested, in a manner that measures up to the standards of our time. (Text 3)

(3) A nation, like a person, has a body—a body that must be fed and clothed and housed, invigorated and rested, in a manner that measures up to the objectives of our time. (Text 3)

Here, Roosevelt uses must to influence the audience’s opinions and call them on into action. For one thing, he keeps his stand as the president of America by giving irresistible suggestion. For another thing, he avoids too direct ways by the 1st-person form I or we as subject. By doing that, he establishes a harmonious relation with his audience.

In conclusion, high value finite modal operators can be employed to call for action, but because of their heavy imposition on the audience, the addressers incline not to use them frequently.

2. Median-value Modal Operators

There are 25 instances of will in the texts, reaching 22.32% of the entire modal operators. We know, will is used to provide information about what will happen in the future and the statement made about coming occurrences that are based on the addressers’ predictions, belief and intentions rather than on their knowledge of fact. Moreover, will can be used in sentences with an obvious modal use of permission. For examples:

(3) If I know aught of the will of our people, they will demand that these conditions of effective government shall be created and maintained. They will demand a nation uncorrupted by cancers of injustice and, therefore, strong among the nations in its example of the will to peace. (Text 2)

(4) This great Nation will endure as it has endured, will revive and will prosper. (Text 1)

(5) In this process evil things formerly accepted will not be so easily condoned. Hard-headedness will not so easily excuse hardheartedness. We are moving toward an era of good feeling. But we realize that there can be no era of good feeling save among men of good will. (Text 2)

In the above examples, Roosevelt employs 8 wills to show his predictions, intentions, beliefs and attitudes. He plans to tell the audience these wills are not his own but the entire Americans’. In a conclusion, these statements enhance his status as a president and enforce his will on the audience, too.

In a word, the median value modal operator will is often used to show a prediction and commitment. With the help of will, the addressers are confident in bringing the audience the benefits of the offer. As long as the audience is talked into accepting the actualization of the promise, the addressers achieve their interpersonal function.

3. Low-value Modal Operators

According to the study of the texts, low finite modal operators takes 37.5% of the total, among which can is used most frequently. The low finite modal operators are helpful for Roosevelt to intrude his attitude in more polite manner. Besides, can accounts for 25% and appears 28 times in all. Through the study of the texts, can is often applied to denote...
three kinds of the meanings: possibility, ability and permission. They can be illustrated by examples in our texts.

(6) Small wonder that confidence languishes, for it thrives only on honesty, on honor, on the sacredness of the obligation, on faithful protection, on unselfish performance; without them it can not live. (Text 1)

(7) If I read the temper of our people correctly, we can not merely take but we must give as well. (Text 1)

(8) There are many ways in which it can be helped, but it can never be helped by merely talking about it. We must act, we must act quickly. (Text 2)

In example (6), can is often employed to express possibility. Possibility carries a very low modal value among the three basic dynamic meanings of can. In this sense, can expresses a kind of potentiality, which helps to elicit and aspire hopes from the audience and put Roosevelt in a position of the authority to predict the future and thus obtain the audience’s acceptance and identification. Example (7) uses can not to refuse to a grant permission. Roosevelt indicates that to build a strong nation, people need to devote themselves instead of taking from the country. Moreover, in example (8) Roosevelt employs can to express his determination to fulfill his presidential duty. Thus the use of can will bring more confidence and support for him from the audience.

In general, Roosevelt makes full use of low value finite modal operators to avoid being too aggressive and leave the audience room to decide by themselves. Therefore, a more comfortable atmosphere for communication has been set up.

B. Personal Pronoun System

As a grammatical category, person indicates the number and nature of the participants in a situation, and distinctions of person are usually marked in the verb and in the associated personal pronouns. Halliday holds that studying the interpersonal meaning of the pronouns in specific situation is possible and meaningful. A basic distinction is made into speech roles (I, we, you) and other roles (she, he, it, they). In effect, in a language address, the interpersonal metafunction is the interaction between I and you. They are the speaker and the hearer. Nevertheless, the nature of the address determines that they are a social-political role in a broader sense. When the speaker is given the role to deliver a speech, he is also endowed to suggest, to inform and to give orders. So personal pronouns are the reflection of the speaker’s attitude and his social relationship to the hearers. Clearly, personal pronouns themselves are rarely “neutral” in their references. Please see Table 4.

Table IV. DISTRIBUTION OF PERSONAL PRONOUNS IN FOUR ADDRESSES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Text No.</th>
<th>1st Person</th>
<th>2nd Person</th>
<th>3rd Person</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Frequency</td>
<td>179</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>83.64%</td>
<td>2.34%</td>
<td>14.02%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4 illustrates that the first person is used most frequently, covering 83.64% of the total, the third person is 14.02%, taking the second place and the second person is the least one, only 2.34% of the total. Besides, after a careful examination, we can see that the first person we is used for 142 times, I 37 times, they/he 30 times and you 5 times. The uses of personal pronouns produce different scales of psychological effects between the speaker and the audience. We can find the reasons why the speakers tend to use more we than you in public speeches, which can shorten psychological distance between the speaker and the hearer. Therefore, the following section will put emphases on these personal pronouns.

1. First Person Pronoun

In political addresses, the plural form of the first person pronoun we is used widely by the speaker to achieve different interactive effects. Besides, Halliday claims that the use of the pronoun we can be either inclusive or exclusive. When it refers to both the speaker and the audience, we is inclusive. When it excludes the audience but only includes the speaker and his party or associates, we is exclusive. Identity marker we is a linguistic strategy to show the speaker’s positive politeness by including both real and potential hearers in an activity of interaction.

(9) We face the arduous days that lie before us in the warm courage of the national unity. (Text 1)

(10) To us there has come a time, in the midst of swift happenings, to pause for a moment and take stock--to recall what our place in history has been, and to rediscover what we are and what we may be. (Text 3)

At the end of the first inaugural speech, Roosevelt describes the common adversity and purpose of the whole Americans. So In example (9), we refers to Roosevelt himself and all the Americans for the purpose of uniting people of America. At last, by applying we he places himself in the same stand as the audience and at the same time, he tries to mitigate his power to ask for their support. While in example (10), we is used to remind the American people of their glorious history and their urgent obligations as well. Here, we is inclusive and he wants to stress his status, which makes
the speech more convincing.

2. Second Person Pronoun

In common sense, you in discourse refers directly to the addressee. It both realizes its deictic function and indicates a certain interpersonal function between the speaker and the hearer. The use of you shows the lower status of the listener in comparison with the higher social status of the speaker. So often you is used less frequently in our texts, only 5 times. But the pronoun you is also an essential part of successful communication.

(11) I am convinced that you will again give that support to leadership in these critical days. (Text 1)

(12) If you and I, if we in this later day, lose that sacred fire--if we let it be smothered with doubt and fear--then we shall reject the destiny which Washington strove so valiantly and so triumphantly to establish. (Text 3)

In examples (11) and (12), you refers to not only the audience on the spot but those who are in other parts of the country. Roosevelt selects you to show his awareness of the potential audience. He hopes all the audience to realize his caring about them and expecting their support.

It can be seen that personal pronoun you achieves the effects to attract the hearer’ attention fully, strengthen the interaction between the speaker and the hearers and maintain his status as the president of the USA. Generally, the 2nd person pronoun you is seldom used in Roosevelt’s addresses.

3. Third Person Pronoun

Here, the third personal pronoun indicates the third party which is separated from the first and second forms. Adoption of third personal pronoun means that the speaker wants to project authority more than to keep equal relationship with the audience. By doing so, his remarks appear more formal and authoritative. Under such circumstance, the speaker puts more attention to the objectivity of his speech than the communication purpose with his audience.

(12) In such a spirit on my part and on yours we face our common difficulties. They concern, thank God, only material things. (Text 1)

(13) If I know aught of the will of our people, they will demand that these conditions of effective government shall be created and maintained. They will demand a nation uncorrupted by cancers of injustice and, therefore, strong among the nations in its example of the will to peace. (Text 2)

Roosevelt plans to provoke the audience to be aware of the serious problems. The existence of the third party can inspire the audience to stand with him. So, third person they drives the audience to turn to Roosevelt. As a result, the employment of they may strengthen affiliation between Roosevelt and the audience. A proper use of third personal pronoun can make the proposition objective and reliable, though too many third persons may leave the audience an impersonal impression.

IV. Conclusion

This paper tries to apply the interpersonal function of Halliday’s systemic functional grammar to analyze the interpersonal meanings of modal operators and personal pronouns in Roosevelt’s four inaugural addresses, that is, the dynamic and close relationship between the speaker and the hearers. By means of statistic method and stylistic analysis, this paper takes Roosevelt’s four inaugural speeches as objects of study, and mainly explores the interpersonal meanings of modal operators or linguistic forms so as to bring home Roosevelt’s linguistic techniques and stylistic effects. Modalization consists of probability and usuality, which may best show the speaker’s attitudes, emotions and stances towards his audiences. Our four tables and rich examples show that Roosevelt shows great interest in modal operators and personal pronouns to appeal to his audience’s emotional responses, to strengthen his in-group intimacy, and to convince his audience of his political purposes. We may see that three kinds of modal values—high, median and low, are distributed differently with low modal value taking up the highest percentage, high value the lowest percentage. From those modal values, we find that Roosevelt inclines to avoid being too aggressive and radical when he intends to intrude his own ideas and attitudes towards his audience. In addition, the first person plural we is used widely by the speaker to achieve different interactive effects, which is a linguistic strategy to show the speaker’s positive politeness by including both real and potential hearers in an activity of interaction. As a useful technique for the newly-elected president, the personal pronouns mainly consist in its reflection of the relationship between the participants in the interaction. Through our careful study, we may conclude that the personal pronouns carry some strong interpersonal meanings and they are conducive both to building a strong in-group relationship between the speaker and his participants and to convincing them of his political ideas and his governing policies.

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Xiaoli Dou is currently a lecturer of English at School of Foreign Languages and Literatures, Chongqing Normal University, China, and her research interests cover foreign language teaching and English stylistics.
Research on the Application of the Mind Map in English Grammar Teaching

Ling Wang
School of Foreign Languages, Nanchang Normal University, Nanchang, China

Abstract—English grammar is an essential part of English learning, and it is the basis for students to grasp English. English grammar learning has become a major problem for high school students in the process of English learning. Therefore, it is particularly important to find an effective way to help students master English grammar. Mind map, which is a tool to express divergent thinking, can help people rationally utilize man's left and right brain to improve people's creativity and memory. Mind map has drawn Chinese educator’s more and more attention. Based on the basic goals and requirements of the new nation curriculum reform, this paper will focus on the application of Mind map in English grammar teaching, and whether applying Mind map in English grammar teaching can improve students’ interest and efficiency in grammar learning, thus becoming a feasible teaching method in the process of grammar teaching. Through this study, this paper draws a conclusion that the application of Mind map in English grammar can enhance the students’ initiative, promote the students’ interest in learning, the efficiency of learning and the ability of grasping grammar knowledge.

Index Term—mind map, English grammar teaching, application

I. INTRODUCTION

Mind map is the expression of divergent thinking, so it is also the natural function of human thinking. This is a very useful graphic technique and a universal key to unlock the brain’s potential. Mind map can be applied to every aspect of life. It does favor on students’ learning abilities and makes students’ modes of thinking clear, and then ameliorate people’s behavior. A Mind map is a diagram which is used to visually organize information. It is hierarchical and shows relationships among pieces of the whole. It is often created around a single concept, drawn as an image in the center of a blank page, related to representations of ideas such as images, words and parts of words are added (Buzan, 1993).

The linguist Wilkins (1987) once said, “Without grammar, there are few things that people can express, without words, and people can’t express anything.” This is enough to illustrate the importance of grammar learning. In the process of mastering the knowledge of English listening, speaking, reading and writing, people must learn English grammar firstly. Only if people learn English grammar knowledge well, can they accurately express their ideas with each other in English. In reading, we are able to comprehend the structure and the central idea of the article, and then form reading ability. In writing, processing the basic grammatical knowledge, people can convey personal thoughts and feelings accurately and effectively.

English grammar is one of the compulsory language abilities. It is an important learning stage for English learners in senior high school. In some ways, high school English grammar is difficult for students to master. Because it is complicated and numerous, distributed in the textbook, which is challenging for students. Mind Map, which is a very useful graphic technology, can help students to express the divergent thinking, to explore the potential of the brain. Mind map can effectively focus the thinking of English learners on the overall framework of the concepts. Mind Map which is decorated with colors, pictures, code, multi-dimension, can lessen the vacuity of traditional grammar teaching and arouse the enthusiasm of students. On the other hand, Mind Map can help students to remember and understand grammar, be more convenient to extract the information of grammar, improve the efficiency of grammar learning.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. The Foreign Study of Mind Map

The study of Mind Map in foreign countries was earlier, the 1960s Donny Bozing (Tony Busan) began using it to help people with learning disabilities optimize their notes and improve their memory. In 1971, he presented the concept of divergent thinking and published more than 20 books, including the Mind map, Mind mapping, divergent thinking. These books have been translated into dozens of languages and published in more than 50 countries. The application of Mind map is widely used for personal use, family use, educational use, business and professional use, and future use. In personal use, it can be used for self-analysis, problem solving, Mind Map diary and so on. In the family, there are some applications. And it is widely used in the field of education. Graham, dean of the Department of Chemistry at the Shervin University of Science and Law in the UK, drew a chemical kinetic Mind map used to prepare all the chemistry classes for the seniors in the college entrance examination. And the teacher used it to prepare the lectures, while the
students used it to prepare for the lectures.

Ertug Evrekli, Ali Gunay Balima, Didem Inela (2009) claimed that Mind map could improve the efficiency of conducting constructive science and technology and help students in different stages; however, Mind map method was not appropriate for some science topics.

Özgül Keleş (2012), Elementary Teachers’ Views on Mind Mapping, was supported his views by interviewing teachers. His results showed that introducing Mind maps into instruction helped teachers improve their instruction, planning and evaluating lessons; and make the lecture more entertaining. He proposed that the technique of using Mind map could be applied to more fields by analyzing its relationship with different variables, such as different courses and participants.

Ismail, Ngah and Umar (2010) insisted that the application of Mind map to the study of computer science could improve students’ ability of programming, problem-solving ability and metacognitive level. Dhindsa and Kasim (2007), the application of Mind map to natural science in adult teaching, it was found that using the Mind map teaching graded higher than the traditional teaching method of student achievement, and Mind map method can minimize science academic achievement gender differences.

With the development of network technology, Mind map has become a very good e-learning tool. It can be used to increase the interest of learning, and to organize or guide the network content and documents better. British scholar Conole and Weller (2008) thought that Mind map serving as auxiliary tool of teaching design, Mind map could not only help designers realize anticipated target, but also help designers to better organize thoughts, share and discuss ideas in the design process as well.

B. The Domestic Study of Mind Map

The domestic research begins very lately. The research of the inland Mind Map in China mainly concentrates on: the ontology research of Mind Map, the research of the software and the method of Mind Map making, and the research of Mind Map in education and teaching field. The majority of those researches is the study of Mind map in education and teaching. While the application in English teaching is mainly in the fields of comprehensive research, vocabulary research and reading research. And there are few researches on listening and writing.

Wei Hongxia (2010) proposed that Mind map was helpful for students to exchange and cooperate with others, and it could boost their abilities of independent learning and thinking, improve their interest in learning English words in favor of the Mind map method.

Gu Xiujing (2016) stated that teachers introduced Mind map into English grammar teaching could not only to raise students’ interest but also to improve their competence of grammar knowledge. She insisted that the leading role of teachers should be ensured, and students’ role as active learners should be guaranteed should be guaranteed as well.

He Fangping (2013) claimed that using Mind map had good effect on senior vocabulary, grammar, reading and writing teaching. She supported the view that Mind map could help teacher prelect contents in the text with a scientific and effective method, help the students promote meaningful learning. In the meantime, she conducted experiments about introducing Mind map into teaching, to verify whether this can arouse students’ interest and irritate students’ initiative in learning. However, there are some shortcomings in her paper. Although she mentioned to some strategies likes principle, she didn’t give concrete measures related to teaching. In other words, she couldn’t give effective suggestions to the teachers and students.

III. CURRENT SITUATIONS OF ENGLISH GRAMMAR TEACHING IN HIGH MIDDLE SCHOOL

A. The Disadvantages of Traditional Grammar Teaching Methods

In China, traditional grammar teaching mainly depends on translations, introductions, deductions. In the course of a traditional high school English grammar class, the teacher always plays as the main speaker explaining the grammatical rules of the English language, organizing teaching in his/her native language. And what students need to do is just listening and trying hard to memorize the grammatical rule and examples. It is too passive of students in this kind of teacher-centered class. It deprives students of chances to express their own thoughts (Nie Lifang, 2012). Teachers occupy dominant role to lecture the contents in the text, however, the students always be forced to take in grammar knowledge. We can’t fail to notice this phenomenon that students are told to keep grammar knowledge in mind by practicing for a thousand times. Besides, grammar always was imparted to students by one simplex way. Meanwhile, they need to do a load of exercises including telling whether sentences follow grammar rules and then modifying them until sentences accord to the correct grammar rules. In other words, students are deprived of enthusiasm and passion in the class. It is not difficult to understand that why English grammar teaching is very dull and boring.

As for senior high school students, English is the second language that doesn’t like the native language, so familiar to them. High school English grammar in some ways is complicated and enormous for the students. Especially the usage of Chinese differs from English among listening, talking, reading, writing. Due to the impact of the first language, students have some difficulties in the process of grammar learning. Lacking real language environment, the students have few occasions to communicate with each other, to express their ideas in English in daily communication.

With an increasing number of scholars exploring and seeking better methods for education, there many researches come out, in those researches which are about new methods like situational approach, Communicative approach,
Cooperative learning method.

Mind map is widely applied into extent aspects at aboard and home. In foreign countries, the application of Mind map in education has been popularized. In recent years, a few experts in China begin to take actions to put Mind map method into education. It goes without saying that more and more new techniques are to be involved in teaching and learning

B. The Advantages of the Application of the Mind Map in Grammar Teaching

Mind map is always decorated with colors, pictures, symbols, code and so on. With the aid of its features, teachers use Mind map to lecture lessons to make the lesson fun, to stimulate the students’ interest in learning. While easily accepting the Mind map, the students learn the much more grammar.

The Mind map follows the features of the divergent thinking of the human’s brain. It makes the students effectively input or output messages which are linked with some words. On the other hand, using this way to memorize or distill information, can cultivate students ‘divergent thinking and creativity, and excavate their potential.

Teachers can use the Mind map to prepare lesson plans, to comb the overall framework of grammatical knowledge, to make the grammar in a clearer way to impart to students. Provided that students take notes about a single grammatical knowledge point with the traditional method, they can only remember one key word. If they take notes by using the Mind map, they will mention with the relative knowledge of one key word. By this way, the memory of key words will be clearer, and more fragrant.

Using Mind map to make notes—only remembering the relevant words, help students save a lot of time. What’s more, students can save time by looking at related words in the Mind map and create a clear and more appropriate association between key words.

The brain tends to accept and memorize notes with visual stimulation, multiple colors and multi-dimensional Mind maps rather than monotonous and annoying notes.

Using Mind map in the process of teaching, we can comb a lot of knowledge points, so that to make points present to students in order. The grammar knowledge that students receive can be intuitive and visualized by using Mind map. The Mind map, which contains images, colors and lines, can effectively tease out the connections between the grammar knowledge points. The very common used Mind map in high school English teaching is the main tree and the comparison diagram, which can effectively find out the connections among a wide variety of knowledge points. To take an example, while interpreting the subjunctive mood, the teacher makes the knowledge and skill target according to the curriculum goal and the teaching material. Subsequently, the teacher assigns the task to the students, and lets the students preview the content of the knowledge point of virtual emotion by themselves before points are organized and summarized with the Mind map method. By drawing the Mind map of the main tree, students have entire grasp of the knowledge they learnt. Next, teachers further explain the subjunctive mood in the process of teaching, and then draw a Mind map to compare and sum up all of knowledge points. In the process of drawing such two different Mind maps, students naturally build the positive way of thinking.

Introducing the Mind map into teaching effectively, by combining the two different Mind maps of main tree maps and contrast diagrams, help students to integrate some fragmentary knowledge points with those resources, and help them to study systematically. At the same time, students can also form good habits of thinking and study in order that improve their learning efficiency.

It is helpful for students to use Mind map to complete the integration of grammar knowledge. The method of drawing Mind map can not only stimulate students’ interest in learning, but also guide them to develop a habit of thinking actively and improve their understanding of knowledge content. For example, after grammar knowledge of subjunctive mood is taught to the students, they are divided into groups, and are required to observe and analyze the Mind map which made up of two different structures. At last, they are asked to finish the Mind map, which is used to sum up the knowledge points of the present subjunctive mood. Based on the results of the Mind map drawn by the students, the students are divided into groups to discuss and make corresponding comments; to understand and think about the mistakes, the advantages and disadvantages of the works, to understand and to digest the knowledge points explained by group members, to further deepen the important points and difficult points, and to consolidate the knowledge point step by step.

IV. THE APPLICATION OF THE MIND MAP IN ENGLISH GRAMMAR TEACHING

A. The Relationship between Mind Map and English Grammar

Buzan pointed out his concept of radiation tree and used a colorful, radial, tree like structure to describe keywords. He believed that although the “tradition” program forced readers to scan from left to right, from top to bottom, readers actually tend to scan the entire page in a non-linear way. Buzan’s treatment also uses the prevailing hypothesis of cerebral hemisphere function to explain the effectiveness of the claimed Mind map for other forms of note making (Buzan, 1993).

Mind map is popularized by Buzan who claims that it is an enormous superior note-taking method. Through Mind mapping, people can develop their abilities in memory, brainstorming, learning and creativity (Igemann, 2008). “The research collects the data by using the experimental tools such as pretest-posttest, the questionnaire, teaching reflection
and SPSS software for data analysis. Finally, the research found that Mind map in the grammar teaching had positive
effect on arousing students’ interest in learning grammar and improving their grammar learning efficiency, and it was
feasible and effective to English teaching in some way.” (Gu Xiujing, 2016)

According to Zhao, teachers can understand whether students understand the subject, if they can build the appropriate
structure of new information by checking their Mind maps. Mind mapping is a note-taking, organizational technique,
which allows individuals to “organize facts and thoughts” in a map format containing a “central image, main themes
radiating from the central image, branches with key images and key words, plus branches forming a connected nodal
structure” (Buzan, 1993). In addition, Mind map helps students absorb new information, think and develop their
conceptual schema. Mind mapping is a technology to enhance creativity and promote personal learning (Mentol.
Martinelli &amp; Jones, 1999).

B. The Application on the Mind Map in English Grammar Teaching

Prepositions are a vital part of a sentence. They and other words are made up of one prepositional phrase that acts as a
grammatical component, as an adverbial, a predicative, a complement, an attribute or a preposition object in the
sentence. At the same time, the use of prepositions is also very flexible. A single preposition can express a variety of
meanings, prepositions can be divided into time prepositions, place prepositions, way prepositions, causal prepositions,
quantity prepositions and other prepositions. The main uses of prepositions are about time, direction, conduct, reason,
method, quantity, etc. By using Mind map to classify all kinds of prepositions, students can learn prepositions with an
easier and more scientific way. Just give an example, a teacher wants to interpret prepositions indicating a place.
When the teacher designs a Mind map, they firstly mark the topic “indicating place” at the center point on the
blackboard. The preposition “at”, “on”, “in” is marked in the first branch. When the second branch expresses the use
rules, the branch of “at” should explain the use rules of “at” in Chinese. And then, the third branch will further interpret
the rules with one example sentence. In the process of drawing a Mind map, you can use one place which is familiar to
student in the example sentence like “Her father works at Fudan University.” Students can also use beautiful colors and
graphics to make Mind maps richer and more attractive. Following those steps, students can summarize the grammar
rules of other prepositions.

The topic of a Mind map is in the center, and the first branch is the preposition “at”, “in” and “on”. The secondary
branch is the rule of use for each preposition and the next branch is some example sentences of the corresponding the
use rule. Facing with a lot of prepositions, students often take a lot of time but get a lot of unsatisfactory results by using
traditional methods--memorizing every formula. With the aid of Mind map, we can systematically summarize and
memorize knowledge points. We can extract information more quickly and accurately.

The attributive clause is one of the difficult points in high school students’ grammar knowledge learning. The
attributive clause can be used to modify sentence composition of a subject, object and attribute in the whole sentence.
Because of the characters of attributive clauses, it is challenging for students about the proper usage of the relative
pronoun. In the process of distinguishing the relative pronoun of different components in the sentence, teachers can
teach students to use Mind map to draw a diagram to clearly classify grammar rules. For example, “He is a man
who/that wears a blue suit and a pair of sunglasses.”. In this sentence, the attributive clause modifies the antecedent
“man”, so the word “who/that” serves as the relative pronoun. “The people whom/that you met in the campus yesterday
are from American.” The attributive clause, “you met in the campus yesterday are from American”, modifies the
antecedent “people”. Therefore, in this sentence the relative pronoun is “whom/that”. Using the way of drawing the
Mind map, we can generalize and distinguish the relative pronoun of the subject, object and attributive, which acts as
different components of the sentence. It can not only reduce the time of learning of attributive clause grammar
knowledge, but also improve the learning efficiency. On the other hand, it allows students to participate more in the
learning process, mobilize the interest of learning.

Mastering the grammar knowledge of the adverbial clause is unavoidable for high school students. The adverbial
clause is divided into nine categories: adverbial clauses of time, adverbial clauses of places, adverbial clauses of
condition, adverbial clauses of reason, adverbial clauses of concession, comparison of adverbial clauses, adverbial
clauses of form, adverbials of purpose and adverbial clauses of result. Just take one sentence as examples. “When you
come back, you’ll find the appearance of the city greatly changed.” In this sentence, the action of the main clause is
followed by the introducer “when”. “As time passed, things seemed to get worse.” In this sentence, the clause is
accompanied by the main sentence, with the introducer “as”. If we use the Mind map to classify those adverbial clauses
of time, like “when”, “whenever”, “as”, “while”, “now”. As a result, the knowledge points of the adverbial clause of
time can be collated, inducted, classified. Teachers draw Mind map with the characters of being clear and more concise
to teach students. It is much easier for students to accept the adverbial clause of time grammar knowledge.

If a teacher introduces the adverbial clause of time to his students with Mind map method, he must firstly mark the
topic “adverbial clause of time” at the center point. In the first branch, the introducer “when”, “whenever”, “as”,
“while” is written down. When the second branch expresses the rules of use, the branch of “when” should explain the
use rules of “when” in Chinese. Then, the third branch will further interpret the rules with one example sentence. In the
process of drawing a Mind map, you can use the example sentence like “He entered the room when the meeting was
going on.” Students can also use a kind of colors and graphics to decorate the Mind map to get a better memory of
grammar knowledge. What’s more, other adverbial clauses can be introduced by such method.

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C. The Suggestions of Application of Mind Map in English Grammar Teaching

In the application of Mind map in classroom teaching, students have more freedom to study independently. However, without enough preparations, the amount of homework and the time of collecting and sorting information may affect the completion of normal teaching tasks. Therefore, teachers can make use of the extracurricular time and classroom time to have students complete the preparatory work of Mind map before class time. For example, gathering and processing information can be completed before the class. At the same time, teachers can also enable students to complete the preliminary Mind map without guidance. The teacher communicates and discusses the achievements of students individually. And through classroom time, teachers will guide students to perfect the production of Mind map. In this process, teachers should pay attention to the guidance of students’ deep thinking so that students can finally acquire complete knowledge system and mature research results.

Teachers can make full use of the teacher’s leading role. The first reason is about students’ different thinking patterns. The students draw different shapes because they possess their own different thinking modes. Therefore, teachers should give different guidance according to different students’ learning styles, so that students can develop their vocabulary ability on the basis of improving their thinking ability.

Secondly, we need to adjust the differences maps for students. Because the Mind map and the traditional text information have different arrangement order and pattern, the initial drawing of the students will appear to be confused, and their works’ difference is great. Regarding of those reasons, teachers should avoid making simple and uniform demands. That is to say, the teachers can show students the knowledge points with a variety of forms such as self-evaluation and mutual evaluation, evaluating the differences. Then, the teacher will ask the students to revise or redraw the Mind map and reflect on the learning content.

Thirdly, we need to monitor the effect of students’ memory. The students’ memory style is very different, some students’ ability of memorizing is not good, the memory of things is lack of purpose, the ability of short memory is poor, and forgetting is fast. Teachers should monitor the learning effect of students against this problem. We can collect feedback information, or use tests to evaluate students’ learning effect, find out the deficiencies in teaching and amend them in time.

V. Conclusion

In this study, the author finds that the Mind map is a useful and effective thinking tool, which can help students to memorize grammar knowledge and improve their learning efficiency. In the course of research, the author find that Mind map is not only a learning tool for students, but also a suitable teaching tool for teaching. As for teachers, they can use Mind map to prepare for many works. Mind map can be used for teachers in wide aspects, such as preparing for lessons, doing lesson plans, etc. Mind map method can also enrich and perfect the teachers’ teaching skills. On the other hand, the author observed that it is useful to use the Mind map to organize the knowledge of each of the individual elements, especially in the refresher course. Using Mind map to comb and sum up the knowledge points. And then using lines to link knowledge points and difficult points, to reform stereoscopic connection. It will not only help students to make thinking visual, to clear the norm of exhibition now, and to have deep comprehension about the knowledge points.

Meanwhile, the author noticed that phenomenon that now there were some students drawing the painting of Mind map table with low confidence and they feared to make it in mess. The reason for such thought is drawing picture in the process with conflict psychology. It is suggested that teachers should operate much more group activities and encourage members in the group to discuss and ditch together, to learn from each other. The drawing of Mind map itself is a kind of art creation, and it doesn’t need to satisfy the standards of beauty and ugliness; each of them is a result of the creation of the human being’s brain. The author maintains that the application of Mind map should be emphasized. This kind of language teaching method should not be only applied in listening, speaking, reading and writing. The application value of Mind map should not be limited to this, and its application value in other subjects should be further studied.

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Ling Wang was born in Jian, China in 1967. She received her bachelor of Art degree in linguistics from Jiangxi Normal University, China in 1995.

She is currently an associate professor in the School of Foreign Languages, Nanchang Normal University, Nanchang, China. Her research interests include cross-cultural teaching and teaching methods.

Prof. Wang is a member of the Chinese Association of Foreign Language Teacher.
A Study of Discourse Strategies from the Perspective of Critical Analysis

Xinya Zuo
Shanxi Normal University, China

Abstract—Critical discourse analysis (CDA) is a form of reflective inspection of how discourses shape and influence us. It has been applied widely especially in political discourses which analyzes the potential characteristics of language and the social and cultural background generated in the text, committed to exposing the complex relationship between language, power and ideology with the aid of critical thinking. Generally, the theoretical framework of CDA is based on Halliday’s systemic functional linguistics. Halliday believes that language has three metafunctions, namely ideational function, interpersonal function and textual function. These three achievements meet the needs of language users in three aspects including the description of the experience of objective world, the construction of social relations and the organization of discourse. As an important theory in systemic functional grammar, transitive system embodies the ideational function of language, which expresses people’s real world experiences and the inner world in several processes. In addition, this kind of theory is based on the semantic configuration of Actor+Process. Therefore, this paper will make a critical discourse analysis of Donald Trump’s inauguration speech in 2017 from the aspect of linguistic transitive system. The purpose of this paper is to analyze the language skills used by Mr. Trump and the discourse generating patterns of his presidential image, so that we can explore the ideology reflected behind the language and dig into the process of building the image of the president of the United States in Donald Trump’s inauguration speech.

Index Term—critical discourse analysis, systemic functional grammar, transitive system, Donald Trump’s inauguration speech

I. INTRODUCTION

In 1989, Fairclough, a leader in CDA, has pointed out in Language and Power that language is not merely a transparent intermediary, but a tool for expressing ideology and power. The relationship among language, power and ideology is implicit, so the main purpose of discourse analysis should be to make the relationship between language, power and ideology clear and to reveal the hidden determinants in the system of social relations and their implicit influence on the system. (Ji Weining, Xin Bin, 2009, p.21) CDA has been increasingly and widely applied in the analysis and study of various discourses, and has achieved fruitful results. It has greatly deepened people’s understanding of the relationship between language and society. At the same time, the guiding theory of linguistics is mainly based on Halliday’s systemic functional linguistics, which argues that language is social practice, the speaker is a social participant, the language system is regarded as a social symbol, and the use of language can be explained as a kind of social behavior. (Guo Zhiming, 2014, p.78) In other words, CDA can be regarded as a societal analysis from the linguistic perspective and a branch of critical theory in linguistics. It links the relevant historical and social context with appropriate linguistic methods, analyzes and reveals the power and dominion in the ideological field implied in the discourse, and studies the specific influence of discourse on reproduction and strengthening the power and dominion. (Chen Zhongzhu, 1995, p. 21).

As a representative and also popular target discourse, political speech discourse is definitely the focus area of CDA. The inauguration speech of US president Donald Trump on January 20, 2017, was an influential political speech text and with distinctive language characteristics. In speech discourse, speakers use various skills to achieve the purpose of their speeches. As a result, Mr. Trump is actually using the language skills to build a good image of him, and even to show audience the ideology behind it through language. Meanwhile, CDA, as an important way to expose the complex relationship among language, power and ideology, plays an extremely important role in the disclosure and presentation of this hidden purpose in political speech.

Therefore, from the perspective of meta-function of systemic functional linguistics, this paper will analyze and discuss the transitive system of Trump’s inauguration speech, with a purpose to study the linguistic characteristics of the presidential image building in the speech. In addition, the paper can also provide readers with a research idea and method to interpret political speech discourse, so as to improve readers’ sensitivity to comprehend political speech language. The source of the data of this study is from Guancha Syndicate (https://www. guancha.cn/america/2017_01_21_390488_2.shtml).

II. THEORETIC FOUNDATION

A. The Connotation and Research Path of Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA)
The term “critical discourse analysis” was put forward in *Language and Control* in 1979 by Roger Fowler at first. (p.11) In 1995, Fairclough further explained about the relationship between language, power and ideology. (p.6) Ideology is the general concept and view held by human beings when they understand the world and sum up their experiences. It is a set of ideas, beliefs, especially political beliefs, that form the basis of the conduct of the masses, parties, and even the state. (Sinclair 1995:833) First of all, CDA introduces the critical tradition of social analysis into the study of language, and its critical theoretical origin is based on the critical tradition of western Marxism. CDA studies how the use of language embodies and constructs the perspectives, values and ways of talking of the powerful class, the purpose of which is to reveal the power and ideology behind it by studying the use of language, to highlight and criticize social injustice and so on. Therefore, CDA is an analysis tool with critical attitude, which is different from other types. (He Wei & Wei Rong, 2018, p.64)

At home, Xin Bin (2000) has proposed that CDA aims to reveal the relationship between language, power and ideology from the perspective of linguistics, sociology and psychology through superficial language forms. This theoretical research mainly involves the influence of ideology on the process of discourse generation, the reaction of discourse to the form of consciousness, and how the two come from the social structure and the relationship between power and power, and how they serve it. (p.44)

In the study of CDA, the three analytical methods approved by most linguists are as follows: in 1981, M. Bakhtin put forward the intertextual analysis of discourse genre; in 1966, Fairclough raised discourse historical background analysis and Halliday put forward the systemic functional grammar in 1978. (Zhu Guisheng & Huang Jianbin, 2016, p.59) These three analytical methods emphasis on different aspects. Systemic functional grammar is well-known as analyzing the functionality of the text and is consistent with the research purpose of this paper, therefore, we choose Halliday’s systemic functional grammar as the theoretical basis.

**B. Systemic Functional Linguistics and Transitive System**

Huang Guowen (2017) discussed the relationship between systemic functional linguistics and ecological linguistics. It is pointed out that some theories of systemic functional linguistics can assist the linguistic analysis of the text studies in order to reveal the ideological meaning hidden behind it. It emphasizes the important linguistic view and methodological significance of systemic functional linguistics to critical discourse analysis and even ecological critical discourse analysis. (Mu Junfang, 2018, p.122)

Halliday once pointed out that the process of reflecting and constructing the objective world with linguistic symbols is also the process of understanding the present world. (He Wei & Wei Rong, 2017, p.599) According to Halliday, language can roughly achieve three meanings in different contexts: ideational meaning, interpersonal meaning and textual meaning. They correspond to three meta-functions of language respectively, namely ideational function, that is, all kinds of empirical fragments and their logical relations recognized by human beings; interpersonal function refers to the function of speech and the attitude of the speaker, judgment, etc.; textual function means that language forms words and sentences into coherent texts by its own mechanism in order to express ideational and interpersonal meaning. (Yang Xueyan, 2012, p.32)

The transitivity is a semantic system that expresses the idational function and a network which involves six types of process (namely material process, mental process, relational process, vernal process, behavioral process, existential process) as well as the participants and environmental elements. In general, this paper is an attempt of critical discourse analysis, which is based on the systemic functional grammar and follows the assumption that “Form is the realization of meaning”.

**C. Corpus Selection**

The text of political speech is different from face-to-face communication and has the characteristics of one-sidedness. The speaker takes on the role of information sender and fully demonstrates his attitude and observation perspective on the event. These characteristics make the political speech text more inclined in the choice of position, and the choice of language is more valuable, so it is the main research object of CDA. (Kang Junying & Li Fengqin, 2018, p.25)

Through inauguration speech, the public were given the idea of future policies and livelihood measures of the country by president. Therefore, the speakers and his team organize the logic and words carefully, integrate the political thought into the writing arrangement, and achieve the predetermined political purpose and effect through various linguistic means. (Li Hui, 2018, p.63) Hence, based on American president Donald Trump’s inauguration speech, this paper explores the language skills of his speech from the perspective of CDA, choosing transitive system to excavate the implicit meaning behind his discourse and the relationship between power and ideology and the process of building the image of the president.

**III. CRITICAL DISCOURSE ANALYSIS BASED ON TRANSITIVE SYSTEM**

Ideational meaning is the product of the interaction of human cognitive system and language system. Human recognize the phenomena in the real world through the brain, categorize and conceptualize the pieces of experience in the brain through the language system. (Yang Xueyan, 2012, p. 33) Halliday believes that people can interpret their experiences in the real world as an operable group of processes through transitive systems. transitive involves the
“content” of the whole clause, that is, covering the process, the participants in the process and the related environmental components. (He Wei & Wei Rong, 2016, p.1) That is to say, the transitive model is based on the configuration of “actor+process”. The basic distinction between six processes (namely, the material process, the mental process, and verbal process, relational process, behavioral process, and existential process) is between experience outside of us and that inside us. They are the summary and classification of the means of expressing of the ideational function of clauses. According to statistics, there are 131 clauses in Trump’s speech text. The following will carry on the discourse analysis from six kinds of action processes.

A. Material Process

The material process is used to represent the process of doing something such as watching and drinking (Hu Zhuanglin, 2013, p.281), and is used to identify the material world experience of human beings. (Wang Zhenhua, 2018, p.60) This kind of process is generally represented by dynamic verbs, movers and the objectives of actions. For instance, in the clause “The letter was written by Tom”, systemic functional linguists describe “Tom” as the actor (also called the agent), that is, the subject responsible for the action process “write”, and “The letter” as the goal (the affected), meaning the objective which is acted upon.

The president’s inauguration speech is of great significance, and its main purpose is to arouse the enthusiasm and support of the people by publicizing the policy agenda of the new government. Of the 131 clauses in this discourse, the material process appeared 83 times, accounting for the vast majority of clauses. The arrangement and choice of language in the material process reflect the purpose and ideology that the speaker wants to convey. Trump mainly uses the material process in two kinds of narration: one is the narration of the existing problems and contradictions in the United States, the other is the narration of how to solve the problem immediately after Trump takes office. We will choose a few examples for discourse analysis and excavate the deep meaning behind the word.

A. “For too long, a small group in our nation’s Capital has reaped the rewards of government while the people have borne the cost.” (4"34")
B. “The wealth of our middle class has been ripped from their homes and then redistributed across the entire world.” (10"15")
C. “We will bring back our jobs. We will bring back our borders. We will bring back our wealth. And we will bring back our dreams.” (12"15")

First of all, sentence A is consisted of two clauses. The participants in the first clause are “a small group in our nation’s capital” (agent) and “the reward of government” (affected), while in the second clause are “the people”(agent) and “the cost” (affected). By using the conjunction “while”, a strong contrast between the former and the latter participant’s role system is built, reflecting the corruption of the former government which greatly hurts the interests of the American people. It expresses Trump’s emphasis on the issue of people’s livelihood and the interests of the American people.

The sentence B, on the other hand, further focuses the situation of the American middle class. The semantic configuration of this clause is “action process (ripped and redistributed) + affected (the wealth of our middle class)”. We need to pay attention to the choice of predicate verbs here. The word “rip” literally refers to tear or pull quickly or forcibly away from sth. or sb, and is used here to indicate how deeply the middle class people are hurt. The usage for this sentence can be understood from two aspects: First, Trump was born in a middle-class American family. The growing environment enables him to have an extraordinary empathy for the middle-class and thus has deeper sense of the living condition for them. Second, the theme of Trump’s campaign is to help the middle bourgeoisie. He has made many promises to them to safeguard their interests.

Finally, the third one comprises four clauses which all begin with sentence pattern “We will bring back”. This expresses the determination of Mr. Trump to rebuild the United States, returning benefits to the people and has a certain pragmatic presupposition, that is, the US minority interests and improper national policies have caused the American people to lose their job opportunities, tranquility, wealth and dreams. The repeated use of “We will bring back” indicates that they emphasize the interests of the American people and the determination to take back the interests for the American people, and also shape the image of a president who strives for the interests of the American people. (Li Hui, 2018, P.64)

B. Mental Process

The Mental Process indicates the process of “perception”, “reaction” a, “cognition” and other mental phenomena(Hu Zhuanglin,2013, p.281), used to understand the experience of people’s consciousness, involving two participants: the sensor and the phenomenon. (Wang Zhenhua, 2018, p.60) Verbs such as wish, think, love, fall in this group. For instance, the subject “I” in the clause “I hate this terrible weather” is regarded as the sensor, and the thing ‘this terrible weather” sensed as the phenomenon. There are totally 14 mental processes in this speech.

As for sentence D, the goal and phenomenon achieved by the predicative verb “share” is a series of parallel phrases. This sentence makes the speaker close the distance between himself and the audience, integrates the individual identity into the social group identity, emphasizes the same American citizenship as the people, and aims to arouse the emotional resonance of the people. Furthermore, the sentence E is occurred nearly at the end of the speech and manifests his determination and great ambition to rejuvenate the United States with all the American people. Meanwhile,
the subjective chosen in this clause is still “we”, sending a message that the future and direction of the United States is determined by all Americans once again. Everyone should be involved in the effort and new initiatives of revitalizing the US economy.

D. “We share one heart, one home, and one glorious destiny.” (8”48’)
E. “Finally, we must think big and dream even bigger.” (15”27’)

C. Relational Process

This kind of process often connects two participants together and is generally consisted of attributive relational process and identifying relational process. (Hu Zhuanglin, 2013, p.281) whose participants is carrier and attribute, token and value, respectively. (Wang Zhenhua, 2018, p.60) In the clause “The princess is graceful”, “the princess” is the carrier while “graceful” the attribute. From another aspect, if the sentence “Charlotte is the captain” is used to answer “who is Charlotte”, then “Charlotte” is the token and “the captain” is the value.

The relational process has occurred 21 times in this speech discourse, relatively more than other process types. It focuses on description of the relationship between scenarios, attributes, and features among people. Through this process the audience recognizes their affiliation with the country and the new government, and thus enhances a sense of belonging to the state. As for discourse F, on the one hand, quantified language can strengthen the momentum of Trump’s speech and provoke the enthusiasm of the audience and convince them. On the other hand, this sentence emphasizes “your time” and “your celebration”, which is intended to indicate the determination of building a democratic nation. The sentence G composes of two clause, and the semantic configuration of which is “their dreams(token) + are + our dreams(value)” and “their success(token) + will be + our success(value)”. According to context, pronoun “their” used in G refers to the American citizens who straitened in their circumstances. Therefore, this sentence shows his attitude of caring for the suffering of the people, taking the people’s livelihood issue as a priority and hoping to arouse all the people to resist the determination to plunder and the enthusiasm for rebuilding the new order.

F. “This is your day. This is your celebration.” (5”56’)
G. “Their dreams are our dreams; and their success will be our success.” (8”37’)

D. Behavioral Process

The behavioral process covers mental or material processes such as coughing, crying, breathing, gazing, etc. There is only one participant- behavior, the subject of the action, and generally a person. (Hu Zhuanglin, 2013, p.281) Thus, there are still differences between behavioral process and those two processes in that the action achieved by behavioral process is not performed on anything. For example, “The students laughing the teacher.” is meaningless, whereas “The students respect the teacher.” is meaningful.

There are totally 8 behavioral processes achieved in this inauguration speech discourse. In the previous campaign speech, Trump’s campaign slogan “Keep America great” has become familiar to Americans. (Li Hui, 2018, p.65) The behavioral verbs (not fail, thrive and prosper) chosen here are still highlighting Trump’s strong confidence in leading the United States on a path of greater prosperity. And discourse H also encourages the people to unite, to be bold in innovation, exploring and overcoming difficulties.

H. “We will not fail. Our country will thrive and prosper again.” (16”22’)

E. Verbal Process

Verbal process is used mainly in exchanging information. The predictive verbs belong to this category usually include speaking, asking, explaining and so on. (Hu Zhuanglin, 2013, p.281) The participants involved in this type are sayer, verbiage, receiver and target. (Wang Zhenhua, 2018, p.61) We can understand it though following example: the semantic configuration of the clause “Can you explain the requirement to students?” is “sayer(you)+verbal process(explain)+verbiage( the requirement)+receiver(students)”. There is merely one verbal process throughout the entire discourse, that is the clause I. Trump portrays the brilliant vision of the unity of the American people in the future by using the spirit of nationalism to encourage the people to unite, and to create. In a context with strong religious air, Trump combines his beliefs with the spiritual pillars of thousands of people, using the Bible as a medium to evoke resonance among the people, which is following most consistent way of the presidential inauguration speeches in American history.

I. “The Bible tells us, “how good and pleasant it is when God’s people live together in unity.” (14”29’)

F. Existential Process

The existential process indicates the existence or occurrence of something. Each existential process has only one participant, that is, existent. (Hu Zhuanglin, 2013, p.282) It consists of clauses in which there acts as grammatical subject, for instance “There was no coffee” and “There seemed to be a contradiction”, and so on. There are totally 4 existential processes in this speech discourse.

The clause J guides the follow-up text to criticize previous US presidents and governments, denouncing the immoral upper American interest groups and inappropriate national policies that have led the American people to lose their jobs, tranquility, wealth, and dreams they are supposed to enjoy, and to give examples of the tragic experiences of the
American people. However, the relatively optimistic economic situation can not eliminate the fear of the people. They concern about future life and the country’s economic position and globalization, and also care for immigration and terrorism. By using the clause “There should be no fear”, Trump encourages the people: the new country, the bright vision and the prosperous economy will return to the people as he takes office. In a word, the existential process always plays a role in emphasizing the argument and leading to the following topic.

J. “There was little to celebrate for struggling families all across our land.” (5”19’)
K. “There should be no fear - we are protected, and we will always be protected.” (15’00’)

IV. CONCLUSION

Through the analysis of Mr Trump’s inauguration speech from the perspective of transitive system, this paper verifies the operability and practicability of critical discourse analysis of systemic functional grammar in speech discourse. The article finds that Trump’s inauguration speech uses a multilingual strategy to build his presidential image and inspire the audience: Using abundance of material processes to demonstrate his commitment to the people and his vision for the future of the United States, aiming to build a presidential image of being responsible, doing practical measures, and serving the people. The 14 mental processes play the role of expressing the emotional atmosphere and driving the audience’s emotions and manifest his determination and great ambition to rejuvenate the United States with all the American people. On the other hand, the use of a large number of relational processes also enhances the empathy of the audience and as a result to inspire the audience’s sense of mission and to encourage the audience to actively participate in the development of the United States.

In summary, this paper analyzes the language skills and text generation mode of Trump’s inauguration speech, and explores the ideology behind it. At the same time, it provides a research idea and method for readers to interpret political discourse to improve language sensitivity and to enhance the ability for readers to preferably understand and interpret the discourse.

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Xinya Zuo was born in Linyi, Shanxi, China in 1995. She is a graduate student and currently studying in Shanxi Normal University. Her research interests include linguistics, critical discourse analysis and ecological discourse analysis.
Passing over Sisters: Denial of Farhadi’s Unsafe Society

Ma’soome Sehat
English Department, Yazd University, Yazd, Iran

Hossein Jahantigh
English Department, Yazd University, Yazd, Iran

Abstract—Employing semiology to study the academy award-winning director, Asghar Farhadi’s oeuvre up to 2016, this paper wishes to scrutinize his depicted society through the lens of feminism. His female characters’ lifestyle and their way of thinking show they always feel uneasy in Farhadi’s depicted society. It defines woman the same as what other patriarchal societies do, an object in need of protection. In this undesirable condition, women are expected to back their sisters up; however, the opposite is true about nearly all female characters in Farhadi’s cinema. They usually live while denying each other as a sort of defense mechanism, and after Farhadi’s famous accidents, there is always one or more female characters putting the blame on the female victim of the accident, technically speaking, referred to as victim-blaming. This paper wants to seek a psychological answer for this unusual behavior. In this regard, seven movies have been chosen including: Dancing in the Dust (2003), Beautiful City (2004), Fireworks Wednesday (2006), About Elly (2009), A Separation (2011), The Past (2013), and The Salesman (2016).

Index Terms—defense mechanism, denial, Farhadi, feminism, objectification, society, semiology, victim-blaming

I. INTRODUCTION

The depicted society in Farhadi’s cinema is unsafe for women. It does not matter where the story is set and which class of society is involved, all women are in danger of being abused. Haunted with the fear of infamy, they have to keep part of the reality of their life secret from other members of society, including their husbands. It seems woman is considered an object in this society whose value is subject to question easily. Therefore, a woman is always in need of a man’s protection, who is not, necessarily, stronger than the woman, herself. While a male character in all Farhadi’s movies tries his best to back the central female character, she finds other women tormenting her life. In this respect, this paper seeks, in its first part, to identify what the unsafe depicted society of Farhadi looks like and in its second part, to argue the impression of female characters’ behavior in embittering of this harrowing experience and the possible psychological reason behind it. With the defense mechanism of denial, they can ignore the unsafety of their society and victim-blaming helps them keep distance with the women involved in the accidents.

Many researchers have found Farhadi’s life and career interesting as their field of study by virtue of his winning of two academy awards. A major or a significant part of most of these pieces of research are allocated to feminine issues, since, a social problem, centralizing a woman, is always typical of his works. Tina Hassannia (2014) in her book entitled Asghar Farhadi: Life and Cinema has presented six articles about Farhadi’s first directed movies, prefaced by an exclusive interview with the director himself. The third article of her book entitled “When I became a woman” has chosen Fireworks Wednesday and its female characters as the subject of study. She has analyzed the movie centralizing Rouhi, the young servant. Although her article has the feminist perspective in common with ours, its center of attention is the clash of different classes of society rather than women. Moreover, in his comparative study, Kambiz Partazian has used the same movie to analyze Iranian society in three decades of the 1360s, 70s, and 80s (corresponding with the Western Calendar 1980s, 1990s and the first decade of 21st c). He has deduced that women have undergone the most radical changes during the aforementioned modern period.

Mehra Shirazi, Patti Duncan and Kryn Freehling-Burton (2017) in an article entitled “Gender, Nation and Belonging: Representing Mothers and Maternal in Asghar Farhadi’s A Separation,” have had a close reading of A Separation from a feminist perspective. They believe that in this movie “the discourse of gender and nation are being negotiated” (p. 84). However, the contribution of this paper to the existing literature is that it tries to consider Farhadi’s œuvre up to 2016, by analyzing the issue of woman against woman.

In this regard, semiology is employed as the method of analyzing these movies to disclose their latent meanings, because this approach tends to “elucidate [codes], make them explicit [and] establish them as objects while in nature they remain buried in the film” (Metz, 2011, p. 47). Additionally, a semiotic study “is not only the sum of films but also the unique and sovereign code which is assumed to be coextensive with all semantic material provided by [the] films” (Metz, 2011, p. 27). Therefore, for syntagmic aspect of semiology (relation of units) scenes are zoomed on. For
paradigmatic one "association whereby the signifier has chosen to represent the signified in similarity or relation to other signifiers" (Roth, 2013, p.19), different semiotic elements of these movies, including frames, scenes and especially dialogues are scrutinized. By doing this, different signs of the unsafe society and women’s feelings toward patriarchal societies are decoded.

Before going over the methodology of the paper and by virtue of the great number of the selected movies it is proper to render a plot synopsis of them. Farhadi’s oeuvre includes movies that focus on similar social issues. For instance, almost all of his female characters are dealing with the same problems. Dancing in the Dust is the first in this line. This movie tells the story of Reyhane and Nazar, newly married, but forced to break up their marriage. The society has labeled Reyhane’s mother as a prostitute and having relationship with such a girl will ruin Nazar’s life. Despite all his love, Nazar, eventually puts an end to this marital relationship. His mother has a crucial effect on him to change his mind and make this decision. After separation, Reyhane is doomed to follow her mother, as Nazar has predicted. A woman ruins another one’s promising future, what can be traced in Farhadi’s second movie, as well.

In Beautiful City, Firooze’s dream to marry Aa’la cannot be fulfilled because of Abolghasem’s wife’s suggestion. Aa’la goes to great lengths to save his fellow inmate, Akbar, Firooze’s brother, sentenced to execution for murdering Abolghasem’s daughter. With Abolghasem’s consent, his punishment can be changed. Abolghasem’s wife suggests that she will get his consent if Aa’la marries her disabled daughter. With such a proposition, she puts Rehyane in a dilemma between Aa’la’s love and Akbar’s life, choosing any of which is going to ruin her future. Main female characters in The Fireworks Wednesday share similar feelings. Simin feels guilty because of having a love affair with Mojde’s husband, but it is too difficult to break up with a man who adores her. Mojde, on the other hand, goes on living with Morteza although she is aware of his infidelity, while all other women treat them as criminals.

Simin in A Separation, does not have her mother’s support for getting divorce. However, she leaves her husband, Nader, and goes back to her mother’s house. In Simin’s absence, Nader employs a servant called Razie to help him nursing his sick father. Having come back home sooner, once, Nader finds his father in a bad situation, which makes him to burst into anger and throw Razie out of house. The same night Razie aborts her child. Everybody puts the blame on Nader, although she is not sure. Like Simin, Razie cannot find other women supportive of her decision and feelings. Her sister-in-law stops her telling the truth and the woman in Nader’s neighborhood and his daughter’s teacher testify against her.

About Ellie portrays a lovely girl called Ellie. She has accepted to go on a trip with Sepide to get familiar with Ahmad. On the trip, she goes to the sea and gets drowned. Meanwhile, Sepide and her friends who do not know what exactly has happened to her, start making gossips. They assume her as a poor girl and finally Sepide ruins all her reputation with her lie. She tells Ellie’s fiancé that Ellie never talked about him which means Sepide did not know about their engagement while inviting Ellie to the trip.

Almost all female characters in The Past lack the support of other women. Naeema who works in a laundry shop is suspected by Celine to have love relationship with her husband. Both these women worsen each other’s situation, which ends in Celine’s suicide. Marian, on the other hand, is the one with whom Celine’s husband is in love. Other female characters, especially her daughter, ignore her feelings, too. Lucie sends her mother’s love letter to Celine. No woman in this movie understands another one. The same is true about The Salesman’s atmosphere. Ra’na pays no attention to women around her. Sanam, her copartner in the play is one of these women. When one male copartner teases her, Ra’na cannot help laughing. Aahoo is another woman ignored by Ra’na. She used to live in the house to which Ra’na and her husband want to move. She opens the door of Aahoo’s room and asks her friend to put her stuff in the yard. In thirtieth moment of the movie, however, an accident changes her situation. She gets assaulted by a strange man who enters their house. After this accident, she feels a hard time that other women cannot understand. Azita, the director, plays her role in the play on stage without informing her and Sanam asks her to behave normally.

II. METHODOLOGY

Semiology is the science of constructing a comprehensible model to explain the signified meaning to an audience (Roth, 2013, p. 8). As one of the first critical methods applied to cinema, it considers cinema a composite language system, and defines film as a unit of discourse.

To Metz, the foremost film semiotician, discourse is a series of statements rather than the language itself. In his book entitled Language and Film, Metz (2011) offers five film facts appropriate for semiotic studies, namely, “the visual image, the musical sound, the verbal sounds of speech, sounds effects and the graphic form of credits.” He believes that by scrutinizing these features, a semiotic analysis can go through theme or “the internal organization of meaning underlying a given film” (p. 16), which is exactly what this paper tries to do by decoding Asghar Farhadi’s discourse from a feminist viewpoint. Therefore, different signifiers of the patriarchal society in his directed movies up to 2016 and their influence on the characters, especially the female ones, are explained.

Moreover, considering film as a social phenomenon, semiology desires to leave the study of film facts to external issues and related disciplines such as social science and psychology. Thus, “victim-blaming” as a category belonging to the former and defense mechanism of “denial,” a term belonging to the latter one, are employed to clarify the behavior of Farhadi’s female characters.

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Farhadi’s depicted society is not safe for his female characters. As the conversation of the two sisters in Fireworks Wednesday indicates:

**Mahshid:** Wherever you go, it’s unsafe darling, it’s all the same.

**Mojde:** Even when you are out, you feel nervous to come back. (Saadatian & Farhadi, 2006, 00:27:51)

Some women like Mahshid are accustomed to such a situation while many others like Mojde are always complaining about it, and still there are others such as Simin in A Separation and R’ana of The Salesman who try to escape from it or at least ignore it.

Farhadi tends to sketch his story’s shreds of evidence in the patriarchal society with male dominance and female submission. The inferiority of woman in patriarchal societies leads to her objectification. Andrea Dworkin has described it thus:

Objectification is a social process that occurs when a perpetrator in a being, through social means, is made less than human, turned into a thing or commodity, bought and sold. When objectification occurs, a person is depersonalized, so that no individuality and integrity is available socially or in what is an extremely circumscribed privacy. (as quoted in Riddle, 2015)

Women stand at the very bottom of the hierarchy of power in patriarchal society and therefore male members of society can use them like an object. Objectification is not just a social phenomenon but a way of thinking through which people’s perspective toward life can be defined; a perspective familiar to Farhadi’s characters. They act as if they accept objectification as a harsh fact. In this part of the paper, four of the social consequences of such a perspective are presented with examples from Farhadi’s cinema: 1. Objectification puts women under lasting gamic observation of men; 2. It also lets others judge them easily; which means that 3. A man should always protect them; or 4. Society forces them to infancy.

Firstly, in Farhadi’s depicted society, female characters are always under gamic observation of males. The famous French feminist, Simon De Beauvoir suggests that “patriarchal societies define a woman as the other, as not much more than her body, as ‘the object for the gaze and touch of a subject, to be the pliant responder to his command’” (as quoted in Bulbeck, 1997, p. 26). She indicates that in a patriarchal society, woman is an object in service of man’s needs. Thus, men are allowed to enjoy this object, annoying them, though.

The unsafe society for women is depicted stereotypically and recurrently in almost all the selected movies: Nazar of Dancing in the Dust in the scene of departing from Reyhane, asks the man in the taxi to swap his seat with Reyhane to protect her from men’s sidelong glances. In the sequence of bus in Beautiful City, A’ala protects Firooze by stopping a boy gazing at her. The woman next to Emad of The Salesman in the taxi seems to have had a similar experience while asking the driver to swap her seat. Emad, later on, explicates her behavior to his student thus: “For sure, a man must have irritated her once” (Mallet-Gay & Farhadi, 2016, 00:22:47).

As Kiang (2017) has mentioned: The Salesman “is a film about the mistrust and fear of women by men, especially the dangerous mystery of their sexual allure.” No woman feels safe in The Salesman’s atmosphere. Sanam finds playing in the theater a risky job, but needs the money; Ra’na’s neighbors are worried to live next to a prostitute and the woman in the taxi, as mentioned before, cannot stand sitting close to a man. On the other hand, different male characters’ behavior in this movie, regardless of their age, attests to this fear. Siavash’s sexual mindset makes him burst into laughter at Sanam playing a prostitute role; Emad’s student seems to have erotic pictures in his cell phone and Babak is in secret relationship with Ahoo, the prostitute formerly residing in the same new house of R’ana and Emad, belonging to Babak. However, nothing can describe this “dangerous mystery” more explicitly than the old man addressing his transgression against R’ana as “I was tempted” (Mallet-Gay & Farhadi, 2016, 1:42:42).

Secondly, Farhadi’s society, like all other patriarchal societies, defines woman as an object in need of protection. As Patricia Owen declares: “Cultural norms in patriarchal societies dictate that women need male protection from predatory males” (2018, p. 90). It seems a woman can be safe from all danger and fear when she is protected by a man. Thus, having accepted this reality of patriarchal society, Farhadi’s female characters always need men as their protectors, no matter how strong the man is or how old he is. It can be a young boy like Sanam’s son in The Salesman with whom R’ana feels at ease coming back home or a wretch addict like Firooze’s husband in Beautiful City, their mere existence helps women to feel safe. When A’ala asks Firooze as to why she keeps the marital ring in her hand despite being a divorcee, she answers: “What do you think? How do I manage to live in such a place; with the help of this ring, with the help of an addict to make others believe he's my husband. Without a man, every night many will come to you” (Taghioop & Farhadi, 2004, 1:15:52). Although Firooze’s husband is good-for-nothing, his very sign in her hand keeps men away from her and mutes people making rumors similar to what was spread about Reyhane’s mother and her bad reputation in Dancing in the Dust. Abolghasem’s wife, another female character in the same movie, apparently has married Abolghasem to provide a male support for her daughter. She outspokenly tells this to her husband “I brought my daughter to your home since I was hopeful that you would treat her like a father” (Taghioop & Farhadi, 2004, 1:06:56). Both these women, Firooze and Abolghasem’s wife, are portrayed as much wiser than their husbands but still in need of them to live in the unsafe society. The need which Mojde in Fireworks Wednesday feels while saying “I wish dad were here” (Saadatian & Farhadi, 2006, 00:31:00). Telling her sister about her husband’s affair, she thinks only a man’s protection can solve her problem. It might be the reason behind sleeping near her son,
Amirali, at the end of the movie. It seems as if Amirali’s company makes Mojde feel safe. Simin, her foil character in the movie, also, after being annoyed by two bikers, returns to Mortez, despite recently breaking up with him. Mortez is not available anymore, which shows like other male shelters in Farhadi’s oeuvre, this one is unstable, too.

Razzie in *A Separation*, on the other hand, is always worried about her husband’s feeling toward her work, therefore, she needs to keep it as a secret, what most of the female characters in Farhadi’s cinema do. It may allude to the fact that not only do women feel unsafe in the society but also they are not at ease at home. Reyhane in *Dancing in the Dust* cannot talk to Nazar about her background and gets divorce rather than revealing her secret. Sepideh in *About Elly* always has something furtive from her husband while Celine of *The Past* and Mojde in *Fireworks Wednesday* need to keep their suspicions against their spouses secret. And lastly, R’ana in *The Salesman* cannot retell the details of the accident to Emad. All these women like to picture a better future by ignoring their past, as if their husbands’ awareness would push them back and stop them from moving forward. In his interview with Zeinab Kazemkhah, Farhadi introduces his female characters as forerunners. He believes that women, the ones with the potential of mothering, always surpass the past far easier than men do.

As the third consequence it can be mentioned that being a woman in a patriarchal society puts female characters at the center of others’ observation and, accordingly, judgment. If a male character were to take the place of the female one, the entire or half of Farhadi’s challenges would become void. *Fireworks Wednesday* and *The Past* seem to retell the same story in different settings. Having been left alone by their husbands, both Simin and Marie have to keep their love affairs secret. In this regard, the modern setting of France is not much different from that of the tradition-bound Iran. Female characters in both settings are exposed to others’ judgment, while neither their separations nor their being loved by new men is on their own accord. Having been forced to neglect their love of their ex-husbands, they are doomed to live with the guilt feeling of ruining another woman’s life. It is obvious that if these female characters were replaced by men, their problems would be meaningless and such judgments would be out of question.

Another example of women fated to be prejudged is Reyhane whose life is ruined because of rumors around her mother. She is doomed not to have a happy life with her lover, Nazar. Both at home and at work, Nazar is pushed to divorce her by virtue of the rumors around her mum. R’ana of *The Salesman* is haunted by the fear of such rumors while none of them, neither Reyhane nor R’ana, is guilty. However, they are women, fragile objects prone to be damaged easily. Additionally, in *About Elly*, if the central character were a man, the story would not be that much complicated, hence, nobody could form these judgments. After getting lost, different assumptions about Elly’s being a prostitute are expressed:

Amir: ‘If she has a fiancée why on earth she has come to the North with us?’
Nazi: ‘She does not seem to be such a girl.’
Peyman: ‘She does, but we were too idiot [to believe her].’ (Farhadi & Farhadi, 2009, 1:26:51)
Manoochehr: ‘Look how a twenty-year-old girl put us all in trouble? (Farhadi & Farhadi, 2009, 1:27:45)
Peyman: ‘The guy had had a fiancée while coming here in search of a husband … She betrayed her husband.’ (Farhadi & Farhadi, 2009, 1:40:35)
Manoochehr: ‘All [her help] was a mere show.” (Farhadi & Farhadi, 2009, 1:41:05)

The forth consequence of patriarchy refers to this danger of prostitution, what nearly all female characters of Farhadi seem to be exposed to. They can be easily labeled as damaged girls or prostitutes, a good example of which is Reyhane of *Dancing in the Dust*, whose lover, Nazar, says: “If I divorce her, she’ll be doomed” (Taghipoor & Farhadi, 2003, 00:6:32). He believes that after their separation, Reyhane’s life will be a replica of her apparently prostitute mother or at least at the risk of infamy. It needs to be mentioned that this is typical of Iranian movies, i.e. when a woman loses the feeling of ruining another woman’s life. It is obvious that if these female characters were replaced by men, their problems would be meaningless and such judgments would be out of question.

Despite being a divorcee, Firooze of *Beautiful City* keeps the wedding ring in her finger to save herself from this danger, as quoted earlier. She believes that without the wedding ring she will be easily turned into a prostitute. Besides, Naima in *The Past* faces a similar accusation by Celine who suspects Naima and Samir, her husband, to be in a secret relationship while Lucie incriminates her mother by these words: “since my birth, she married thrice, it is the same old story, somebody comes and after a while leaves” (Mallet-Gay& Farhadi, 2013, 00:29:52). As it is clear, she easily accuses her mother of prostitution. Finally, the best example of this reality in *The Salesman* is R’ana. Infamy is her fear of life, leading her not to speak about her accident at all. She feels unsafe about others’ judgment. “Who knows? How does she/ he understand it?” are the questions she asks repetitively, through the movie. On the other hand, in this movie, Ahoo is a foil character for both Sanam and R’ana, who are susceptible to be defined by society like her. Ahoo is a single mother who becomes “a damaged woman,” in Emad’s words, to live off in this unsafe society.

To Farhadi, prostitution is an inevitable consequence of poor living conditions. The dialogue between Nazar and his colleague best indicates this fact:

**Nazar:** Reyhane [whom he is forced to divorce] is innocent.

**Amri:** Her mum was innocent once, too. (Taghipoor & Farhadi, 2003, 00:12:30)

This mother and daughter are doomed to have such a life since society deprives them of other options. This is what makes Farhadi respectful toward prostitutes, as he mentions it in his 2016 interview with BBC. Different scholars have the same opinion about this issue. Mary Walek Atwell (2014) has gathered some of their ideas in her article entitled
“Prostitution, Law.” As she mentions: Barry thinks prostitution and sexual slavery is the consequence of patriarchal society which justifies such pleasure for its male members. Daris, having had an anthropological study of the issue in different societies, comes to this conclusion that "woman [who has] chosen a career in prostitution is contradicted by the reality of her powerlessness” and Zaplin (2015) refers to it as “a means of survival in the streets” (p. 1315). All of them put the blame on society and Farhadi seems to be on the same side. This danger is always available in his movies, hinting that prostitution is the force, not the choice of life.

IV. DENIAL AND VICTIM-BLAMING: IGNORING OTHER WOMEN TO FEEL RELAXED

As discussed earlier, women in Farhadi’s depicted society always feel uneasy. This is not just a simple feeling but a reality of their society from which none of them can escape. Although some of them run into different shelters such as male protection, they seem to be doomed to live with its fear in their mind forever. It is the story of their everyday life either as a victim or as a witness. When it is their own turn, thanks to the defense mechanism of denial, they try their best to act as if nothing has happened. Surrounded by this fact in every moment of their life, their egos seek refuge in this psychological shelter:

Denial is a defense mechanism used to avoid dealing with a painful reality. Denial is said to be a conscious behavior because people are aware on some level that they are denying. The person may pretend or act as if problems do not exist, trying to protect themselves from an unpleasant situation such as addiction or abuse. (Kittelson et al., 2005, p. 40)

Such people, by employing the defense mechanism of denial, prefer to neglect reality, consciously. This consciousness is obvious in the dialogue of the two sisters in Fireworks Wednesday:

**Mojde:** You are a kid who takes everything as a joke.

**Mahshid:** What on earth have you done by taking all things seriously? (Saadatian & Farhadi, 2006, 00:26:04)

Mahshid tries to employ a carefree attitude toward the problem, while her words and actions show something else. However, as witnesses, women find a better refuge in victim-blaming, the sociological term referring to the situation in which the victim is blamed rather than the criminal. The best example of this is again Mahshid who blames her sister for her husband’s betraying her. In a previous scene she is heard on the phone checking her own husband as not to gaze at other women. This signifies her fear of seeing the same behavior from her own husband. In other words, women like Mahshid attempt to deceive themselves. They want to believe such problems are so far from them. This wrong perception is what happens recurrently in Farhadi’s oeuvre, as highlighted below.

Nazar’s mother insists that he must divorce his wife or his family will ignore him. He argues the consequence of this separation, saying that Reyhane is innocent and leaving her alone will force her to take after her mother’s life as a prostitute. Nazar’s mother is so stubborn and denies the harsh reality of society just mentioned by her son. Nazar, on the other hand, tries to give Reyhane a chance. Eventually his mother is the big winner. Her crocodile tears make Nazar change his mind and divorce Reyhane. Some signs in the last scene of having Reyhane in the frame signify that Nazar was right. Reyhane is portrayed in the same mise en scene in which her mother was putting clothes on the lines at the beginning of the movie. Her top to toe black outfit is replaced with a white one which is the code of a radical change and her innocence is lost under a light makeup, a meaningful look, and eyes full of tears. Her life is ruined, as Nazar predicted before, and the blame of this loss lies with Nazar’s mother.

Another woman is Abolghasem’s wife in Beautiful City who stands in front of Firooze’s promising future with A’ala. Firooze has fallen in love with A’ala; she takes off her wedding ring and asks him not to steal anymore because she does not like him to be behind bars again. However, Abolghasem’s wife asks Firooze to force A’ala to marry her daughter. This marriage will be considered as Abolghasem’s daughter’s blood money who was murdered by Akbar, Firooze’s brother. Thus, Firooze is forced to neglect all her fantasies of a future happy life with A’ala for the sake of her brother’s life. This is the dialogue when her lover, A’ala, asks her to make a decision after Abolghasem’s wife’s offer:

**A’ala:** I’m crazy, if you say I will marry her. What should I do, Firooze?

**Firooze:** She is a good girl

**A’ala:** Are you bad?

**Firooze:** Me? I have a child. I’m several years your senior. I’m not suitable for you

**A’ala:** How come? Of late you were!

**Firooze:** When did I say I’m suitable for you? Don’t misinterpret my attention in the last couple of days as my love for yourself. It was all for the sake of Akbar that you were dying to save.

**A’ala:** You are lying, you are lying. (Taghipoor & Farhadi, 2004, 1:18:44)

The defense mechanism of denial is what Firooze finds shelter in. She intentionally ignores her love for A’ala and the one responsible for this is Abolghasem’s wife. She might not be aware of Firooze’s love for A’ala and refrains from noticing it even after Firooze bursts into tears while hearing her decision. She acts as if her own problems of life make her blind to Firooze and her feelings. The same behavior can be seen in the first movie, Dancing in the Dust. When the judge asks Reyhane as to why she seeks divorce, she replies: “I do not like him,” Nazar complains: “Don’t you like me?” and she answers back “kidding” while winking (Taghipoor & Farhadi, 2003, 00:15:15).
The same is true about all middle-class female characters in *The Fireworks Wednesday*. Mojde and Simin are always being backbitten by other women in their neighborhood, the first one because of her bad temper and the latter one because of her living alone. In Mojde’s case, her neighbor recalls her by the word “the crazy woman” and even her sister, Mahshid, cannot understand her. When Mojde wants to pour her heart out, Mahshid insists that the problem is Mojde, herself:

**Mahshid:** You idiot, such a good and calm husband [you have].

**Mojde:** He is my husband, I know him. Why do you talk in his favor? (Saadatian & Farhadi, 2006, 00:30:45)

This discussion continues the same for several minutes. When Mojde makes her sure about Morteza’s having affair, Mahshid says; “with your [messy] life and house…” (Saadatian & Farhadi, 2006, 00:31:57). Mahshid believes Mojde shares the blame for Morteza’s infidelity while a male character like Mahmood, Morteza’s colleague, addresses him thus: “I think you must have done something wrong because your wife is not crazy to come here and spy on you since noon” (Saadatian & Farhadi, 2006, 00:58:15). He does believe Mojde must have had a good reason to stand hours outside her husband’s office. Simin, her foil character, on the other hand, is asked to move from that apartment because of the neighbors’ complaints, despite all her attempts to be always helpful to them. It seems as if nobody cares about her. Her very presence in that apartment, however, is threatening Mojde’s life, since she is too intimate with Morteza. The opposite can be correct, too, Mojde stands on the way of her happiness. As a result, these two women’s love for one man defines them as enemies. Roohangiz, the young servant, comes to an understanding about the danger of other women after getting familiar with them and their lifestyle.

The issue of a woman in opposition to another woman is not highlighted in *A Separation*. However, the different female characters come up against each other in this movie. Nader's neighbor who says Razzie had fainted the day before the accident is a case in point. After her report, Razzie is completely condemned. Simin’s mother is another example who seems totally neglectful of her daughter and her decision of separation. While seeing Nader she says:

**Mother:** Not divorcing yet and already ignoring us.

**Nader:** I’m busy, mum.

**Mother:** People divorce their wife to get less busy. (Farhadi & Farhadi, 2011, 00:47:02)

She talks to him with a sense of humor as if nothing has happened. It looks as if she wants not to lose the protection and support of this man.

This atmosphere is depicted clearly in *The Past*; the story of passing over sisters. Celine and Marie stand in the way of each other’s love and happiness. Besides, Naima does not feel safe at work since Celine suspects her of having an affair with Samir.

**Naima:** She didn’t like me since she was suspecting me.

**Samir:** Why did she suspect you?

**Naima:** Since you have given me a job regardless of the fact that I had no job permit. She thinks you and I are in an affair. (Mallet-Gay & Farhadi, 2013, 1:43:37)

In the next scene, she continues: “She [Celine] used to do something to make you fire me” (Mallet-Gay & Farhadi, 2013, 1:44:28). Assuming Naima as a rival, Celine did her best to irritate her. Instead, Naima gave her email address to Lucie since she wanted to send her mother’s love letter to Celine. They both gave each other hard time without any attention to the feelings involved. It ended up in the worst imaginable thing; Celine had a suicide attempt in front of Naima’s eyes. Lucie, on the other hand, was the one who ruined her mother’s happy future. She sent her mother and Samir’s love letters to Celine, possibly accounting for Celine’s suicide attempt. Her mother recalls her by these words “let her come and see how she puts my life in a mess” (Mallet-Gay & Farhadi, 2013, 1:06:47).

In *About Elly*, Asghar Farhadi narrates the story of two women: Elly who is known to nobody but Sepide, and Sepide who hides it. It is the only story in Farhadi’s cinema in which a woman like Sepide tries to back up another woman, Elly. However, others force her, at the climax of the story, to stand in front of her. She lies to Elly’s fiancé that she never mentioned his name while being invited to the trip to get familiar with Ahmad, Sepide’s friend. The movie finishes with the sequence of having disappointed Sepide in the kitchen while at the background others are pulling their car stuck in the beach sand. Sepide still feels guilty and blames herself while others are involved in an outdoor problem.

In *The Salesman*, at the beginning of the movie, Ahoø’s stuff is thrown away regardless of her insistence on not touching it. R’ana is the only one who has talked to her directly. She is totally neglectful of her feeling and right. Although Emad is doubtful about opening Ahoø’s room’s door, R’ana insists on opening it. She treats as if this intrusive action would not ever happen to her. Nevertheless, she experiences the same accident, in the following scenes, when instead of the stuff, her body is involved. Moreover, after cutting the play within the movie by Sanam, playing a prostitute (since Siavash, cannot get passed the sexual nature of her role) R’ana bursts into laughter ignoring Sanam’s feeling. In several following parallel sequences, R’ana herself is the one ignored by other women after her accident; at the hospital, by the nurse stitching her head; at work, by Cathy playing her role in the play without informing her; and finally, by Sanam insisting on her coming back to work soon. Sanam directs R’ana:

**Sanam:** Tomorrow on, you need to come back to show, everything is in a mess, nobody knows what’s he doing.

**R’ana:** Why?
Sanam: I don’t know, they all are unhappy, after all. You look better. Tomorrow come to the stage.

(Mallet-Gay & Farhadi, 2016, 1:30:21)

The same old story is repeated in Farhadi’s cinema. A woman ignoring another one’s feeling asks her to act the way society requests. Sanam, as mentioned before, is the foil character of Ahoo, single mothers who have to live off in this unsafe society. Sanam is at the risk of being another Ahoo, however, she thinks R’ana’s accident will never happen to her.

V. CONCLUSION

A semiotic study of Farhadi’ cinema up to 2016 has shown that the society portrayed by him cannot be considered safe from the feminist perspective. In his society, like all patriarchal societies, female objectification is a norm. Men are permitted to treat these objects as they wish. Surprisingly, female characters in Farhadi’s cinema usually behave as though no threat is around. The defense mechanism of denial is what they have chosen to manage to live on in such an unsafe society. This denial is too strong and sometimes leads to blaming the female victim of the accident. Such a behavior helps them to remain neglectful of other women and feel immune from the danger of society.

To a social realist like Asghar Farhadi, women are blamed in constructing such a society, if not more than male members, at least the same as them. R’ana of The Salesman is the best example to warn women not to ignore each other’s plight, lest the worst might easily happen to you once.

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Ma’soomeh Sehat, was born in Yazd-Iran in 1986. She is currently a postgraduate student of English Literature in Yazd University, Yazd-Iran.

She is a senior lecturer in several language institutes in Yazd with more than 7 years of experience. She is currently working in Mehryar Language Institute in Yazd. She is the author of two articles in film studies and comparative literature. Her areas of interest are Comparative Literature, Film Studies and Cultural Studies.

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Hossein Jahantigh, was born in Zahedan-Iran in 1980. He is assistant professor of English Literature in Yazd University, Yazd-Iran.

He has a teaching experience of more than 15 years at university level in Iran. He is the author, translator and editor of several books related to drama and fiction: *Macbeth with an Introduction to Drama* (Yazd, Yazd: Andishmandane Yazd 2014), and *The Plough and The Stars* (Translated into Persian, Yazd, Yazd: Andishmandane Yazd 2015). He has also written several articles in the areas of cultural studies, cinema and drama. His areas of interest and research include cultural studies and cinema.
The Implementation of Flipped Classroom Teaching Mode in Basic English Teaching for Tibetan College Students*

Jinfeng Liu  
Gansu Normal University for Nationalities, Gansu Province, China

Abstract—For Tibetan college students to learn English, code-switching hinders them because Tibetan, Chinese, as well as English, form a trilingual environment for language learning. To improve such situation, this article studies the implementation of flipped classroom mode which can innovate the traditional teaching mode by fully highlighting the students’ subjectivity as well as stimulating the students’ initiative and enthusiasm.

Index Terms—flipped classroom mode, traditional teaching, Tibetan college students, Basic English

I. INTRODUCTION

As technology updates so rapidly, in parallel to the speed of development in technology, education should also trace it and push its development by innovating in learning method. However the teacher-centered traditional English teaching mode has been unable to meet students' individual development and career development needs. In face-to-face classroom, the teacher has been dominated students' learning outcomes and the curriculum is designed to prepare students for exam requirements. In this case, the Decade Development Plan of Education Informatization (2011-2020), which was issued by the Ministry of Education in China, has driven innovation in higher education. The Plan pointed out that for the development of education informatization, the use of digital technologies in classrooms should be based on high quality educational resources and the construction of an information and communication technology-based learning environment. The burst of information and educational technology inspired the implementation of the flipped classroom teaching mode. Meanwhile we should clarify the actual situation of education in China in case of superficial imitation, which helps us to realize the true student-based classroom teaching.

II. DEFINITION OF FlIPPED CLASS CONCEPT

Flipped class is also called inverted class, which is defined from the perspective of learning process. Traditional knowledge transfer is mainly completed through the teacher's instruction while the knowledge internalization requires students to achieve it through doing their assignment or practicing after class. Flipped learning is a relatively modern instructional method which emphasizes effective use of class time by changing the traditional tasks of teachers and students inside and outside the classroom (Baepler, Walker, & Driessen, 2014; Davies, Dean, & Ball, 2013; O’Flaherty, & Phillips, 2015). Flipped classroom teaching is a hybrid classroom teaching model, which is assisted by online homework, online testing as well as online community discussion to help students to discover learning problems, and then in the classroom teachers and students cooperate to solve problems, so that to achieve a deep grasp of the teaching content. In flipped class students are expected to acquire knowledge actively. Evidence also indicates that engaging students in active learning enhances their learning outcomes higher-order thinking, problem solving, and critical analysis and improves their motivation and attitudes (Freeman, 2007). Therefore the features of flipped class include: a) more interaction between the teacher and students; b) immediate feedback from the teacher; c) more devotion for students into learning; d) adjustable learning schedule for students according to their learning needs; e) more productive exercises under the supervision of the teacher in class (Goodwin, 2013).

III. THE DEVELOPMENT OF FLIPPED CLASS

Lage, J.M., Platt, J.G. and Treglia, M. (2000), Flipped Classroom: A Path to Creating an Inclusive Learning Environment first proposed the concept of "flipped classroom". In 2007 chemistry teachers, Jonathan and Aaron recorded video so that students who couldn't attend class on time could study at home at Rocky Mountain Forest Park High School in the U.S. State of Colorado. On January 30, 2012, Woodland Park High School in the United States held the Flipped Classroom Open Day to promote the flipped classroom teaching model. Later, "Khan Academy" was

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founded by Khan, which made flipped classroom become a new teaching model that many teachers are interested in. Arfstrom, K.M., Hamdan, N. and Mcknight, P. (2013) summarized flipped research on a global scale, they found that contribution to the success or fail of the flipped classes. Most studies on flipped classroom are on the effectiveness of activity design of flipped classroom, especially on peer learning and active learning strategies.

IV. RESEARCH ON FLIPPED CLASS IN SLL (SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING)

Jeong-eun Kim, Hyunjin, Mijung Jang and Hosung Nam researched the cognitive impacts of the flipped classroom model. Suranakkarin and Todson explored the effect of flipping a classroom on Thai learners’ English collocation knowledge, and compared this instructional design with traditional instruction. Chi-Jen Lin; Gwo-Jen Hwang investigated factors affecting EFL Students’ Oral Performance in a Flipped Classroom. Chuang, Hsueh-Hua; Weng, Chih-Yuan; Chen Ching-Huei explored individual characteristics, such as learners’ motivation, learners’ self-efficacy as well as learners’ epistemology beliefs and so on, that might effect on learning result in a flipped classroom. Wang, Jun; An, Na; Wright, Clare learners outperform in oral proficiency with flipped learning method. Chen Hsieh, Jun Scott; Wu, Wen-Chi Vivian; Marek, Michael W. presented insights into the impact of theory-based flipped learning on motivation and idiomatic acquisition; student impressions of the online platform used, LINE; and offer recommendations for practice. (Ahmed 2016, Baranovic 2013, Engin 2014, Jehma 2016, Mireille 2014), who have proposed that significant improvements in writing performance can be largely attributed to flipped instruction. They also found that students had favorable attitudes towards this instructional model.

V. COGNITIVE STYLE OF TIBETAN STUDENTS

The cognitive style of Tibetan students generally belong to the field-dependent type. Due to the unique plateau environment, snow area culture as well as life custom influence, Tibetan students have formed the field dependence cognitive style since childhood. Witkin put forward field independence and field dependence of the two kinds of different cognitive styles: field independence is mainly rely on their own knowledge structure to analyze and solve problems independently, so their autonomous learning ability is stronger than field dependence, but their social sensitivity and social skills are considerable low, which result in they are not good at communication and cooperation with others; however field dependence are often affected by external factors, so they have weak independent learning ability and prefer group learning, hoping to get real-time information feedback. In addition, field dependence are good at learning and memorizing materials containing social content.

VI. WHY SHOULD WE FLIP THE CLASS

As figure 1 shows, the learning retention of active learning which includes discussion, practice doing, teach others is more higher than passive learning which includes lecture, reading, audiovisual, demonstration. Therefore with flipped learning, students' original role as passive listener is reversed to active participant in classroom activities (Baepler, Walker, & Driessen, 2014; Davies, Dean, & Ball, 2013; O’Flaherty, & Phillips, 2015).
Figure 2 is Bloom’s Taxonomy of educational objectives. Bloom’s taxonomy (2019) is a set of three hierarchical models used to classify educational learning objectives into levels of complexity and specificity. The three lists cover the learning objectives in cognitive, affective and sensory domains. It plays an important role to measure higher and lower level cognitive skills. Apart from this, it also can evaluate how well students master the learning material based on the levels of the taxonomy. Flipped classrooms mode provides learners individual time and space to learn as well as produce their own ideas prior to class, which can free up lower level cognitive skills in the class, facilitate them to engage in more higher level cognitive capacity.

VII. HOW TO FLIP A CLASSROOM

How to flip a classroom? It can be approached differently in practice. To begin, teachers adopting a flipped classroom approach can convert traditional face-to-face lectures into narrated PowerPoint videos, self-create instructional videos or select ready-made educational videos from websites or networks for learners to study prior to class as lecture replacements in order to free up class time for active learning activities (Moravec, Williams, Aguilar, & O’Dowd, 2010). Sams and Bergmann pointed out that the value of teaching videos which applied in flipped classroom belongs to the lower levels of cognitive work, while the class time is reserved to deal with the cognitive work of higher levels, i.e. application, analysis, evaluation and creation (Sams, 2014). However applied flipped classroom model, it is not necessary to be a professional video producer, it is possible to use any source that explains the subject (Tucker, 2012). Simply put, flipped teaching can be conducted with various instructional videos, and other forms of assignments. The lectures are delivered to the students through electronic means outside of class time allowing students practice oral and dictation skills so that in class students carry out group cooperation. In this way knowledge transfer is not conducted by face-to-face instruction, but prepared by the teacher through creating some video lectures which related to teaching content, then the video will be sent to each student via the Internet, through watching the video before class, the process of imparting knowledge is implemented in extracurricular activities alone. In the classroom knowledge will be internalized through discussing and practicing activities. Nevertheless flipped learning is not only about how to use videos in lessons, but how to make use of class time with students. Flipped classroom is a kind of workshop in which students can discuss about lecture content, develop their skills, as well as interact with each other through hands-on activities. In this case the role of instructors is to guide and advise students during the class hour ( Educause, 2012). Flipped classroom is different from traditional teaching, it focuses on the students’ ability of independent learning, students are responsible for their own learning, this kind of teaching mode fully respect the students subjectivity, it makes the students become the master of the classroom, extracurricular learning thoroughly change the traditional classroom, students learning will become a kind of personalized learning. Therefore we should dedicate to the construct and maintain the independent learning environment, which is a highly subjective and media-rich learning environment, so as to realize the students learning autonomy as well as liberate teachers from classroom teaching as much as possible, which is the original reform intention of the flipped classroom.

VIII. THE SITUATION OF BASIC ENGLISH TEACHING

Background survey of Tibetan-Chinese bilingual students in Gansu Normal University for Nationalities

Gansu Normal University for Nationalities, located in Gannan Tibetan autonomous prefecture, Gansu province P.R.China. There are diverse ethnic groups in the prefecture, which including Tibetan, Han, Hui and other ethnic groups, the total population is 680,000, among which the Tibetan population is 340,000, which accounting for about 50%. Due to the influence of Lableng temple that located in Gannan Tibetan prefecture, therefore Gannan has become a holy land where the majority people of Anduo Tibetan areas yearn for, it also attracts students from Tianzhu county, Xizang Tibetan autonomous prefecture, Sichuan, Qinghai,Yunnan, and other Tibetan areas. According to a survey, the sources of Tibetan-Chinese bilingual students in Gansu Normal University for Nationalities are followed:
The impact of environments upon human behaviors has been long established (Lewin 1936). As revealed, the students who come from ranch areas account for 15%, those who come from farming and pastoral blend areas students are 57% as well as the farming area students take 28%. From the point of language speaking, the majority of students who come from ranch areas speak Tibetan for the most part, they have little chance to communicate with other people in Chinese, however those who come from farming areas only speak Chinese, as for the students who come from farming and ranch blend areas, they can speak both Chinese and Tibetan. Totally more than half of the students are Tibetan speakers, which is a great challenge for English learning. Therefore educators and learners should be provided with good language learning environment. In this sense, integration of students’ Information and Communication Technology (ICT) skills into the learning process will probably yield better results in terms of language learning and production (Ekmekci, 2017).

**Difficulties in Basic English teaching**

Being a compulsory course, Basic English is required to study by Gansu Normal University for Nationalities for Tibetan-Chinese bilingual students. In view of Tibetan college students whose starting point in English learning is very low, which results in encountering difficulties in vocabulary, phonetics, grammar and so on. It is inevitable to meet setbacks in English learning for Tibetan-Chinese bilingual students under the context of unique trilingual education, moreover Tibetan university students will meet difficulties which are brought by the cross-cultural communication. Among these barriers, code-switching is the greatest difficulty for Tibetan students in English learning because of the mother tongue hindering.

**IX. NECESSITY OF IMPLEMENTING FLIPPED CLASSROOM IN BASIC ENGLISH TEACHING IN ETHNIC COLLEGES**

**Disadvantages of traditional teaching in Basic English teaching**

According to the teaching syllabus, the teaching aim of Basic English is to cultivate and develop students’ comprehensive application ability which includes listening, speaking, reading as well as writing, therefore we should endeavor to cultivate students’ independent learning ability and cooperative learning ability based on the scaffolding theory. Therefore the teaching focus should be transformed to students. Which require teachers to innovate their instruction mode in order to lower difficulties and try to create more high efficient classes. However the fact is traditional classroom teaching mode is still the dominant stream, which in form of cramming explanation, allowing students to passively accept the instruction, in this case they will not internalize the lesson if they do not review timely after class. Apparently students’ individual differences are ignored in this traditional class, the teacher regardl ess of individual learning ability. Therefore we should transfer this kind of teaching mode which ignores individual differences. In essence, the traditional teaching mode violates Confucius' education thought and runs counter to the concept of "student-centered" new curriculum reform education. The English basis of Tibetan-Chinese bilingual students are uneven, owing to some students come from Tibetan areas where the major nationality is Han, while others come from ranch areas. If we regardless the actual situation, with traditional teaching method alone the students who are from the Han dominated areas will find it too superficial, it is too hard to learn for the students who are from ranch areas. If students do not achieve the learning result successfully, due to the limitations of the classroom teaching, they will lose interest in English learning. According to Hung’s (2015) research, ELLs have more positive attitudes toward learning in flipped classrooms.

**Necessity of flipped classroom in Basic English teaching**

As it is showed, the majority of Tibetan college students started to learn English when they were in junior high school, which accounting for 60.44%, 34.18% students started learning English from senior high school, 2.22% students...
started from primary school, and 3.16% students started from college, there are quite a few students with lower starting point began to learn English in the high school. English is excluded in the college entrance exam, therefore English is ignored in ethnic region. After entering the university, they will suffer great difficulties. On the ground that the background survey of Tibetan-Chinese bilingual students, their English level is uneven, if we still employ the traditional teaching method, most of students will fall in difficulties, which bring about peer pressure. The impact of peer pressure is lessened for the ELL in flipped classroom because they arrive with the background knowledge and vocabulary needed for the topic and can interact with peers to gain a better grasp of the material (Lockwood, 2014). Recent years it has also witnessed an increasing number of young users communicating with each other through mobile messaging applications in Asia, such as LINE, WhatsApp, and WeChat. Studies have shown that instant and text messaging technologies can play important role in education because they provide not only platforms for socializing, sharing information, and communicating (Sweeney, 2010). In flipped classroom, teachers prepare micro videos and send to students through the network before the class. Videos incorporate both oral and visual stimuli, which increases the likelihood of teaching to the student's preferred modality (Kovarik, 2017). By means of lecture videos the teachers make use of the time for interacting between teachers and students rather than for instructing. Accordingly the teacher can spare more time to fulfill the learning and emotional demands of students (Goodwin & Miller, 2013). Additionally, because the student may fast-forward or repeat sections of the video as needed, the pace of the lesson is individualized. The integration of information technologies and English courses will inevitably trigger a revolution in teaching (Hu, 2015). One of the benefits often cited for flipping teaching is that students in the flipped classroom are given more opportunities to develop higher order thinking under teacher guidance and with peer support as needed, because in-class lectures that often require only lower levels of thinking skills in Bloom’s (1984) taxonomy are replaced with instructional videos, without the cost of sacrificing learning content (Berrett, 2012).

X. PROBLEMS AND COUNTERMEASURES OF INDEPENDENT LEARNING UNDER THE BACKGROUND OF FLIPPED CLASS

Teachers’ Negative Attitude towards flipped class

Successful role changing is crucial for teachers in the new era, otherwise the students will never learn independently, never set their own learning goals independently, never learn to self-manage and make plan. The capacity of students is enhanced strictly accessing to knowledge, which impaired the teacher’s authority, teachers will become a partner of the students, and they can conduct exploratory learning together. Therefore learning should not only limit to the classroom, it should also extend to the network. From individual learning to cooperative learning building a cooperative mechanism through the Internet. Teachers can cooperate with students by online. Evaluation methods can be done by big data accuracy. It enables teachers to keep students learning trends in time, to make timely summary and reflection, therefore to make reasonable and effective teaching decisions.

Students weak awareness for independent learning

Independent learning aims to promote the development of learners autonomy and independence. Students can acquire life-long learning skills by independent learning. Network learning is a new learning method that is different from traditional learning, which means that learners use network resources to assist learning. Therefore, first of all, students should be provided with psychological counseling, so that they can break the traditional stereotypes and accept this new learning style in a positive attitude. Web-based technological resources provide language learners with the privilege to choose learning materials according to their own learning interests and capabilities. Therefore, as helpful instructors, we should offer some useful learning ways which enable greater learners master.

Less utilization of learning resources

Due to the emergence of a large number of network resources, however students have a vague understanding for abundant network resources, let alone make full use of them. Although some students employ some learning resources what they are interested in, they cannot stick to the end, which is belong to ineffective learning. Facing a variety of learning resources, students unable to apply anything due to time constraints, so they can only achieve it through fragmented ubiquitous learning. Learning resources across industries, time as well as space, which are integrated into various forms of resources which meet the needs of learners to use fragmented time to learn in a ubiquitous learning environment as well as share high-quality learning resources.

XI. CONCLUSION

Basic English course, as a compulsory course in ethnic colleges, is of great importance for talent cultivation in ethnic areas. Therefore, it is necessary to innovate teaching mode to improve the teaching quality. With the technology assisted, flipped instruction is an appropriate instructional design for teaching English as a Foreign Language, which is an innovation against traditional classroom teaching mode. With the favorable flipped classroom teaching mode, students are required to master cognitive contents by watching micro-video before class, which is facilitated to learn the materials at their own pace and the way that the materials were organized. They can watch videos and self-study vocabulary prior to class, so they can practice what they have learned with their classmates and actually use English for communicative purposes at class. The network is mainly provided for independent learning and independent inquiry,
meanwhile the classroom is linked by cooperative learning, so as to realize the comprehensive development of all students’ independent, creative, cooperative and other comprehensive qualities.

REFERENCES


Jinfeng Liu was born in Lanzhou, China in 1980. She received her M.A degree in Higher Pedagogy from Lanzhou University, China in 2015.

She is currently a lecturer in Gansu Normal University for Nationalities, China. Her research interest is English Teaching Methodology.

Ms. Liu got Excellent Head Teacher Award in 2012 as well as Excellent Instructor Award of National English Competition for College Students in 2014.
Case Study of Howard Goldblatt’s Translation of *Red Sorghum*—From Media-translatology Perspective

Wensheng Deng
Department of Foreign Languages, Beijing Institute of Petrol-chemical Technology, China

**Abstract**—Since Mo Yan was given the Nobel Prize for Literature, literary translation has been heatedly debated. Howard Goldblatt, as one of Mo Yan’s major translators of English world, is gaining global eyes. And his translations are so popular that some scholars claim that Howard flatters Mo Yan himself, and he has rewritten Mo Yan. To make the debate known to the public, the thesis explores Howard’s translation of *Red Sorghum*, based on the perspective of Media-translatology. In the translation, Howard Goldblatt has made addition, subtraction, rearrangement, etc., in the translation. His changes and adjustments are quite different from the ST, but it retains the image, structure of the ST, and it adopts aesthetic fidelity, which is a universal principle in literary translation. Howard’s choice of Mo Yan is another reason to help him achieve success in translation for western readers are particularly interested in Mo Yan’s invention of genre, style, techniques and language. And what Howard’s action has coincided with the significant opening-up policy of China is also a great power to popularize his translation. Actually, Howard’s performance and practice are necessary steps to communicate culture in cross-cultural interactions, he is not only a communicator of Chinese literature, modern and contemporary, but also a constant contributor of world civilization and culture, for his new attribute in translation—a thirdness.

**Index Terms**—Howard Goldblatt, media-translatology, aesthetic fidelity, translation action, thirdness

I. INTRODUCTION

Since Media-translatology or Media-translation study was first put forward by Professor Xie Tianzhen, it’s been more than 20 years’ elapse. From the time on, various voices, including arguments, doubts and even attacks, are constantly carried out inside or outside of translation territory. To our surprise, some of both parties involved into the debate have not understood the essentials of the new discipline. Some say that, the advocate of so-called Media-translatology, is a flag-bearer or a pioneer of random translation; and others declare that the followers of the new science are a bunch of self-sabotage of translation standards, especially, the first and foremost one, i.e., “Translation should be faithful to the original.” From the different opinions about Media-translatology, we can see it is a must to get the participants involved to know what the new discipline is actually about. For the purpose, the thesis intends to illustrate the indispensable dimensions of Media-translatology, by studying the case of Howard Goldblatt’s translation of *Red Sorghum*, a representative of novels written by Mo Yan.

As we all know, since Mo Yan was awarded the Nobel Prize for Literature, literary translation has become a heated topic among related academic fields at home and abroad. Because Mo Yan writes works in Chinese, and gets them published in Chinese as well, his international awards are closely connected with his translators over the world. And Mo Yan remarked that his Nobel Prize is due to constant contributions made by every translator of his works over the world. Among the translators, the most remarkable ones of them are, Swedish Anna Gustafsson Chen, who is regarded as “the Queen without a royal crown”; French Dutrait and Chantal Chen-Andro, Japanese Fujishozo, and American Howard Goldblatt, who is recognized as “No.1 Midwife for Mo Yan”. It is probably true that, without the translators, Mo Yan would have lost or be delayed at least for some time to be awarded the laurel since there is only Goran Malmqvist, the committee member of Nobel Literary Prize Council, who can appreciate the works written in Chinese. Thus, without various translations, Mo Yan would not be noted by the world, and the Nobel Prize Council would not have paid much attention to him. It is no exaggeration that the translators are heroes behind Mo Yan, though they have been invisible in most cases. Therefore, the readers of Mo Yan can’t wait to read the translations or the source works after he is given the Prize. As to the readers of English edition translated by Howard Goldblatt, they only discovered that the translation is far from the ST, taking *Red Sorghum: A Novel of China* as a case study, judged by the principle of fidelity to ST, the first standard of translation evaluation. Because of the great gap between the translation and the original, many of translators or scholars of translation studies express concerns and worries, that is: Howard’s translation is not translation at all but a kind of adaption, rewriting, edition or treason of the original text. Out of sudden, Howard’s translation is a

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1 Xie Tianzhen is professor of Shanghai Foreign Language International Studies. He first put forward the concept of Media-translatology or Media-translation studies in 1990s in China.
target of all sorts of criticisms and comments; the hero seems to have been degenerated into a zero, who is regarded as a misleader of communication of MoYan’s works.

So, it is a time of paradox for translators at home and abroad. On one hand, the translations are the driving force of Mo Yan’s international prizes; the translators deserve the privilege to share the honor with the prize-winner, though they do have been invited to attend the Award ceremony and reported on medias, they are visible in the end; on the other hand, when researcher colleagues are devoted to studying the translations (as far as the author of the paper is concerned, hereby it refers to the English version), what they have found the truth is: the Prize seems to have been awarded to the translations, presented in front of the committee members of the Prize Council, not STs written by Mo Yan. No wonder that many academicians of translation or literature have various voices about the Prize and the translations. Confronted with the polyphony of criticisms and conflicts, translation studies have its new problems obviously, under a kind of new context, whether nationally or internationally. And many of translator fellows started to rethink the essence of translation in general, i.e. the traditional concept. Thus, it is the best time and the noisiest time as well for us to analyze the essence of the new occurrences in translation domain, i.e. Media-translatology as Professor Xie Tianzhen has called it.

II. HOWARD’S ACTIONS IN TRANSLATING RED SORGHUM FROM MEDIA-TRANSLATOLOGY PERSPECTIVE

If we take a good look at Howard Goldblatt’s Red Sorghum from the perspective of Media-translatology, it is not difficult for us to understand Howard’s actions in the translation, for whose actions and strategies are complete compatible with the definition of Media-translatolog, which is roughly described as the following:

Media-translatology is quite different from translation studies in general. If we want to define it briefly, we may safely declare that, at first, it derives from the stance of Media Studies, a branch of Comparative Literature, and at present, it launches its studies of translation (especially literary translation) and translated literature more frequently from the angle of Comparative Culture. But strictly speaking, the studies coverage of Media-translatology is not language studies but literary or cultural studies. What it is not primarily concerned with problems at linguistic levels, such as how a source language is shifted into a target language, but with lose, deformation, addition and extension and the like in the conversion process from the original into foreign language or vice versa, and it mainly cares about the unique value and significance as translation (especially literary translation) is deemed as a practice of cross-cultural communication. (Xie Tianzhen, 1999, p.1-2)

According to the explanation quoted above, we translators could grip the basic essentials of the new discipline: First, “the studies coverage of Media-translatology is not language studies but literary or cultural studies.” (ibid.) Second, it is a kind of media-communication. The previous one clearly shows that the science is not dedicated to exploring how ST is shifted into TT, the technical problem in translating; the latter one stresses that a translator should take possible efforts to convey and communicate message to receivers. Howard has integrated many actions in translating Red Sorghum, i.e., adaption, reconstructing, addition, subtraction or treason, etc., which are adopted just for readers’ convenience. Meanwhile, translators of literature would also get clear that why previous translations of Chinese literary texts, which had taken pain-efforts and time to be accomplished by numerous translators, have not evoked wide repercussions and exerted active influence among the circles of literature and translation, let alone global response. Are the translations not good enough to attract readers’ interest or attention? Or the translators are mediocrity? Of course, none of them is acceptable because the translators are masters of foreign literature, both familiar with alien language and culture. And then, there should be other reasons hidden behind the phenomenon which have embarrassed us translators for decades since China’s adhered to the goal to communicate and convey its culture over the world, especially after the founding of new China in 1949. Now, more reasonable and acceptable explanation to it may be that, we have paid too much more attention to linguistic level rather cultural one, to the authors of ST instead of the readers of TT; though we have intended to communicate with the world, we haven’t follow the law of media and communication at all throughout our translation. Such mode of the translation in the past is author-oriented, a self-communication without effect.

All the actions in Howard’s translations have conveyed a kind of message, i.e., they are audience-oriented and market-targeted. Compared with the previous translations in China, which are supposed to have been communicated globally, Howard’s translation is a great success, for which have aroused international interests not only in Mo Yan, as a matter of fact, but also a kind of a domino effect of things, including Chinese Literature and Culture, everything conceivable, even a banquet of imagination about China from all nations on the Earth. By making use of the Prize, China’s soft power is greatly strengthened. Hence, it is urgent and significant for us to unveil Howard’s translation so that China’s translator fellows could follow something to improve the situation of literary translation in China.

In fact, Howard’s actions in translating Red Sorghum are crucial cases of communication, which means aiming to send message to audience. In Howard’s eyes, translation is a vehicle of communication to readers and receivers, audiences; he is a sender of information, “a communicator, an interpreter, a major node of the chain to understand the world.” (Goldblatt, 2011, p.15) Eventually, as a translator, everything he has tried his utmost efforts to fulfill is “for the audience, by the audience and of the audience” to receive his message, i.e., to ensure his translations to be popular in

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2 The quotation is a parody of a speech, “for the people, by the people and of the people” delivered by Abraham Lincoln in Gettysburg Address.
western market. For the great goal, as a result, his translation of Red Sorghum is altered immensely, which is far from fidelity to the original text in Chinese. First, he has reorganized the structures of the original in his translation; the original text has 9 chapters altogether with no sub-title, but as to the translation, it has been reduced into only 5 combined together, which has been added with a sub-title respectively. Second, the ending of the translation is rewritten, which is absolutely different from the original one. Consequently, in the translation, to satisfy western Poetics or publication principles as well as the added, aesthetics; mentality and even ideology and the like, the translator, Howard, cut off some bizarre narrations, like reminiscence, flashback and unimportant minor plots. (Wensheng Deng & Ke Zhang, 2017, pp.50) Coincidentally, there are other translators like Howard Goldblatt in translating works; China has Lin Shu (1852—1924) and Yan Fu(1854—1921) in Late Qing Dynasty and early period of Republican China, cited as two cases in point; and America has Ezra Pound(1885—1972) to illustrate. Both Lin Shu and Yan Fu frequently cut off something they think useless and irrelevant to spread and disseminate modern ideas and technology. Lin even goes further than Howard Goldblatt, he has changed some of the original plots to describe characters as his idea; both he and Yan adds their remarks in translation to convey his modern values, such as democracy, science, freedom and equality or the like. To communicate the modern values to readers of intellectuals, who have accepted China’s traditional education in life, Yan and Lin adopt an elegant style of Chinese, a classical style, for they think only using the official style employed by upper society, not vulgar style taken by lower society, can they convey the ideas and convince the so-called higher ranks of society. So when we read some of the translations by the two, like Oliver Twist, The Evolution, just mentioning the two examples, they read smooth and enjoyable, according to Qian Zhongshu (1910–1998), a master of scholar and novelist, he even prefers to read the translations by Lin Shu rather than the ST, for which he regards as redundant and slow. The cases cited here have taken place in a special context. That is, old China needs new message and modern knowledge to turn China into a modern country like western powers at the time. For the purpose, Lin and Yan have done what they had taken for granted.

As to Ezra Pound, as a great poet and translator in America, he is another example of Howard Goldblatt, and his translation is a kind of translation legend. Once he read some translation of Classical Chinese poems by chance, and after that, he began to be fascinated by it. As he read more and more translations of Classical poems, he took interest in Chinese. Unfortunately, what Pound has translated Chinese Classical poems is quite different from the original, and with abundant of misunderstanding. One of his characteristics in translation is terse, objective and clear, which is adopted by his followers as one of the three principles of Imagist Movement, opening a new chapter in western Poetics. To some extent, the improper actions, including the adaption, edition, deletion and rewriting the original, judged by the traditional theory in translation studies, only bring about a proper event in a proper period, which is never expected for contemporaries. But history never allows expectation and imagination. All the cases home and abroad are somewhat similar to each other, every translator has done something “with lose, deformation, addition and extension and the like in the conversion process from the original into foreign language or vice versa” (ibid. Xie Tianzhen, 1999) to make readers believe what he has communicated, and we can see they are reader-centered.

As we discussed above, Howard’s actions in translation are communication, audience-oriented, but also the supplies of the times, western book market and western Poetics. First, besides reader’s aesthetics and mentality, Howard also takes western Poetics and his sponsor into his consideration of translation communication. To satisfy the Poetics, he has to make some changes, revisions or something the like. Once he wrote letters to get the permission from Mo Yan to rewrite Red Sorghum. From the incidents we can see he is rigorously responsible for MoYan and the ST, and he is not a translator of random and rashness at all. Second, what he is compelled to do comes from the western book market’s demands, i.e., his sponsor, not his own will and wish, for who is a good writer as well and every letter is his bone and flesh, and is so hard to be part with. Nevertheless, “it is a truth universally acknowledged that every book in possession of a good reputation must be in want of a reader;” which means whatever a great book is, it needs reading and appreciating, otherwise it is dead. So, when Howard is entitled to revising or rewriting the ending of Red Sorghum, it is Mo Yan not Howard Goldblatt who is getting criticized in the ceremony of Nobel Prize for he writes for a translator; MoYan refuted such kind of criticism, he has not done this for any translators but for the world, which has established mutual trust between a writer and a translator, whose combination is a magnificent marriage indeed; no wonder there are not many translators like Howard Goldblatt. Additionally, to get his translations published and sold well, Howard is forced to take his actions. For the point, he addresses (Goldblatt, 2011, p.248), “Without careful selections of his materials in writing, some novelists have composed his stories with the raw materials in his works. And the novelists are compelled to revise the mistakes of their own for without a demanding editor’s supervision, and the novelists are not well qualified to play the role as an editor. Whoever he is, whether he has published piles of books or he is renowned, he or she can’t see works of his or her own objectively; at the critical moment a second pair of eyes is necessary, which can both check something self-contradictory and roughly provide a new angel for the novelist. Habitually, the publishing presses and houses of China have not entitled to an editor such right to revise and rewrite a piece of original text or script. So, the drudgery of revision falls upon a translator or an editor to execute.” From what Howard said above, we can understand why he is bold enough to delete some irrelevant parts of ST here and there, and sometimes he jumps

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3 Here it is a parody of the first sentence in novel Pride and Prejudice written by Jane Austin, which is “It is a truth universally acknowledged that a single man in possession of a good fortune must be in want of a wife.”
onto the front to act as a ghost writer for a ST author for some time. Not only has he treated Red Sorghum this way in translating but also undertaken similar adjustments in translating other works, like The Moon Opera and Three Sisters written by Bi Feiyu, and Wolf Totem by Jiang Rong, etc. Apparently, it’s known to any reader of the novel that he has rewritten the title of ST, The Moon Opera and Three Sisters, to be faithfully to convey the theme and attract the potential readers of the two books at their first glance over the title. He is successful in drawing attention from readers and receivers over the world. Before Mo Yan is given the Nobel Prize, he has been awarded other international prizes over and over, such as Newman Prize for Chinese Literature, National Endowment for the Arts and Man Asian Literary Prize (Sun Huijun, 2016, p.7), which have signified that Mo Yan has gained global recognition; then his translations have captured more and more market shares and had be best-sellers in USA for a time. But, we can’t help ask some questions, why are Howard, Pound, Lin and Yan especially popular? And why are not so for the translations of Chinese literatures, translated by senior translators in 1960s and 1970s? An important reason is time changed. For Lin Shu and Yan Fu, to cultivate and develop a new type of culture to transfigure old China, China is on a stage to absorb new knowledge; for Pound, he is urgent to find something new to revolt against his former literary society. For a receiver or audience with wishes or interests to take in new culture, he is anxious to accept whatever it is, is either something changed or deleted, this phenomenon could take place only during the input period. However, for a receiver with no idea to a new culture, like Chinese literature to a western reciever, the communicator, here it refers to translators, he has to rack his brain to communicate to the reciever, or he is doomed to fail. The western readers of Chinese literature are readers with no idea to absorb, that’s why Howard should have carried out in his early period of translation. According to Professor Xie Tianzhen, the period is called an output one, because China has been opening up to the world for several decades since 1978, and oversea readers have been interested in China, they wish they could understand Chinese culture; and Chinese literature is a good opening for them to do so; and Howard’s translations have aroused global eyes partially just for the opening-up policy. The years Howard started his translation coincide with the early period of the opening-up policy, so the history gives a timely help and hand to Howard’s success.

Although Howard has made changes in his translation, especially in Red Sorghum: a novel of China, structurally speaking, the translation is still faithful to the ST. And it is hard for the reader of the two works feel the distance and difference between them. On the contrary, English readers get the same aesthetic images in the translation as our Chinese readers reading the ST Red Sorghum, which indicates the TT has preserved and conveyed the same images in the ST. Howard lost his formal fidelity at language level but has retained aesthetic fidelity, structural fidelity, as Lin Shaohua, a major translator of Haruki Murakami, a Japanese writer, have remarked, “...as to literary translation, the key to a good literary translation lies in aesthetic fidelity”. (Zhang Chang, 2018) Both Howard and Lin Shaohua are translators of literature, Lin does his translation from Japanese to Chinese, and Howard from Chinese to English, however, they have drawn the same idea and taken similar actions about translation of literature, which have proved that aesthetic fidelity is practically applicable with universality, for it has both retained and reserved the original literariness and image, the core constituents in a piece of work. More broadly speaking, not only the literary image in ST should be retained, but also cultural image and aura should be conveyed and communicated as far as anything cultural is concerned.

And one of the reasons which Howard Goldblatt has succeeded in translating is also linked to his purposeful choice from the original works. What he has chosen is the works of modern Chinese literature and contemporary literature, written by like Mo Yan, Bi Feiyu, Jiang Rong etc., for the works are totally different from the classical ones in theme, genre, style, techniques and language. Taking Mo Yan’s works as an example, what he has been portraying in his works is wide enough to cover from new China to modern China, as well some part of old China, based upon his hometown Northeast Gaomi Township. His depiction of characters has broken the stereotype boundaries of dichotomy characters, i.e. good guy opposition to bad guy, a kind of binary model; and Mo Yan adopts but a new type of bad/good-criminal-narrator him/herself, (Hu Tiesheng, 2017) a kind of trichotomy character. And he has taken some of modernist writing skills, like stream-of-consciousness, meta-narration, black humor and word-play, picking up something from William Faulkner, Garcia Marcks and other master writers of modernist literature, integrating them with classical Chinese literatures. Mo Yan is a path-finder of writing fiction in contemporary Chinese literature; no doubt, he is one of the most brilliant writers. Hence, his stories are brand-new and welcome at home and abroad, the most popular is his materials and themes, particularly his new forms in his fictions. Supposedly, if Howard made a choice of somebody else instead of Mo Yan, likely, Mo would not have been given the Prize for other works is not as suitable as Mo Yan’s among western readers. The trends in Mo Yan are just fit for them.

Admittedly, some people remark that Howard is just implementing a principle of domestication or naturalization in his translation. In fact, his practice is different from domestication at all. First, domestication focuses on words, expressions and texts at language levels, belonging to linguistic translation, which frequently adopts native speaker’s usage though domestication can introduce some new forms of expression to TT culture, which have been existing in ST culture for some time, then, in a global way, the new forms are not newly invented because they are nothing but introduced into a new context, i.e., cultural transfer, the total quantity of form is never changed; Howard’s practice and performance tend to take steps at cultural levels, pertaining to cultural translation, he not only uses native speaker’s

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4Aura is something to be felt true in reading a piece of work, but is hard to explain or tell clearly, which expresses a kind of unique sentiment and artistic conception in implicative ways and finite language.
tongue, but also introduces more new culture, sometimes even he creates new words and forms and gets a cultural thirdness, a combination of ST culture and TT culture, for which brings about diversities to the grand garden of world culture and civilization. Second, domestication mainly claims its responsibility for ST and the message sender; and Howard favors to care about TT and the receiver, the terminal of Howard is a literature translated, i.e., national literature, everything he has done is tied up with his receiver. In addition, domestication, as an opponent of foreignization or alienation, has been part and parcel of translation studies, a kind of classical tradition in the science for a few thousands of years, throughout domestication, the translator is invisible, hiding behind the TT; Howard’s practice, adopting either domestication or foreignization, or both strategies mixed together, belongs to a branch of Media-translatology, a new discipline arising out of translation, communication and literature just over decades ago.

III. CONCLUDING REMARKS

The above-given analysis covers the choice, “lose, deformation, addition and extension” of Howard’s translation actions, context of history, Western Poetics, publishing patron, aesthetic fidelity and etc., from the perspective of Media-translatology. (Xie Tianzhen, 1999, p.1-2) Thus, His achievement is due to a resultant force of various factors listed above or other ones hidden beneath the action. In the new era of globalization, translation is playing the role of communication in cross-cultural practice and performance, as Howard remarked, “A translator is a communicator...to understand the world”. (Goldblatt, 2011, p.15) To some extent, Howard is a sample case of Media-translatology, which opens a door to a new field of translation, literature and communication.

At present, China is pursuing the policy that China’s cultures go to global. Cross-cultural communication is a routine part of international interactions. The communication and interaction will be the only channel for nations to understand each other. Culture, as well as literature, needs exchanging over the world. For the time being, we belong to the output period of cultural exchange. Until the output period is expired, to carry out the policy, i.e. China’s cultures go to global, needs talent translators like Howard for some time, at least fifty years. In such a context of globalization, we must spread and sow the seeds of China’s culture over the world to enhance our national soft power. During the lengthy period, we translators are also communicators, who should keep it in mind, and never follow the old suit in 1960s or 1970s to do translation, a self-centred, isolated one, which historically proves to be futile. But, after the output epoch is over, with the implementation of China’s culture-going-overseas, the oversea readers could understand Chinese culture at a higher level, so they could accept and appreciate Chinese literature, the author of the thesis does not hope China’s works would not be absorbed without any adaption by translators or communicators; by doing so can China’s culture be brought into the garden of world cultures, and be fully appreciated by other nations. If the day wished came some day in the future, though Media-translatology is short-lived, and disappearing out of the horizon of academic domain, nations over the world could develop harmoniously with differences and mutual understanding, that is to say, we are open to multi-culturalism over the world, and each nation will respect and accept the difference and diversity respectively regardless of ideologies, cultures, races and regions.

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Wensheng Deng was born in Anhua County, Hunan Province of China in 1967. He received his M.A. in literature from Central South University of China in 2002, and was further trained his academics at Harding University of the USA from 2007 until 2008. And now he is Associate Professor of Anglo-American Literature of the Dept. of Foreign Languages at Beijing Institute of Petrol-chemical Technology, China. His scholastic studies cover Comparative Literature, Translation Studies, Film Studies and Politics.

Mr. Deng is a member of Chinese Association of Foreign Language Teachers. And he has published more than 30 papers home and abroad.
Is Connie a New Woman on the Way to Happiness?—An Analysis of Connie in *Lady Chatterley’s Lover* from the Perspective of Feminism

Ting Wen
College of Foreign Studies, Nanjing Agricultural University, Nanjing, China

**Abstract**—*Lady Chatterley’s Love*, the last novel written by David Herbert Lawrence, caused quite a series of controversy in the circle of literary critic and among the readers. The heroine in the novel, Connie, Lady Chatterley, is a key figure to be considered when we interpret this work thoroughly. Connie is still regarded as a brave woman at that time that defies the shackles of old ethics and seeks personal emancipation. Can Connie be counted as a real new woman? Why? This paper attempts to answer this question from the perspective of feminism.

**Index Terms**—*Lady Chatterley*, a new woman, feminism

I. INTRODUCTION TO D. H. LAWRENCE AND THE WORK

David Herbert Lawrence (usually written as D. H. Lawrence) was born in Nottinghamshire, UK in 1885 whose father was a coal miner and whose mother was from a middle-class family. Because of this status difference between them, his parents had a very bad relationship which had a profound effect on his later works. In the 20th century, Lawrence was one of the most important and controversial writers in English literature. His major achievements included novels, poetry, drama, prose, travel notes and letters. In 1930, Lawrence passed away in Muncie, France. With regard to Lawrence’s works, most of them are too erotic that have been savagely attacked and criticized by the critic. However, he has made great efforts to explore the depths of human soul in his works and has successfully used the impressive artistic description, so his works have been attached importance by the world literary circle from his lifetime to the present. Few novelists of the present age, like Lawrence, have been so cruelly abused by the world; At the same time, it is rare for a modern English writer to find a man like Lawrence who is adored by the elite young intellectual class as well.

D. H. Lawrence’s *Lady Chatterley’s Lover* was widely regarded as a controversial novel which was published in the year of 1928 in Italy at first. However its edition did not come out in public in the United Kingdom until 1960. At that point, this book became notorious instantly for its daring explicit description which stirred extreme controversy in literary circle and readers. The main plot of this novel is as follows. In 1917, Clifford Chatterley, a central English miner and noble landowner, married Connie, hurried on his honeymoon, and returned to the army instantly. He was later sent home with paralysis below his waist, only to act in a wheelchair. After his father died, Clifford inherited the estate and the title, becoming a wealthy owner. While his wife Connie was a lively, open-minded girl, full of energy and good health, who had been educated freely from an early age. She took great care of her incapacitated husband and assisted him in writing novels. Although Clifford remained aristocratic in appearance, his energy was dwindling and his feelings were fading because of the loss of sexual function which his wife Connie could not bear any longer. Connie met Oliver Mellors by chance, a retired soldier as a new caretaker in the Clifford’s garden, in the woodshed, and fell in love with him at first sight. Connie used to sneak into the cottage to enjoy the sex life of lust, passion, and primal joy with Mellors, giving Connie a renewed desire to live. Soon, Connie was pregnant unexpectedly, and all of sudden Mellors’s wife showed up and made their secret affair known in public. In the end, Connie made up her mind to divorce with Clifford, and Mellors would be reunited with Connie after receiving a divorce certificate from his wife. Liu Cong (2013) analyzed that Lawrence shows a clear consciousness of female emancipation by means of describing the eulogy of free love in *Lady Chatterley’s Lover*. However, *Lady Chatterley’s Lover* was of significance to a certain extent, definitely portraying a new image of women striving for their own existence and happiness, like Lady Chatterley, Connie, in the text. Then, whether Connie can be counted as a new woman will be further analyzed from the perspective of feminism in this thesis.

II. INTRODUCTION TO FEMINISM

Feminism, also known as women’s emancipation and gender equality, refers to ending sexism, sexual exploitation,
sex discrimination and sexual oppression. The social theory and political movement created and launched to promote gender equality also focuses on the analysis of gender inequality and the promotion of rights, interests and issues at the bottom of the sexual hierarchy, in addition to criticism. At the end of the 19th century, the first wave of women’s liberation movement was at issue, with the demand for gender equality, including in the life course of men and women. In other words, equality between the sexes requires civil and political rights, opposition to aristocratic privileges and polygamy, emphasizing that there is no difference in intelligence or ability between men and women. The most important goal is to strive for the equivalence of family labour and social labour and the equivalence of political rights, often referred to as the “feminist movement”. The second wave of feminism began in the 1960s and 1970s. It is believed that the Second Women’s Liberation Movement originated in the United States. The second wave of the women’s movement (also known as the New Women’s Movement) focused on achieving full social and economic equality, measures on equal payment for men and women, legalization of abortion, freedom of homosexuality, the establishment of divorce laws, nurseries, rape protection stations, etc., and on various levels. The keynote was to emphasize the division of labour between the two sexes and to eliminate the unequal pay for equal work between men and women which requires eliminating gender differences as the basis for women’s subordination to men in social relations between the sexes and meeting for sub-areas to be open to the public accordingly, etc. However, the third wave of feminism movement happened in the mid-1990s that was launched by the Generation X-ers who were born during the 1960s and 1970s in the developed world. Even though these persons got benefitted profoundly from the legal rights which had been already realized successfully by the first and second-wave feminists, at the same time they critiqued the unfinished work of second-wave feminism.

The aim of feminism theory is to understand the essence of inequality and to focus on gender politics, power relations and sexuality. Feminist political action challenges issues such as reproductive rights, the right to abortion, the right to education, domestic violence, and maternity leave for pregnant women, equal pay, voting rights, sexual harassment, gender discrimination and sexual violence. The themes of feminist inquiry include discrimination, stereotype, reification (especially about sex), body, household distribution, oppression and patriarchy. Here are some suggested methods provided according to the theory of feminism which are studying how women are portrayed in literary works, and critiquing sex discrimination, reconsidering literary works by male and female authors, critiquing the male superiority, and showing sympathy for female’s tragic fate, exploring the feminist consciousness embodied in literary works, advocating equality between men and women and rewriting literary history.

### III. ANALYSIS OF WHETHER CONNIE IS A NEW WOMAN ON THE WAY TO HAPPINESS

#### A. From the Plot of This Work

From structure of the title (Lady Chatterley’s Lover), clearly, the protagonist is Lady Chatterley’s lover, Oliver Mellors, a male character. Just as Simone de Beauvoir (1972) said in *The Second Sex*: “What is a woman? How is she constructed differently from a man? She is constructed by a man.” It was connected with the present social phenomena, showing that women were defined and interpreted by men as subordinate, secondary or even nonexistent players to men in the major social institutions. On the contrary, Lawrence set a female character as a protagonist in this text. Looking back on the plot can help readers figure out that it is Lady Chatterley, Connie, who marries Clifford paralyzed and impotent back from the war, has an unsatisfactory affair with Michaelis, hires a caring nurse, Mrs. Bolton, to tend Clifford, has a satisfying affair with Mellors, goes away to Venice for a vacation, which is the turning point of the story, admits to Clifford her pregnancy with Mellors and begs an instant divorce with Clifford. Eventually, what Connie will do is to keep waiting for Clifford’s divorce, baby’s coming or happy life with Mellors, which is an open ending of the story. Therefore, it can be inferred that Connie as a female character is the puller of the whole story and her presence promotes the process of the plot, presenting Connie’s active role in Lady Chatterley’s Lover. In addition to this, it is obvious to discover the initiative and existence of women as Anna’s daughter, Ursula in Lawrence’s Rainbow, Mrs. Morel in Sons and Lovers as well as his other works.

In Lady Chatterley’s Lover, male and female characters hold a consistently traditional attitude towards women. Here are different attitudes extracted from the novel: To women by the intellectuals gathering in Clifford’s study: “It’s hopeless. I just simply can’t vibrate in unison with a woman. There is no woman I can really want… My God, no! I’ll remain as I am, and lead the mental life.” (Lawrence, 2008, P.52-53) To women by Mrs. Bolton: “When I look at women who’re never been warmed by men, well, they seem to me poor dolls after all, no matter how they may dress up and gad”; (Lawrence, 2008, P.219) To Mrs. Bolton by Clifford: “With Clifford, she was shy, almost frightened and silent. He liked that, and soon recovered his self-possessions, letting her do things for him without even noticing her. ‘She is a useful nonentity!’ said Clifford”; (Lawrence, 2008, P.108) Accordingly, Clifford together with several male characters shows contempt to women, regarding them as silent, boring, lifeless and dependent nonentity, illustrating stereotypical and distorted images of women. As James Tompkins said in his article, “Me and My Shadow”, depicting what people thought of female: “Women are used as extensions of men, mirrors of men, devices for showing men off, devices for helping me get what they want. They are never there in their own right, or rarely. Sometimes I think the world contains no woman.” (James Tompkins, 1987, P.169-178) which reflects women just play roles of the other, the second to men. Nevertheless, what surprises readers is the attitude to women by female characters. The male characters in the work suppose that women are destined to be attached to men in their inner mind. Without men, women cannot be
called real individuals, just dead dolls. Such thinking determines their choices in their own life. Only when they feel they have men to lean on, can they feel they exist as human beings regardless of despise or dislike from the men. They also tend to criticize women who are different from them and who attempt to break these images of women built traditionally by the world.

Apart from the stereotypical attitudes presented above, there is also a distinct attitude towards women held by Mr. Winter and Mellors. To Connie by Mr. Winter: “After all, Mr. Winter, who was really a gentleman and a man of the world, treated her as a person and a discriminating individual. He did not lump her together with all the rest of his female womanhood in his ‘thee’ and ‘tha’”; (Lawrence, 2008, P.171) To Connie by Mellors: “‘Thank God I’ve got a woman who is with me, and tender and aware of me. Thank God, she is no bully, nor fool. Thank God she is a tender, aware woman.’” (Lawrence, 2008, P.370) Mr. Winter, unlike other male characters, considers Connie as a woman who deserves to share the same identity with men as a person and a discriminating individual. Then Mellors treats Connie as an independent woman and does not pay much attention to the status of Connie. As a matter of fact, Connie is a pure-hearted, real woman in the eyes of Mellors who is attracted by Connie’s charming look and adorable personality. Hence, Mr. Winter and Mellors show admire and positive attitudes toward Connie, appreciating this new image of women.

What’s more, Connie says to Mellors: “I don’t care what they think. I do! I don’t want them to handle me with their unpleasant cold minds, nor while I’m still at Wragby. They can think what they like when I’m finally gone.” (Lawrence, 2008, P.298) Connie is described as a healthy, independent, pure, compassionate woman with a natural passion for freedom and happiness. While Mellors is a servant, a gamekeeper of her husband, he has no status, no wealth but only his own possession. Under such circumstance, Connie is willing to give up everything to be with Mellors, such as the honorable title, the abundance of life. Although they are facing a huge gap in class, they confront the same situation and fate at that moment. Their relationship is based on the equal love and common responsibility between them as a man and woman, which motivates Connie to choose Mellors, casting everything into the winds.

Connie also ponders the relationship between Clifford and herself, “There was nothing between them. She never even touched him nowadays, and he never touched her...he tortured her with his declaration of idolatry. It was the cruelty of utter impotence. And she felt her reason would go way, or she would die.” (Lawrence, 2008, P.149) Clifford returns from the war, paralyzed from the waist down, impotent. He fills the home with gloomy, misshapen atmosphere of marital life that possesses the image of most English aristocrats, mechanical, conservative, dreary, and unfeeling to women. His presence is like the gloomy city called Wragby where they live that Connie can’t stand any longer. Then, the female character Connie challenges the unfair fate, unhappy and unsound marital life courageously, says no to Clifford and Clifford’s nothingsness, and asks for an immediate divorce with Clifford to pursue the rights and happiness that are supposed to belong to her, from the view point of the plot in the work who shows up as is a new image of woman at that moment. Here comes a vital question, can Connie be called a real new woman?

B. From the Plot of This Work from the Theory of Feminism

As a matter of fact, the term “New Woman” was coined by a writer and public speaker called Sarah Grand. Sarah Grand (1894) explained this new phrase: “The New Woman, a significant cultural icon of the end of the century, departed from the stereotypical Victorian woman. She was intelligent, educated, emancipated, independent and self-supporting. The New woman was not only middle-class female radicals, but also factory and office worker.”(P.271) The Definition of “new woman” also explained from Merriam Websters “a woman especially of the late 19th century actively resisting traditional controls and seeking to fill a complete role in the world as a man.” During that time, the women challenged the conventional gender roles, meanwhile, suffered from hostility from men and women who objected to women’s public presence which is vividly presented in Connie from the work.

An American feminist, Kate Millett (1977), said in her Sex Politics: “The frigid woman of Victorian period was withholding assent, the ‘new women’, could, if correctly dominated, be masteredit in bed as everywhere else.” According to her, Connie was such a “new woman” that the frigid woman of Victorian period didn’t agree with, for she relinquished her “self, ego, and individuality-things woman had but recently developed...” We can also see that in Kate Millet’s eyes, the relationship between Connie and Mellors was still the male-dominated one, Connie still didn’t get rid of the embarrassing situation of “second sex”. Furthermore, Lawrence’s novel, completed in the nineteen twenties, was intended to criticize the rigidity and incompetence of human organism caused by industrial civilization, as well as discord between human beings and the natural world to seek a relationship that will enable the two sexes of human beings, mankind and the natural world to live in harmony with each other. D. H. Lawrence believed that the harmonious relationship between the sexes was the attainment of harmony between man and nature. It is obvious that Mellors was Lawrence’s ideal male incarnation, and he had passed through a woman like Connie. Connie behaved as an ideal woman, who was gentle, submissive, and willing to dedicate herself to a man like Mellors. When getting to know the character Connie, one cannot help thinking of what proposed by an Austrian neurologist and the founder of psychoanalysis, Sigmund Freud, who put forward the personality structure, making up of three components “id, ego and super-ego”. As Freud (1933) presented the relationship among these three components of human’s personality structure that the id is associated with the trends that are uncoordinated instinctual set. However, the super-ego plays a critical and moralizing part in people’s daily life. The ego is an organized, realistic part which has a role of balancing the desires between the id and the super-ego in people’s inner heart. With regard to this theory, Connie was on the way to
pursue her ego, while all morality and dogma became the imprisonment of her soul in a dying environment. Under such circumstance, Freud's theory had little effect on Connie, and she returned to the most primitive human condition, beginning sex with Mellors' body, feeling the comfort of the soul gradually, generating love with Mellors slowly. Therefore, Connie was so brave that she gave up everything she owned for the liberation of her soul. As time goes by, they were in a state of happiness, and every word they promised as well as every comfort between them, seemed to be breaking the chains of the age, and making Connie liberate freely, giving Connie the fullness of her soul's wings. It was Mellors, a seemingly humble soul, that made Connie experience the love of the world, and gave her courage and strength to fight with the earthly world dauntlessly. Thus, Mellors symbolizes the spirit of feminism and provides the motivation of women's emancipation in that era.

But can we not help asking whether the relationship between Connie and Mellors can last harmoniously and permanently? If there is one day Mellors lost his passion for Connie, or Connie was no longer gentle and submissive, and their relationship would remain lasting? Lawrence himself did not seem sure of their relationship, and I thought this was what Lawrence left at the end of the novel. That is to say, Connie can't be called a real new woman certainly.

More Examples further cited in the text are as follows: “She had been supposed to have rather a good figure, but now she was out of fashion: a little too female, not enough like an adolescent boy. Disappointed of its real womanhood, it had not succeeded in becoming boyish and unsubstantial and transparent; instead it had gone opaque. Somehow they too were going flat, slack and meaningless.” (Lawrence, 2008, P92-93) That’s what she mutters to herself with her body naked in front of the mirror, after she meets Mellors in the woods by accident. She resents being too feminine in her body which she regards as a meaningless figure, eager to have the same unsubstantial and transparent figure as an adolescent boy. Therefore, her doubt about her own female body and admiration for the male body shows that Connie does not fit with the qualities of new woman actually.

"Her tormented modern-woman's brain still had no rest. Was it real? And she knew, if she gave herself to the man, it was real. But if she kept herself for herself it was nothing.” (Lawrence, 2008, P155) From the above quoted sentences, it is an apparent manifestation of the lack of independence of Connie's mind and body, which doesn't conform to the characteristics of new women. Connie asks Mellors: “Do you want me? Quite! And when do you want me? But you trust me, don't you? But you want me, don't you? We will live together and make a life together, won't you? You'll keep the tenderness for me, won't you?” (Lawrence, 2008, P443) Upon hearing her questions, Mellors answers, “I love thee that I can go into thee. It heals it all up, that I can go into thee. I love thee that tha opened to me. I love thee that I came into like that.” (Lawrence, 2008, P443) With Connie's constant questions to Mellors considered, it is clear that she is less confident in the relationship between them. Mellors then replies that he loves her just for his own sexual needs, because Connie could submit to him and satisfy his sexual demands in the way he wants that should be “independent” physically and mentally.

IV. CONCLUSION

In the last part of Lady Chatterley’s Lover, Connie and Mellors escaped from Chatterley's manor, but in reality, she fled from not only her husband's control but also the worldly imprisonment. By describing the women who were oppressed in that era and were enslaved by feudal morality, the writers managed to make a strong attack satire on that era and try to make a difference in their works. Just as the beginning paragraph of Lady Chatterley's Lover. “Ours is essentially a tragic age, so we refuse to take it tragically. The cataclysm has happened, we are among the ruins, we start to build up new little habitats, to have new little hopes. It's rather hard work: there is now no smooth road into the future, but we go round, or scramble over the obstacles. We've got to live, no matter how many skies have fallen.” (Lawrence, 2008, P1)Where there is oppression, there is resistance. It's known that writers are the backbone of a country and a nation, and women's liberation movement succeeded again and again in the successive works in terms of literature.

From the analysis of the detailed plot from Lady Chatterley's Lover, it is not difficult to figure out that the protagonist Connie appeared as an image of new woman who dared to fight against oppression from men and the present era. However, through further analysis of this work from the perspective of feminism theory, Connie didn't get rid of men, depending herself on another man, Mellors, yielding her body and happiness to him, lacking independence of herself, thus Connie cannot be counted as a “new woman”. Regardless of this respect, she used to to condemn and break the bound of the convention, waiting for her own existence and happiness hopefully at the end of the story. As women in modern society, what we need to do is to pursue knowledge and freedom, strive for the value of self-realization, independence and happiness.

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Ting Wen was born in Yancheng, China in 1987. She will get postgraduate degree in the year of 2020. She is currently a postgraduate student in Grade 2 of English and American Literature Major, College of Foreign Studies, Nanjing Agricultural University, Nanjing, China.
"China English" and ELT in China: Global Vision and Local Spirit

Haiyang Jiang
School of Foreign Languages and Literatures, Chongqing Normal University, Chongqing, China

Abstract—"China English" is an objective reality, which is an English variety in China. It is different from other varieties such as "Cantonese English", "Chinese Pidgin English", "Chinglish". In China, "China English" needs to be integrated into ELT, which not only helps to make up for the gap in the cultural exchange between China and the West, but also is conducive to the spread of Chinese culture. It is the best English carrier for Chinese culture. Although "China English" is not yet a national variety of English, its importance is self-evident. Meanwhile, it also brings some enlightenment to ELT in China.

Index Terms—"China English", English teaching, intercultural communication

I. INTRODUCTION

With the continuous advancement of the times, the relationship among countries is getting closer and closer. At the same time, English has been spread to all parts of the world and it becomes a worldwide language. English has experienced a transitional period, from native language to second language and to foreign language, and finally becomes a lingua franca. B.B. Kachru (1992), a well-known American sociolinguist and professor at the University of Illinois, proposed three concentric circles to view the current sociolinguistic profile of English: Inner Circle (ie, native language circle, such as UK, Australia etc.), Outer Circle (such as India, Jamaica, etc., which has been widely used as an institutionalized language in the local area) and Expanding Circle (ie, English as a foreign language, such as German, Japan, etc.). We can see that the fact that the population of expansion circle is larger than that of the outer circle and the population of outer circle is larger than that of inner circle. As English becomes more and more globalization, localized English is also producing. At the beginning, there was only one English variety in the world, that is British English. Many people regard it as "King English" or "Standard English". With the completion of industrial revolution and colonial expansion, American English has quietly emerged. Therefore, many people always ask me that "do you think which one is more standard, British English or American English?" Actually, most people are still inclined to choose British English, especially its pronunciation. But as the international status of the United States continues to increase, there are more followers of American English. Later, British English and American English are equal and both become the mainstream of English teaching content. However, in addition to these two Englishes, there are many English varieties in the world nowadays. Such as Australian English, Singapore English, Sri Lankan English, Canadian English, Irish English, New Zealand English, South African English, etc. Some people even divide Australian English into Western Australian English and North Australian English. The status of British English and American English has been hit hard. "English" is an uncountable noun, but now there are "World Englishes", "New Englishes" and other expressions. There are also some journals named after "Englishes", such as World Englishes, Asian Englishes, which also reflects the globalization and localization of English. Some English varieties have been integrated into local English teaching, which has brought unprecedented crisis to the so-called "Standard English". In China, the localization of English is also inevitable. Now English has become a language that modern Chinese people are willing to use in their daily lives. Twenty-eight years ago, scholars put forward the term "China English", and its existence also caused great controversy. In the context of English globalization, discussing and studying "China English" will have some inspiration for ELT in China.

Fig.1 Kachru's "Circles" Theory
II. NATIVIALIZATION OF ENGLISH IN CHINA

English has a long history of development in China. It has been introduced to China since the Qing Dynasty, and it is now a compulsory course for primary and secondary schools. When British sent people to Guangzhou for the first time in 1617, it marked the beginning of English entry into China. Since the 17th century, English has been spread and used in this land for nearly five centuries. In fact, there are many English varieties in China, each of them has different characteristics in different historical stages, and everyone also has its special name. For example, "Cantonese English", "Chinese Pidgin English", "Chinglish" (is also called "Chinese English") and "China English".

A. "Cantonese English"

In China, the earliest English variety can be traced back to the Qing Dynasty. "Cantonese English" is seen as the beginning of the localization of English in China. It originated from the so-called "Macanese". In the 16th century, Portugal began to occupy Macao in the name of renting. When doing business with local people, it is necessary to have a common language to communicate, so "Macanese" appeared. As the international status of British continues to increase, "Cantonese English" has replaced "Macanese" gradually.

Although it is not a formal language, it has an irreplaceable role in the period of its existence, solving the problem of being unable to communicate at that time because there was no common language. With the outbreak of the "First Opium War", the signing of the "Nanjing Treaty", the opening of the trading port, the economic center had been transferred from Guangzhou to Shanghai, and "Cantonese English" has slowly withdrawn from the historical stage.

B. "Chinese Pidgin English"

However, there was another English variety emerging in Shanghai, which may be the most familiar English variety for us. At that time, the Chinese were not able to speak English, and foreigners also could not speak Chinese. The two sides needed a language to communicate urgently, and then a "mixed English-Chinese language" was produced, that is "Chinese Pidgin English". It is a member of "Pidgin Family". Holm (1988) defines a pidgin as:

A reduced language that results from extended contact between groups of people with no language in common; it evolves when they need some means of verbal communication, perhaps for trade, but no group learns the native language of any other group for social reasons that may include lack of trust or of close contact.

Wardhaugh (2000) thinks it is a language with no native speakers; it is no one’s first language but is a contact language.

Therefore, we can see that the emergence of these English varieties is due to the fact that neither side of the communication has a common language.

Although the form of "Chinese Pidgin English" is the same as English, it is quite different. Such as voice, vocabulary, grammar, etc. The following doggerel is very popular at that time:

来叫克姆（COME）去叫奔（GO），
是叫色司（YES）勿讲拿（NO），
一洋元美储得拉（ONE DOLLAR），
廿四铜钿存的福（TWENTY-FOUR），
超样翅样喝杯茶（HAVE TEA），
雪室雪堂请依坐（SIT DOWN），
红头阿二开渡发（KEEP DOOR），
自家兄弟勃拉茶（BROTHER），
爷叫发亲娘，发茶（FATHER / MOTHER），
丈人阿爸发音落（FATHER IN LAW）。

"Chinese Pidgin English" is the same as "Cantonese English", it is not a formal language, but it is of great significance to the social development and foreign trade at that time. As time went by, China is getting stronger and stronger, and this language slowly withdraws from the historical stage because it did not have an environment for survival.

C. "Chinglish" ("Chinese English")

With the victory of the War of Resistance Against Japanese Aggression and the establishment of the People's Republic of China, China slowly began to pay attention to the study of foreign languages. At the beginning, due to the close relationship between China and Soviet Union, Russian is the main foreign language in China. However, with the deterioration of Sino-Russian relation and the establishment of diplomatic relation between China and the Commonwealth countries, English has become China's first foreign language. In this context, "Cantonese English" and "Chinese Pidgin English" have no environment to survive, but there is a new localized English—"Chinglish". It is also called "Chinese English" or "Sinicized English". "Good Good Study and Day Day Up" (study hard and make progress...
every day) and "Long Time No See" are the most representative "Chinglish". Li (1993) believes that "Chinglish" is an abnormal English that does not conform to English culture. Pinkham (2000) defines it is that misshapen, hybrid language that is neither English nor Chinese but that might be described as "English with Chinese characteristics".

The main reason for this variety is the interference of the mother tongue. When learning English, many Chinese have developed Chinese thinking. In the process of learning English, it is inevitable to use the rules of the native language to apply the English grammar. This is what we call "negative transfer." When the native language and the target language have the same characteristic, if the learner uses some rules of the mother tongue as an auxiliary tool, it must appear the "negative transfer" phenomenon (Zhang, 1995). A very typical feature of "Chinglish" is to translate words one by one. For example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Chinese</th>
<th>Chinglish</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>花心（hua xin）</td>
<td>flower heart</td>
<td>fickle in love</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>红糖（hong tang）</td>
<td>red sugar</td>
<td>brown sugar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>河马（he ma）</td>
<td>river horse</td>
<td>hippopotamus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>红茶（hong cha）</td>
<td>red tea</td>
<td>black tea</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>大雨（da yu）</td>
<td>big rain</td>
<td>heavy rain</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

D. "China English"

However, "China English" is different from the English varieties above. In China, it is Ge Chuangui who first puts forward the term "China English." Ge (1980) thinks that "Four Books" ( 四书), "Five Classics" ( 五经), "four modernizations" ( 四个现代化) and "xiucai" (秀才) are not "Chinglish" but "China English". After more than 20 years of discussion and analysis, the term "China English" has caught a lot of attention. At first, it was conflated with "Chinglish" or "Chinese English". With the research and analysis of some scholars, many people could distinguish these terms.

So what is "China English"? Rong (1991) defines it is English that is used used by Chinese people in China and is based on the standard English with Chinese characteristics. In fact, this definition is not very rigorous, but there is one point that is worthy of recognition, that is "based on the standard English". Modiano (1993) said that the English varieties that can be used in the world must have a core. This core is also the fundamental starting point for English as an international language. If the variety leaves this core, then it is unacceptable. Just like the varieties we talked about above. Although they are they are the localization of English in China, they are not based on the standard English. Therefore, these English is malformed and mixed, and they are not accepted by most people. Ji (2002) believes that the reason for the emergence of "China English" is mainly due to cultural vacancies in cultural exchanges between English and Chinese. There are always some words in Chinese that are not in English. For example, the “Four Books” and "Five Classics" mentioned above are all unique Chinese vocabulary, expressing culture and things with Chinese characteristics. When we introduce foreigners to Chinese characteristic culture or unique things, we need "China English." Without "China English," we can't communicate each other.

Since "China English" is an objective reality, it has the value and significance of its existence. Firstly, it is conducive to exchanges between China and the West. As mentioned above, the emergence of "China English" makes up for the gap between Chinese and Western cultures, which is conducive to the exchanges between China and the West. Secondly, it is conducive to the spread of Chinese culture. Although there have been already many Chinese loanwords in English, China's current international status is getting higher and higher, and those loan words are from a done deal. Thirdly, it enriches the content of English. The emergence of "China English" not only expands the English vocabulary, but also enriches its expression. Especially in terms of vocabulary, there are many words that were not available before. Last but not least, it is conducive to the translator's translation. When the translator encounters a sentence with Chinese characteristics, if there is no "China English", then he may not be able to translate correctly.

III. GLOBAL VISION: STONES FROM OTHER HILLS MAY SERVE TO POLISH JADE

Does localized English integrate into English teaching in other countries and regions? The case is self-evident. For example, the famous Indian poet Tagore’s works, who won the Nobel Prize in Literature, have a lot of "Indian English" in his works. Monfared (2018) conducted a survey of 260 English teachers from India and Iran and used questionnaires to ask these teachers what do they think about English variety. It turns out that Indians are very fond of "Indian English" (that is the localization of English in India), attach great importance to local English, and often use this English variety in their daily life and English teaching. The degree of "Indian English" accepted by Indians is still quite high. This shows that Indians need to use this localized English to communicate and write, which has become an indispensable communication tool in their lives.

"Singapore English" has long been a common language in the local area and it is used as a symbol of Singapore identity. At the beginning, the Singapore government still rejected the existence of this localized English. They believed
that this English variety is not conducive to people's communication. In 2000, the Singapore government launched a campaign that named "Speak Good English Movement" (SGEM). The aim of this campaign is to ensure that Singaporeans recognize the importance of standard English and promote its use. However, in the past few decades, almost every Singaporean used "Singapore English". In this context, this movement still failed to make "Singapore English" disappear from the land of Singapore. As the relationship between Singapore and other countries are getting more and more close, the use of this English variety has become more widespread. What's more, more and more people are familiar with this variety. "Singapore English" is a product of social necessity, and its appearance is not accidental. Actually, This localized English will not only undermine the ability of Singaporeans to learn "standard English", but will also help them better communicate with the outside world.

### IV. LOCAL SPIRIT: THE NECESSITY OF INTERGRATING "CHINA ENGLISH" INTO ELT IN CHINA

From the above we can see that many English varieties have been accepted and are still widely used. "China English" should also be like this, because it can not only express the unique culture and things of China, but also inject a new blood into the world of English. Everyone should have encountered this situation. When you want to express some Chinese unique things in English, you are not able to find some suitable words or phrases. Or if you meet a foreign teacher or a foreign friend and ask you what you have eaten for breakfast, you know what you ate, but you can't express it in English. Until now, there are some English textbooks in which the English of "jiaozi" (饺子) is still used as "dumpling", but the true meaning of this word does not refer to Chinese dumpling, it means "a round lamp pf flour and fat mixed with water, cooked in boiling liquid and served with meat". This kind of thing is too much in China, such as "tangyuan" (汤圆), "chaoshou" (抄手), "yuntun" (云吞) and so on. Some people also suggested using "ravioli" to refer to "dumpling", but it is Italian dumpling, not Chinese dumpling. After serious consideration, we should use the Chinese pinyin of dumpling to refer to "dumpling", that is "jiaozi". When communicating with foreigners, you can't deliberately use the words that similar on the surface in order to let the other person understand what you are talking about. This may cause misunderstanding. Therefore, we must use "China English" to communicate, although foreign friends may not understand it at that time, but after explanation, they can know what we want to express.

Originally, Chinese people studied English in order to communicate with foreigners. This is also the inevitable result of the establishment of diplomatic relations between China and foreign countries. In the early days of reform and opening up, China began to develop slowly, and its comprehensive strength was relatively weak. Therefore, many things were imported from abroad. But it is different now. China has become the world's largest developing country and the world's second largest economy. Under such circumstances, China has exported many things. On the one hand, we must learn some advanced science and technology from abroad. On the other hand we should spread the profound Chinese culture to abroad. To spread Chinese culture successfully, "China English" is essential. However, the term "China English" is not very popular in China. Many people will still confuse this term with "Chinglish". From this we can see that everyone's understanding of "China English" is not deep enough. Therefore, when expressing Chinese unique culture and things in English, some of them will become dumb, and they don't know how to say it in English.

In China, the people we communicate in English are often not English native speakers. Compared with people in the United States and Europe, the foreign friends we often encounter are from neighboring countries. Such as Japan, the South Korea, Thailand and so on. And many of the things we talk about are Chinese things and stories. Therefore, the importance of "China English" is self-evident. When people communicate with others, the main consideration is the realization of the purpose of communication. Intercultural communication is a kind of mutual communication, and it is not just that one party transmits content to the other party. It includes both inward introduction and external output.

The introduction of "China English" has brought new research topics to our English teaching, and also lies in the choice of teaching content. Learning a language really requires understanding the culture behind the language, but it is not conducive for language learning to blindly understand the culture of a country unilaterally. It is like saying that a person only learns English every day, does not learn his native language, and finally the knowledge he wants to learn does not learned well, and the knowledge he has mastered has forgotten. There is a saying that is quite reasonable, "your native language determines your foreign language." In China, many English teachers often let students learn about Western culture in the process of teaching English, which is good for them to master the language. Although this approach has certain effects, it must adhere to the principle of appropriateness. Throughout the current many English textbooks, many of the texts are about Western culture, politics, and so on, and there are very few topics about China. For this trend, we should take some measures. In fact, Chinese English textbooks have also gone through some detours in history. Sometimes, they are all about China. Sometimes, they are all about the West. For both, we should adopt a balanced approach, which will help to develop students' intercultural communication skills. In our English textbooks, we should add some topics about China. Most students are familiar with Chinese culture and things. Talking about China in English can not only stimulate students' interest, but also make them feel a sense of pride. For the language materials with Chinese cultural characteristics, we can not only choose the passage written by Westerners, but also written by Chinese people, the premise is that there is no "Chinglish". When we are learning English, teachers always say that we should read articles written by Westerners, because these Englishes are authentic; we should not read articles written by Chinese people in English, because many articles are not idiomatic. This view seems to be correct on the surface, but it is not. English is no longer the language of the British and America, but the language of the world. In
In summary, "China English" is not only an objective reality but also has practical significance. Although "China English" is not yet a national variety of English, it has shown an unstoppable trend. I believe that in the near future, it will be integrated into the world of English as an indispensable part of the world of English, and will eventually be accepted by the world as an independent and powerful national variety of English. There is no such thing as "Standard English" in this world. English no longer belongs to which country, but to the world. At the same time, we should retain our Chinese identity in ELT. So what should we do specifically? Firstly, we must work out a new English syllabus, which is to solve problems from the source. With a proper syllabus, correct teaching activities can be carried out. Secondly, we must pay attention to the compilation of teaching materials. The teaching materials should not only include topics about Western culture, but be added to some Chinese elements appropriately. Articles written by Chinese people also need to be considered. Thirdly, we need to train some teachers with a world English view. A teacher is a light to a student, he can guide him to the right path of learning. Finally, in the English test, many Chinese elements should also be added. "To learn, to use" is very important.

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**Haiyang Jiang** was born in Chong Qing, China in 1993. Now, he is a postgraduate student from Chongqing Normal University majored in Foreign Linguistics and Applied Linguistics. His research interests include foreign language teaching and sociolinguistics. Published paper: A New Study of China English and Chinese English (Journal of Qiqihar Junior Teachers’ College).
On the Obstacles and Strategies in English Listening Teaching*

Xiaoling Yang
Foreign Language School, Nanchang Normal University, China

Abstract—Listening comprehension can be affected positively or negatively by various factors. The factors can be identified as internal and external. They are analyzed respectively and several effective strategies are also presented afterward. The barriers to listening are those of language knowledge, listening habits, psychological quality, cultural background and so on. The strategies should be as follows: training students’ listening skills and good habits, laying stress on training psychological quality, broadening the cultural background knowledge, breeding interest on listening, using student-centered teaching method, ect. Due to the disagreements with previous teaching approaches over the past years, listening teaching, step by step, pays heed to the employment of listening strategies and the listening strategies production.

Index Terms—obstacles, listening, strategies, listening teaching

I. INTRODUCTION

Listening, just as its name implies, is to understand what you hear. With an increase of intercultural communication, English is taking greater and greater effect in transmitting messages and expressing oneself. In the five English skills such as listening, speaking, reading, writing and translating, listening has its priority (Johnson, 2002). For example, a child first listens for a long time before he is able to speak. It is the same for an adult who learns English as a foreign language. So listening plays the first and the most important role in learning a foreign language. But in the practice of English teaching in China, it doesn’t succeed in getting as much attention as reading, writing and translating in China. Most teachers do in class is only to play the recorder and check answers to exercises. Therefore, most students can rarely study anything in class, and they thank it is difficult to understand what they listen. That is to say, how to make use of advantaged condition to improve ability of listening is an urgent problem we must solve. This thesis analyses factors affecting English listening and proposes several effective strategies to help students improve their listening.

II. OBSTACLES IN LISTENING COMPREHENSION

Listening comprehension is both a technique and a capability, which is a rather significant in second language study (Rost, 2000, p12-27). According to it, the degree of listening capability straight pose great influence on other language techniques. Thus, obstacles affecting listening comprehension should be studied.

A. Internal Factors Affecting Listening Comprehension

There are several internal factors which influence the quality of listening comprehension.

1. The English sounds and sound patterns

In accordance to an American scholar, Rita Wong, phonetics is typical in listening comprehension. The reason is that sound is the direct way of listening and speaking. We can express ourselves correctly only pronouncing well. But in the course of study of English phonetics, there are considerable part of the students for a long time by the influence of the native language and local dialect, in addition, the middle school stage does not take the seriously pronunciation study, as well as the wrong pronunciation study habits, have formed the non-standard, and even wrong English pronunciation. Even those students whose pronunciation is basically accurate, in a real communication, have difficulty forming a fluent flow of language. This is because in continual expression, the mutual influence between different words and between syllables. So there occurs some changes on the pronunciation, such as assimilation, elision, loss of explosion, etc, which will undoubtedly result in the difficulty on distinguishing sounds for those non-standard listeners. In listening, most of the student cannot distinguish these phonemes clearly: /i:/ /i /, /w / /v / , /l / /r / . Thus, when they hear: sit, they understand it as : seat ; when they hear: vest , they understand it as : west; when they hear : light, they understand it as : right or night. In addition, many students tend to pronounce a word with diphthong /ai / as a word with /y/ (Underwood, 1989). These are easy to make mistakes in such listening examinations: make an identification which one is pronounced in the following pairs: bike, back and: fight, fat. And students also find it difficult to obtain the real meaning owing to different tones and intonations.

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2. Vocabulary

Students lack sufficient vocabulary supposing compared with the numerable listening materials saving daily scientific, social, cultural, economical life. When they first encounter a unknown word, they feel afraid. The second new word makes them perplexed. And the following vocabulary always cause them to abandon. And they are blocked by some useful phrases and idioms in listening.

For instance: W: How did Mary do on her English exam?
M: She passed with flying colors.
Q: What does the man say about Mary?
A: She has already taken the exam.
B: She did very well on the exam.
C: She managed to pass the exam.
D: She fainted during the exam.

If you don’t know what’s meaning of the idiom ”pass with flying colors”, you can’t chose the right answer is B. Moreover , ”what are eating you? ” (What is wrong with you). Not knowing that idiom, students will not understand “cry over spilled milk” (为过去的失败而懊悔), “It is Greek to me” (我一窍不通). If students don’t understand that, they will not succeed in understanding their listening.

3. Lexicology and grammar barriers

Over the procession of listening comprehension, students could not finish the exercises of sound recognition, or master the language continuity. Provided new vocabulary appears while they’re listening, it is difficult for students to understand the whole meaning, even some students do not continue and spend some time thinking about the new vocabulary that they encountered before when listening are going on. It is the case for grammar. Grammar is the “skeleton” of English, without which, English is a heap of “flesh” which cannot stand up in the right order. Grammar can aid students to seize the implication of the vocabulary, and understand them accurately, which is essential to comprehend the condition of a whole text. It gives students a base for judging the time of the action happening, the person of the operator or supporter. What is the obvious evidence? Whether is it the subjunctive mood? etc. If students are not good at grammar, it’ll influence their marks directly as they are listening.

For example: “But what happens if it rains? What are we going to do then?”——“We’ll have to count on good weather. But if it does rain the whole thing will have to be canceled.” In this sentence , ”count on” means”depend on” , ”the whole thing will have to be canceled” is about the future of the virtual hypothesis, if the students lack of grammar knowledge, they will not grasp the real meaning of the subjunctive mood, the content will sound more difficult to understand.

4. Listening customs barriers

The aim of listening is understanding the main idea of the passage. Over the procession of listening, students should try their best to seize the major content, which is very important (Vandergrift, 2016, p154-166). But many Chinese students don’t form some good habits when they are listening. For example, they always try their utmost to understand meaning of every word, every sentence, as they catch a new vocabulary or a difficult sentence, they abandon and it is no doubt that they have no ability to understand what they hear. While some students can’t think in English, but in Chinese, that is to say, they are listening, translating in English. Those bad customs, from some ways, are the key elements which affect their listening comprehension. Notice to train their listening skills and good habits. It is, in fact, needless to understand every vocabulary, every sentence. It is enough to catch main points, and understand the main idea. Supposing you pay more attention on ’a Heart Translation’ when you are listening or listening to English, reflecting Chinese, invisibly adds to your mind a middle link, that’s why your tempo is slow, you are behind the speed, and that’s the reason why you lack time to pay heed to the main idea, let alone grasp the implication in it.

B. External Factors Affecting Listening Comprehension

Finishing the internal factors, it is of necessity to describe External factors affecting listening comprehension.

1. Psychological quality

Serious and formal teaching is usually a barrier for students to communicate freely. Linguists tell us that it is easy for students to produce fear when they are at their nervousness for they are afraid of being questioned by the teacher. Sometimes students feel too nervous to concentrate on what they are listening. Sometimes students encounter some unknown words or difficult sentences, they’ll feel the frights. Even some students are frightened when they begin to listen. Such kind of state will make students’ failure in listening.

Some students are from the village, and they seldom have chances to listen to the tape. Their lack of experience also leads to them confused. Before listening, knowing nothing about the information of the listening materials, they feel anxious and worried. It seems that they are just like those who are facing customs’ officers not knowing how to express themselves. Such kind of state often leads to students passive in listening.

Students are divided into several types in accordance with their abnormal psychological quality: they attach much importance to facial action; they have anxiety of trait and environment; they don’t obtain same psychology. Such students don’t succeed in listening well owing to their unhealthy psychology.

2. Teachers
Injection in the traditional teaching, teachers were overwhelmingly dominant in the spoon-feeding education, resulting in the student passive acceptance, apathy, lack in initiative and creativity of the negative effects. With the deepening of the reform of teaching, the students’ dominant position in teaching has been paid more and more attention, especially in college English teaching. Heuristic, I heard that style, communication style, and other advanced, innovative teaching methods are increasingly widely used. Respect for the individual, emphasizing the ability to obtain teaching ideas is more fully reflected, students are increasingly comprehensive initiative to play, it is very gratifying and trends.

3. Cultural background

The background or prior knowledge can affect listening comprehension. Different countries have different cultural backgrounds. Such as history, culture, customs and habits, even life styles. If students know little about these kinds of knowledge, they cannot have a good understanding of speakers even though they are familiar with the heard word. For example, if we give two pieces of passage for student to listen, one is introducing ‘Chinese Spring Festival’, the other is English ‘Christmas’. I’m sure it is very easy for students to understand Spring Festival, in that it is traditional in our country, everyone knows it well, which is helpful for them to understand. While students will get a good opinion about what is occurring at all, only when teachers explain Christmas tree, Santa Claus and Christmas gifts (Weinstein, 2014, p315-327).

For example, in one of the listening material on American family, it is said that: Jack’s mother led Jack to Hollywood to travel the day before Christmas Day. And then the question is: When did they leave for Hollywood? If the students do not know which day the Christmas Day is, it is difficult to answer this question.

Conflicts or shock of culture will happen assuming students do not master much about cultural background. For example an article about American telephone network articles have phrase:” It provides 800 telephone service.” In the U.S., makes the long-distance telephone call which does not collect fees must dial the number 800.

If you don’t understand this point, you will understand the correct means of this sentence “the nets provide 800 no fee telephone service” as ”the net provides 800 call services”.

4. Interest in English listening

Interest in learning is also called interest in cognition or thirst for knowledge. It is the most practical and the most active component part in learning motivation. It is an intentional activity with moody coloring which strives to recognize the world, eager to get culture-science knowledge and explores the truth continuously. In teaching learning, motivation in learning and interest in learning are the most directly factors which affect learning consciousness and enthusiasm. It is well-known that: ”interest is the best teacher”. Whether students learn well or not has direct relationship with interest in learning.

All mentioned above are barriers in listening comprehension and how to remove barriers which are another question.

III. STRATEGIES IN TEACHING LISTENING

With the deep research of obstacles to listening ability, it is in that teachers think it is merely to exam the learners’ listening capability and needn’t teach any approaches and techniques.

A. Discriminating among the Distinctive Sounds of English

Listening helps students to recognize differences between sounds. For instance, in some vowels, such as /i:/ /ɪ:/ /ɛ:/, also in such consonants as /k/ /g/ /ŋl/, we must help them through practice so that they are subtle to the wideness of the open teeth, the form of the lips, and the strain of tongue and larynx, and capable of noticing the difference between /g/ and /k/ , and /ŋl/ and /l/ as in the words pig and pick, ship and sheep; sun and run, etc. we must point out that in each pair, a difference in a single sound ( phoneme) makes a new word with an entirely different meaning.

B. Enlarge Vocabulary

Vocabulary is the basis of language. In order to improve listening, listeners must have enough vocabulary because vocabulary influences listening directly. However, reading is the only way to increase vocabulary, deepen comprehension. As for the familiar words, we usually know the spelling and pronunciation; while it is difficult to comprehend the meaning of the unfamiliar words. In the course of listening, one sentence may not be understood clearly owing to one or two strange words. Thus we know listening is restricted and closely connected with vocabulary. In order to improve listening thoroughly, we must consider how to increase vocabulary. When we read an article, we often meet some unfamiliar words or phrases, which require us to look up their meanings in the dictionary. We can increase our vocabulary by means of this. Besides, consulting the dictionary can deepen the comprehension of words, set phrases, and special meanings.

In general, listening and reading supplement each other. Apart from the major, we should contact other subjects so as to improve listening comprehension. (Wang, 2007, p172-174)

C. Focus on Improving Grammar

Mastery of grammar, to improve their English listening ability is also an important aspect, in the listening process, when faced long sentences difficult sentences, if we can use knowledge of grammar, good sentence element analysis to
find the topic sentence, key words, clearly identify the master and slave sentence or other modifiers, you can accurately understand the whole sentence meaning.

D. Notice to Train Their Listening Skills and Good Habits

So-called listening skills here, include skills on phonemics and the comprehension skill on it. The phonetic skills refer to the terms as sound—linking, weak form, sentence stress, sense—group etc. Comprehension skills refer to the index, calculation, and choice of content, etc. Besides, students should have a fast reading before any listening begins, attempt to find some information in advance. Namely, they should look through the exercises extremely fast, seize any probable hint of them, memorize them for a short time, then take notes while they are listening, reinforce their memory. When you write down the notes you should also catch the major points. For example, using Arabic numerals to take down the numerals, using code name instead of places, person’s name, etc. If the words are very long, you can use abbreviation, and if the sentence is long enough, you can get the chief component. While listening to questions and answers, you can connect the main point of information to the question organically, while you are listening to a conversation or a short passage, you should grasp the main idea, top sentences. To careful to avoid trying to catch one or two new words, influenced understanding the whole passage. At the same time, bad habits should be got rid of. For example, in order to catch the meaning of every top sentence at every paragraph, according to their grammatical units we’d train students’ ability to summarize, seize the chief point, think in English way, break away from the influence of our native language—Chinese.

E. Laying Stress on Training Psychological Quality

It is undoubted that psychological quality is quite important to do everything, so dose listening comprehension. It is very typical that students develop a good condition while they are listening. Students should know that listening is the first pace to learn language, they should pay heed to learn it excellent at the very start. At the same time, students should also know that it is true listening is very difficult, not only for some of them, but for every Chinese student. So there is a need for teachers to encourage students to set up confidence, enhance spirits to overcome difficulties. Meanwhile they should also see that so long as you have a persistent in it, you’ll certainly be good at it later and never to be afraid of it.

F. Student-centered Teaching Methodology

Teachers should change the traditional model of "Listen – check the answer - listen again", and instead of the modern model of "the student-centered" in the listening ability of students, let them do some role-play the appropriate level, consistency and repeat, etc. listening materials related activities.

G. Broadening the Cultural Background Knowledge

To achieve the cultural background knowledge is multi-channel. In foreign language teaching, the teachers should pay more attention to the introduction of culture and the cultivation of students’ intercultural consciousness, under the class, students can read a lot of books about the English countries’ social, historical and cultural knowledge. In listening process, the teacher as far as possible to teach students relevant cultural background knowledge, with some warm-up exercises to activate students’ previous cultural background knowledge. On select the material of listening should be based on textbook, supplemented by other material. The choice is abundant in content, cover wide, such as politics, economy, military, culture, science and technology and other fields but not too over-specialized materials. Teachers should create more of the language environment, such as the second class that makes the students take full advantage of multi-media classrooms, multi-functional audio-visual and other modern media offer a wealth of resources. Wide range of interesting and effectiveness of the natural expression information easy to stimulate the students' interest, broaden the cultural background knowledge, and gradually improve their listening ability.

H. Breeding Interest on Listening

“Interest is the best teacher”, for this reason, to cultivate interest plays a very important role in English listening. Two ways are worthy of being mentioned in cultivating students’ interest in learning: One is to choose interesting listening material for them to listen to. The listening material should be interesting to the students. An interesting listening material can easily arouse students interested in learning. Once, the author let the students listen to an interesting story called: Shop-Lifter which was about how a female thief stole some cosmetics in a supermarket. The students were so interested in it that they understood this story easily. Apart from the textbook, the author often uses English songs as an auxiliary method to arouse students’ interest in learning. Music is sound; students have ability not only to enjoy it, escape from the active classroom atmosphere, but study some points of language and culture in English-speaking countries. Also, listening to English songs can help students form habit in listening to English for there have lots of liaisons and imperfect plosives in each English song. Given students listen to English songs normally or now and then, they would get accustomed to liaisons and imperfect plosives and so on. They conflict problems of this type once more in their listening class, they are able to tangle it skillfully.

The other is to express clearly the purpose of our listening, in another word, to give the evident goal to the students before they listen to the recording or tell them what kind of task we would finish after listening. When students have clear purpose why they listen to a certain piece of paper or they are aware of that what kind of task they would finish
after listening, they can have strong desire to listen. For example, in terms of a piece of narration, students can roughly know that what this passage is about by reading the exercises which are concerned to it. With such kind of rough knowledge on passage which the students would listen to, students would be eager to listen. Hence, it is necessary for the teacher to express the purpose which students listen to a topic and if necessary to explain the exercises connected with listening materials for the students before they listen to the recording because the relevant exercise is, to some degree, a clue to the listening material. The better students understand the exercises, the easier they can comprehend the recording.

IV. CONCLUSION

Listening comprehension is a complicate, active procedure where students must distinguish between sounds, understand words and grammatical structures, explain stress and intonation, remember what was collected in all of the above, and interpret listening within the immediate and the greater sociocultural situation of the utterance. Students’ ability of listening is based on whether he or she has mastered the relevant knowledge or techniques well or not. Through analysis of factors which affect English listening, we understand that there are many reasons why students feel it difficult to learn English listening, among which several factors have been analyzed: phonetic knowledge, vocabulary quantities, background knowledge and psychological factors, and so on. In addition, in order to solve these problems, some suggestions are put forward: do not forget to learn some relevant phonetic knowledge while we drill listening; enlarge vocabulary quantities as many as possible; learn some background knowledge on a large scale and overcome psychological factors in the process of listening. Except for these four aspects, there are still many factors affecting English listening. Teachers should put emphasis on training psychological quality, which is important to learn English well. In the past decades, teachers were the core of their class and they are in charge of class. However, the situation is changing, student-centered is becoming the center of class. In order to enhance students’ listening level, teachers had better broaden the cultural background knowledge while teaching the skills of listening. Last but not the least, students’ interest on listening might be cultivated. What has been suggested here is limited and merits further research.

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Xiaoling Yang was born in Nanchang, China in 1970. She received her Master degree in linguistics from Donghua University of Technology, China in 2003. She is professor in the School of Foreign Languages, Nanchang Normal University, Nanchang, China. Her research interests include English teaching and cross-culture.
Multimodal Discourse Analysis of News Pictures

Mengyuan Bi
Shanxi Normal University, China

Abstract—Multimodal discourse analysis is the analysis of different symbolic modes within a text, which breaks through many limitations of traditional discourse analysis to a great extent. This paper takes the visual grammar of Kress and Leeuwen as the theoretical framework, which gives a good explanation of the reproducing meaning, interactive meaning and composition meaning of image discourse, which is also suitable for the analysis of news picture discourse. This paper expounds how other symbolic resources interact with each other, so as to construct a complete text with linguistic symbols, and then convey more social interactive meaning. The results show that visual grammar is feasible and operational in the analysis of multimodal news texts. The background and text of news discourse can be effectively supplemented and explained, and it is of great significance to improve readers' pictures' reading ability.

Index Terms—multimodal discourse analysis, visual grammar, news pictures

I. RESEARCH STATUS OF MULTIMODAL DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

With the emergence and development of multimedia technology, great changes have taken place in the way of human information exchange. In the 1990s, “multimodality” became a widely studied term in the field of semiotics and linguistics in the West. Scholars have come to realize that although language still plays an irreplaceable role in the process of meaning construction, however, in the field of discourse, it is only one of the symbolic systems. It is necessary to combine the unimodal study of language in discourse linguistics with other fields such as vision and hearing (Li, 2003). The emergence of the word “multimodality” emphasizes the importance of symbolic resources other than language. For example, the combination of language and sound, Kress and Van Leeuwen think, the significance of multimodal research is that it clearly points out that the interest in the study of modes other than words and speech is inevitable rather than accidental, it is the center of the form of realistic communication, not just as a supplement to language research (Kress, 2006). The hypothetical basis of multimodal research is that almost all practices can be regarded as multimodality, if the original “multimodality” proposal was only out of interest in the study of other symbolic modes, so now it has become a paradigm that can provide interpretation for most texts.

The main theoretical basis of multimodal discourse is system-functional linguistics founded by Halliday, a British linguist. Specifically, on the basis of systemic functional linguistics, O'Toole, Kress and Van Leeuwen, regard the meaning potential of text, sound and picture as a series of interrelated systems and structures, and analyze them, thus laying the foundation of multimodal research. O'Toole proposed a “bottom-up” grammatical approach. He applied the system function mode of Halliday to the symbolic analysis of display art, sculpture and painting; Kress and Van Leeuwen focus on image and visual design, and summarize the general principles of visual design through a bottom-up contextual analysis method.

In the field of discourse analysis, multimodal discourse analysis provides a new vision and has been active in western academic circles for more than ten years. At present, the more famous scholars in the world are divided into social semiotics schools, interactive sociology schools and cognitive schools. The representative figures of the school of social semiosis are Kress and Leeuwen, who first put forward and perfect the theory of social semiotics analysis of multimodal discourse. This theory is based on Halliday's functional linguistics theory. The functional grammar put forward by Halliday summarizes the function of language into three metafunctions. The first is conceptual function, which is used to convey conceptual meaning; The second is the interpersonal function, which is used to reflect the relationship between the communicator and the receiver, and the attitude of the communicator to the content of the communication; the third is the textual function, which is used to express the meaning of the text (Halliday, 1994). Meaning exists in all kinds of social symbol resource systems, such as vision, hearing, action, expression and so on. This kind of existence is both extensive and profound. Therefore, the understanding of social meaning can not only focus on language and character symbols, but must be combined with the examination of all symbol resources. No single symbol can be completely understood in isolation. Therefore, Kress and Leeuwen applied the three metafunctions of language in functional grammar to the understanding of non-linguistic symbols, they see language and non-verbal symbols as separate symbol resources, but play a role in each other, the role of linguistic symbols and other different modes of symbols is comprehensively investigated in discourse analysis.

II. VISUAL GRAMMAR

As mentioned earlier, Kress and Leeuwen believe that image is also a kind of social symbol, which can be analyzed and described by Halliday's social semiotics theory. According to the three metafunctions of the language, the two men
create the visual grammar of the analytical image with the representational meaning, the interactive meaning and the composition meaning as the core content, which provides the theoretical basis and analysis method for the multimodal discourse analysis.

A. Representational Meaning

The meaning of representation can be understood in two categories: narrative representation and concept representation. Vector is the symbol of narrative representation image, and there is no vector in the conceptual reproduced image. Vector is a quantity of direction and size, which is usually represented as a strong diagonal line in the image. Narrative representation can be divided into three categories: action narrative, reactive narrative, speech and psychological narration. In the narrative of action, the representation participants send out vectors, and they are often the most prominent participants. When the vector in the image is only the eyes of the participants, the image belongs to the reactive narrative image, and discourse analysis focuses on the "responder" and "phenomenon". Speech and psychological narrative images usually use a circle to frame what the participants think or say. The image of concept representation generally represents the relationship between participants, including their categories and characteristics. Concept representation and narrative representation are mainly different from time factors in the representation of image meaning. Narrative images focus on reflecting the process of change and development of an event or thing, while concept images focus on representation the category, structure, meaning and so on of participants.

Concept representation image includes three different contents: concept classification, concept analysis and concept symbol. There is always one part of the participant in the conceptual classification image that is subordinate to the other part of the participant, which can be either dominant or implicit. The dominant classification will appear at the same time as the upper level of the category and the subordinate category. However, there are only subordinate categories in the implicit classification, and the symmetric composition is generally formed between the participants, and the distance and size between them are almost the same. The relationships between participants in the conceptual analysis are generally partial and overall relationship. The whole is the bearing, and the part is the characteristic of any number of people.

B. Interactive Meaning

Compared with representation meaning, the realization of interactive meaning needs to mobilize more viewers' ideology. The interactive meaning embodies the tripartite character relationship: the producer of the image, the representation participant in the image and the viewer of the image. At the same time, it guides the viewer's attitude towards the representation of participants. The realization of interactive meaning of image mainly depends on four basic elements: contact, distance, attitude and modality. Contact refers to whether there is a docking between the participants in the image and the eyes of the image viewer, and whether it causes some kind of emotional experience of the image viewer. If there is eye docking, the image belongs to "request" interaction, if there is no eye docking, "provide" interaction. Participants in the image can express what they ask through expressions, eyes and postures. For example, if you look down from a high place, you can ask for obedience; from a bottom look up, you can ask for mercy; when you look directly at the viewer with a smile, you can get approval. On the contrary, if the image viewer does not have virtual contact with the participants, he will "stay out of the way" to treat the people and things in the image.

Distance is social distance, which is the distance between social beings in space, time and psychology, which symbolizes the closeness of people's social relations. Distance is social distance, which is the distance between social beings in space, time and psychology, which symbolizes the closeness of people's social relations.

Modality is the truthfulness or credibility of the statements which we make to the world we pay attention to. According to different standards, we can divide modality into high modality, medium modality and low modality. In color saturation, from high sensory modality to low sensory modality, the image will use high saturation color, not too saturated color, only black and white. They also range from eight visual markers to discuss the realistic value of modality in the image, such as color discrimination, color harmony, situational (from no background to extremely meticulous background), reproduction (from maximum abstraction to maximum reproduction of detail), depth (from no depth to maximum perspective), lighting (from the maximum reproduction of light and shadow to the absence of light and shadow) and brightness (that is, from the maximum number of different brightness to only light and dark).

C. The Meaning of Composition

The meaning of composition is realized in three ways: information value, scene selection and significance. The so-called information value is the position where a symbol is placed in the image. The position of the symbol also affects the embodiment of meaning, for example, the position on the left and right forms the structure of the known information-the new information, and the upper and lower positions form the structure of the ideal information-the real information. Ideal information indicates the idealization or generalization of information, true information indicates certain specific information, or more "down-to-earth" information. Significance refers to the intensity of one symbol in the image to attract the attention of the viewer relative to other symbols. The symbol is placed in the foreground or background, the size of the symbol, the contrast of colors, the intensity of light, and so on. Whether or not there is a way to pick up a scene, through which some elements can be classified or excluded from others, thus reflecting whether they belong or not in a sense. Kress and Leeuwen believe that the principles of information value, significance and scene
selection are applicable to both image and text, and try to use the same terms in multimodal discourse analysis.

D. The Relationship between Different Discourse Modes

The overall meaning of the communicator's discourse is embodied by the discourse of different modes. When the discourse of one mode can not fully express its meaning, the discourse of the other mode is supplemented and constitutes a complementary relationship. Complementary relationship can be specifically strengthened relationship and non-strengthened relationship. Reinforcement relationship means that there is one mode is the main form of communication, and the other modes are only the enhancement of it. There is no primary and secondary in the unstrengthened relationship, and all kinds of discourse modes can not become a complete meaning; joint relationship refers to the combination of different types of media to reflect the meaning; cross is the cross embodiment of meaning. Compared with the complementary relationship, there is no mode between the modes of the non-complementarity relationship. This relationship can be overlapping, that is, although the discourse of all kinds of modes appears at the same time, it does not strengthen each other, or it can be included, that is, all kinds of modes have no new contribution to the expression of the whole meaning, but they provide more specific information, or they may not participate in the context in a positive way.

III. VISUAL GRAMMATICAL ANALYSIS OF NEWS PICTURES

A. Representation Meaning

The meaning of representation can be understood in two categories: narrative representation and concept representation. Vector is the symbol of narrative representation image, and there is no vector in the conceptual reproduced image. The background information in Fig 1 is that Putin congratulates President Xi Jinping face to face on his 66th birthday. There is an obvious vector in the picture. General Secretary Xi’s eyes meet with President Putin's eyes, and there is also an obvious vector in the direction of the hand, which reflects the process of action and response. At this time, the photo shows the reproducing meaning of the narrative: Embodying the friendly relations between China and Russia through speech and action acts. The vector in Fig 3 exists between the participant and the viewer and belongs to the reaction narrative, attention needs to be paid to “responders” and phenomena, the background of the picture is that 70% of child labourers are engaged in agricultural work. The viewer directly creates sympathy for child labour through the picture and deeply thinks about the ill phenomenon of using child labour. There are also obvious vectors in Fig 4, in the middle of the picture, the participants and viewers produce obvious vectors, and the eyes of the two people in the rear and the map of green action produce vectors, so this picture is a narrative with behavior and reaction narrative.

Conceptual symbols are used to express what the participants are or represent. There are two categories of conceptual symbols: attributes and cues. Symbolism cues means that a certain meaning and identity are embodied in the qualities of the participants themselves. The symbolic attribute, on the other hand, is the external addition of this meaning to the participants. For example, to enhance the significance of participants in the image, can be placed in the foreground, using prominent dimensions, light, details, hue, saturation, etc, or point to it in a position, such as arrows, fingers, etc. There is no sense of vector in the eyes and movement between the characters in the Fig 2, their relationship is defined by the classification process: the classification process associates the participants with the classification relationship and at least one group of participants will play the role of the other participant in the “dependent” role (Li, 2003). Compared with the speaker on the podium, the audience is subordinate to the attribute role of the reporter, the meaning of reproduction here is not narrative, but conceptual reproduction: an official press conference is under way.

B. Interactive Meaning

The interactive meaning embodies the tripartite character relationship: the producer of the image, the representation participant in the image and the viewer of the image. The realization of interactive meaning of image mainly depends on four basic elements: contact, distance, attitude and modality. Contact refers to whether there is a docking between the participants in the image and the eyes of the image viewer, and whether it causes some kind of emotional experience of
the image viewer. If there is eye docking, the image belongs to "request" interaction, if there is no eye docking, "provide" interaction. Participants in the image can express what they ask through expressions, eyes and postures. For example, if you look down from a high place, you can ask for obedience; from a bottom look up, you can ask for mercy; when you look directly at the viewer with a smile, you can get approval. On the contrary, if the image viewer does not have virtual contact with the participants, he will "stay out of the way" to treat the people and things in the image. "Social distance" refers to the distance between the participant and the interactive participant, that is, the distance between the participant and the viewer in the graph. If the picture producer wants to present the picture content better, it must grasp the distance between the visual image and the reader. This distance is called "social distance". Its main yardsticks are close-up, medium vision, big vision. In Kress & VanLeeuwen's view, the close-up lens represents a kind of intimate private space, which can make the viewer feel his inner world through the appearance of the characters. "close-up" is a kind of personal friendly close-up. "Middle close-up" belongs to a long distance private space, but the viewer can still integrate himself into the scene in which the characters in the picture live and communicate with each other. "Middle vision" means a familiar social relationship; "Middle-big Vision" is a close social distance, in which there is still a sense of familiarity with each other; "Vision" means that the social distance is becoming more and more distant; in the "Big Vision", publicity and non-individualization are becoming more and more obvious. Kress summed up the relationship between viewing and distance, showing only the head and shoulders to indicate personal close range; The image above the waist symbolizes the distance of the individual; the whole person appears in the image to indicate the close distance of the society; in addition to the whole character, there is a blank space around it that indicates the distance of the society. The distance of at least 4 to 5 people means public distance. The attitude that the image is provided to the viewer can be achieved from a perspective. For example, when the reader looks at the image positively, it will produce the feeling of empathy and integration, while the inclined viewing image will feel indifferent and distance, the things in the overlooking image symbolize the power, and the things in the flat-looking image embody equality.

Fig 1 is just an objective display of some kind of information to the viewer, the line of sight between the image participant and the viewer does not intersect and does not interact, at this point, it's just “providing” information about participating in an event. The image is taken as the middle scene and does not interact with the viewer in the eyes or limbs, there is a more estranged relationship between the image viewer and the participants, that is, the perspective and distance of the “other”. The participant in Fig 3 is connected to the viewer’s line of sight, resulting in a “request”, the position of child labor in the picture is an overlooking perspective for viewers, thus arousing sympathy and pity from viewers. Fig 4 publicity map for green action, the line of sight of the boy riding the bike in the middle docked with the viewer, resulting in “request”, the shooting angle of the picture is horizontal, so the picture is “request” for approval, and eager for readers to join the green action, which gives the reader a sense of presence. The distance can be connected to the relationship with the viewer by the proportion of the image participants. If the proportion of the participants’ face and head is large in the image, a closer relationship can be constructed; if you want to build a public relationship, you have to show the whole body of the participants, and you should be surrounded by space until you can see the bodies of four or five people. Fig 1 and Fig 2 are the distance of public relations, which reflects the psychological distance between the viewer and the photo.

C. Composition Meaning

The meaning of composition corresponds to the textual function of systemic functional grammar. It contains three elements: information value, significance and scene frame. The information value refers to the order in which each component of the composition is arranged. In photo discourse, each component in the overall composition will vary according to its position, and it reflects the different information value. The composition of the content from left to right can establish the structure of the known information --- the new information. The composition of the content from top to bottom can convey the structure of ideal --- reality, while from the center to the four sides, it can express the important --- secondary structure. The center of Fig 1 is the glass of the two leaders. General Secretary Xi Jinping's glass is slightly lower than that of Putin, which show the quality of General Secretary Xi Jinping's respect for other countries and modesty and courtesy. The center position of the two glasses can also imply the fine quality of humility and courtesy of the Chinese nation. The composition of the photo is more coordinated and does not magnify or shrink a participant in proportion. This makes all the image participants more harmonious integration. In figure 4, the center is a boy wearing green short sleeves and riding a bike. Green is an environmentally friendly color that gives readers a clear background meaning. The information at the top of the graph is "亲近自然，玩转绿色行动". The sentence can direct and clear express the subject of this activity, and the composition of this sentence is an idealized message. On the left and right sides of the picture are two young runners and two young people looking at the map. On the left is known information, and people know how to express green action. On the right is a new message. It tells viewers that there is a prescribed route for this activity. The use of young people as participants in the picture gives the viewer a feeling of spiritual fullness and strengthens the desire to join the event. The background of the picture is urban architecture which suggests that the environmental protection activities are carried out in the city.

IV. CONCLUSION

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News photos are a common expression in new media discourses, and it is of great significance to analyze and study them. Visual grammar analyzes the three functional meanings of photo discourse from the perspective of social semiotics, pays attention to the internal representation factors and its structure of discourse, and has a good explanatory power to news photo discourse. News discourse has been paid more and more attention because of its wide audience, great influence and strong effectiveness. This paper expounds how other symbolic resources interact with each other, so as to construct a complete text with linguistic symbols, and then convey more social interactive meaning. The results show that visual grammar is feasible and operational in the analysis of multimodal news texts. The background and text of news discourse can be effectively supplemented and explained, and it is of great significance to improve readers' pictures' reading ability.

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Mengyuan Bi was born in Linfen, China in 1995. She is a sophomore of graduate student in Shanxi normal University, majoring in foreign linguistics and applied linguistics.
She majors in foreign linguistics and applied linguistics. Her research interests include multimodal discourse analysis and pragmatics.
Ms. Bi has published two papers about linguistics which can be found in the CNKI.
A Comparative Study of Gender Differences in Refusal Strategies from English Majors*

Qiaoying Wang
School of Foreign Languages, Guizhou University of Engineering Science, Bijie, Guizhou, China

Abstract—Based on Geoffrey Leech’s politeness principle (1975), Brown and Levinson’s face saving and face threatening theory (1987), this paper is a comparative study of the gender differences in the refusal strategies employed by the English majors. The DCT (Discourse Completing Test) from Tanck Sharyl (2004) is modified in this study. The results of this study show that both male and female students of the English majors use the refusal strategies in a speech act. The differences of refusal strategies between male and female lie in the direct refusal and the indirect refusal. Most of the female students tend to use an indirect refusal politeness strategy to save the others’ face in the communication, avoiding the face threatening, while most of the male students seem to use direct refusal. The achievements of this study make some contribution to the relevant study and provide some indications to English teaching and learning in China. It is of some significance to improve the English pragmatic competence of English majors.

Index Terms—English refusal strategies, gender differences, politeness, English majors

I. INTRODUCTION

Kasper and Rose (2001) stated that in social communication, speakers employ a variety of speech acts to achieve their communicative goals, such as apologies, requests, complaints, and refusals. English refusal speech act belongs to the research field of English pragmatics. English pragmatics mainly studies whether English learners can properly carry out speech acts in verbal communicative activities to achieve the purpose of communication. English speech act theory, the cooperative principle, the politeness principle and the face saving theory are the main contents of English pragmatic theories, all of which are regarded as the important theories that the relevant researches are based on.

A. Speech Act Theory

In the early 1950s, the British philosopher John Austin first put forward the speech act theory in his lecture on the topic of How to Do Things with Words in Harvard University. Austin (1965) said that speech actisthat saying something is doing something. The speech act happens when the speakers produce two types of sentences: performatives and constatives. In his opinion, the descriptive sentences belong to the constatives while the performatives refer to the uttering of these sentences or the doing of an action. Soon, however, he found it worthless to distinguish performatives and constatives because saying anything at any time can be regarded as the doing of something or an act of speech. Then he developed his theory into another more effective speech act theory. According to Austin’s theory (1965), there may be three kinds of speech acts which the speakers carry out: the locutionary act, the illocutionary act and the perlocutionary act. He defined the meaning of locutionary act as the actual uttering of a sentence with a particular meaning which refers to the speech act in which the speaker use words, phrases, and clauses to express his ideas. He analyzed the literal meaning of the speech act at the linguistic level, such as syntax, vocabulary, phonology and etc. He explained that in illocutionary act when a locutionary act happens, the speakers’ purposes and intentions have been expressed by producing some units of language or verbal expressions with certain meanings, and the perlocutionary act brings the consequences or the effects on the hearers after locutionary act. On the basis of Austin's speech act theory, American philosopher John Searle (1969) inherited and developed Austin's speech act theory and created his own theory, including a series of rules and norms. He explained that the speech act refers to physical act, perlocutionary act, and illocutionary act and the rules of the language must be involved in the speech act. The speaker expresses his purpose or intentions by using different forms of language. According to Searle, speech acts fall into five categories: assertives, directives, commissives, expressives, and declaratives. His theory holds that the utterances that can be made to perform the same act may vary in their syntactic forms.

B. The Cooperative Principle

Paul Grice, American philosopher and linguist, made great contributions to the cooperative principle. Grice (1975) pointed that the interlocutors have to obey a general conversational principle in a talk to reach the successful communication, which is called the cooperative principle. He proposed four conversational maxims based on his

* This present study is supported by Humanities and Social Sciences Research Project from Department of Education, Guizhou Province and Guizhou University of Engineering Science. Project No. is 13ZC068.
cooperative principle. The four conversational maxims are the Maxim of Quantity, the Maxim of Quality, the Maxim of Relation and the Maxim of Manner. He observed that sometimes the speaker violates some of these principles consciously to achieve a certain aim or purpose.

C. The Politeness Principle

On the basis of Grice's cooperative principle, Geoffrey Leech (1983) put forward the principle of discourse politeness, including six Maxims of politeness: Tact Maxim, Generosity Maxim, Approbatory Maxim, Modesty Maxim, Agreement Maxim and Sympathy Maxim. Tact Maxim means reducing cost and making more benefit to the hearer involved in the communication. Generosity Maxim refers to minimizing the speaker’s own benefits to achieve the politeness. In Approbatory Maxim, the hearer is offered more praise and less offensiveness. Modesty Maxim denotes that the speaker minimizes his own praise to maximize the hearer’s praise. Agreement Maxim conveys that the speaker intends to narrow the differences between the hearers and the speaker himself. Sympathy Maxim connotes the reduction of the antipathy to each other. He believed that in verbal communication, in order to achieve politeness, people use different pragmatic strategies in speech acts.

D. The Face Theory

Erving Goffman (1955) proposed face work. He claimed that people need to use polite language to avoid embarrassment in verbal communication and hurt their own and the others’ image and face. Continuous studies done by Brown and Levinson on face contribute much to the face theory. Brown and Levinson (1987) defined the face as the public self-image recognized by others in the society and they divided the face into negative face and positive face. The negative face means the freedom of action and freedom from imposition. The positive face means the self-image appreciated and approved of by the others. Further, Brown and Levinson advanced face-threatening act (FTA), which refers to an utterance or action which threatens a person’s public self-image or face. FTA threatens the hearer’s face by imposing some negative speech acts, such as requests, orders, anger, disagreement, criticism, accusations, insults, contradiction, boasts, confessions, admission of responsibility, ask for forgiveness and so on. They pointed out that the strategies of avoiding face damage are the most polite strategies in communicative activities. Brown and Levinson summed up four politeness strategies: bald on record, negative politeness, positive politeness, and off-record-indirect strategy. They provided more appropriate strategies to minimize or avoid face-threaten to offend the hearer, such as appellation, membership, exaggeration, joke, offer, promise, being optimistic, reciprocity, reason, hedge, apologize, seeking agreement, avoiding disagreement, asserting common ground, giving deference and incurring a debt, etc.

E. The Refusal Strategy

Brown & Levinson (1987) regarded the speech act of refusal in communication as the direct act to conduct the face threatening, which can break down the communication. Fraser (1990) and Smith (1998) found in their studies that refusals are influenced by some social factors such as gender, age, education background, power, and social distance. If a speaker does not employ the appropriate refusal strategy, the hearer’s face will be hurt and their relationship may be damaged, so that the communication fails and it is very important for the interlocutors to adopt the different refusal strategies to reduce the negative influence of the refusal speech act. Beebe et.al. (1990) studied the refusal strategies and divided the strategies of refusal into three categories: direct refusal, indirect refusal and adjuncts. Direct refusal means that the speaker makes direct refusal to the other’s request, invitation, offer, and suggestion, etc., including performative and non-performative statements. For example, the speaker uses the performative words like ‘refuse’, ‘decline’, and ‘reject’ to refuse the other interlocutors or some non-performative statements and negative willingness or ability, such as ‘No’ or ‘I can’t’ or ‘No, I don’t like it’ and so on. Indirect refusal strategy is an indirect way to do the refusal. There are a variety of strategies to conduct the indirect refusal. The refusal strategies involved in this paper are based on the taxonomy proposed by Beebe et al (1990, pp.72-73) (See Appendix 2).

F. Research Background

Based on the achievements above, a great many academic researches on the refusal strategies have been conducted at home and abroad. The studies performed by Blum-Kulka and House (1989) House & Kasper (1987), Ellis, R. (1992), Garcia, C. (1993), Hassall, T. J. (2001), Jeremy F. Jones, Adrefiza (2017) and Lana Kreishan (2018) focused on the polite speech acts of apology and request, and the other scholars, such as Murphy & Neu (1996), Tanck, Sharyl (2004), studied the complaints and refusals. Allami, et.al.(2017) examined the different levels in employing the strategies of speech acts related to request, apology, and refusal. In recent years, foreign scholars have begun to combine the study of the refusal strategies in their own languages, cultures and English learning. Hatime Çiftç (2016) dealt with a contrastive analysis on the use of politeness strategies in refusal of speech acts between Turkish and English native speakers. Paraskeri-Lukeriya L Iliadi and Tatiana V Larina (2017) explored refusal speech acts and the use of refusal strategies in English and Russian. Tuncer, Hülya (2016), Tuncer Hülya and Turhan, Burcu (2019) found in their research that the refusal strategies used in social activities by pre-service English teachers are influenced by gender difference and the social status in Turkey.

There are also many researchers in China who studied the speech acts and refusal strategies. Ma Yuelan (2000) conducted a research on refusal strategies from the written discourses and concluded 11 kinds of refusal strategies that.
can be used in the situations of Chinese and English language learning. Gong Ping (2005) proposed a format of refusal strategy \((C_{x} \rightarrow R_{y})\), which holds that the corresponding switching between the refusal strategy parameter \(y\) and the cognitive parameter \(x\) can help the speakers to conduct a more appropriate refusal speech act. Zhu Xiaoning (2010) focused on how college students use politeness strategies in English communications. Pei Lixia (2010) investigated the difference of the refusal strategies between English majors, non-English majors and native English speakers. Guo Yinling (2012) made a contrastive analysis on the similarities and differences in the use of strategies in English and Chinese refusal speech acts from the perspective of pragmatics. Her research shows that the participants in communicative activities with different social status will adopt different refusal strategies. Yuan Lan and Liu Ping (2018) fulfilled the research based on the research of the samples of the spontaneous dialogues and conversations selected from (ESCL) and found that Chinese English learners tend to employ the indirect refusal strategies when conducting communications. Wang (2018) analyzed the polite strategies in the media simultaneous interpreting to avoid the face threatening based on Goffman’s face work (Goffman, 1955) and Brown & Levinson’s face saving theory (Brown & Levinson, 1987).

Because of the lack of real English language learning environment, it is difficult for learners who learn English as a foreign language to master authentic English completely. Even if students with good academic performance communicate with people who use English as their native language, there will be communication obstacles, which is not necessarily due to the students’ poor spoken English. The politeness of speech act is related to the weak pragmatic competence of English language, so it is very important to improve students’ pragmatic communicative competence. Since fewer studies have been conducted on refusals, especially, in Chinese cultural context, this paper aims to investigate the refusal strategies the Chinese students adopt in certain situations and the differences between Chinese female and male students’ refusal strategies. Taking Guizhou University of Engineering Science as an example, this study attempts to make a contrastive study on the gender differences in English refusal strategies employed by female and male students majoring in English when they respond to the different refusal situations on the DCT (Discourse Completion Test) which was designed on the Survey Questionnaire sheet and analyzes whether the gender differences of English majors will affect the use of politeness in English refusal speech acts. The study attempts to explore the following research questions:

1. What refusal strategies do the Chinese students employ in this study?
2. Is there any difference of the refusal strategies employment between male and female students? If there is, what is the difference?
3. Do the refusal strategies that the female students/male students employ make face threatening?

II. METHOD

A. Participants

Fifty female students involved in this study were randomly selected from the junior college students majoring in English in Guizhou University of Engineering Science. Because there are few male students majoring in English in China, 14 out of 23 male English majors involved in this study come from the other colleges in Guizhou Province. The ages of the students are from 18 to 22 years old and most of them are Han, 9 girls and 4 boys are Yi, Hui, Buyi and Miao ethnic groups. Most of the students have learned English for 8 or 13 years. The number of students who graduated from rural schools and urban schools is almost the same; half of the students learned English in rural middle schools in China and another half in urban schools. Female students are Group 1 (Gr. 1) and male students are Group 2 (Gr.2).

B. Material

The participants will be provided with a Survey Questionnaire Sheet comprised of personal information survey and a Discourse Completion Test (DCT). As for personal information, the participants are asked to provide basic information (age, gender, course of study, and specific information including length of formal English learning). The Discourse Completion Test (DCT) is made up of ten prompts. It is likely that the response to the speech act of request seems to conduct the face threatening so that most of the prompts of situations except the invitation of Situation 10 in this study are involved in this study. All prompts are the specific speech acts that are the focus of the study – refusals. Each prompt is likely to occur in a university setting and all of them are listed in random order. Among the ten prompts, five of them are DCT form, the other 5 are multiple choice, considering offering some hints or help to the students with weak English to finish the DCT easily. The DCT format is modified from Sharyl Tanck’s (2004, p.20-22) by the researcher. (See Appendix 1)

C. Procedures

The participants were asked to write their personal information first anonymously. Then they were required to complete the DCT by writing what their oral response would be to each situation of the refusal speech act. They were encouraged to respond quickly, and not to carefully analyze their responses, to write their responses as soon as possible. Then the responses from all the participants were collected as data for analysis. The number of responses from female students (Gr.1) and the male students (Gr. 2) is calculated in percentage.
D. Data Analysis

Components of each speech act from the collected data will be analyzed. Speech act set of a refusal could consist of several individual speech act components such as a direct refuse (No, I can’t), an apology (I’m sorry I am afraid I can’t), a pity (Pity!; It’s pity!), an explanation or reason (I have lent it to the others.), a suggestion (What about …?) and so on. The number of the male students or female students who employ the refusal strategies was calculated for the percentage, and make a comparative analysis of the gender difference in refusal strategies. The refusal strategies employed by the participants will be also analyzed from the face threatening perspective. The refusal strategies were analyzed based on the taxonomy adapted from Beebe et. al. (1990, pp.72-73) (See Appendix 2).

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. Comparison of Employed Refusal Strategies

Fig. 1 shows the strategies that the male students and female students employ in their responses to the DCT related to the refusal politeness strategies. It attempts to provide the answer to the first research question: “What refusal strategies do the Chinese students employ in this study?”

It can be seen from Fig.1 that both female (Gr. 1) and male students (Gr. 2) adopt the refusal strategies in English refusal speech act, and the main strategies are direct refusal, indirect refusal and adjuncts. In this study, the strategies the students of both groups adopted the three kinds of refusal strategies. And the indirect refusal strategies involved in this study are dissuasion and reason, excuse of explanation, suggestion, promise, pity, apology, setting condition and adjuncts. From this figure, it is clear that dissuasion and reason, excuse of explanation and adjuncts seem to be the most favorite refusal strategies favored by both male students and female students. More than half of the responses from both groups to the Situation 1 concern the dissuasion and reason of refusal strategy. The students attempt to persuade their parents to give up their plan or request that they ask his or her child to do a job he or she does not like by providing a lot of reasons. Excuse of explanation is another strategy popular with the male students and female students. It may be due to the reason that when a speaker has to voice, he or she would say a lie rather than tell the true feeling or views (Brown and Levinson, 1987). Due to the reason that the students are taught to practice using them fluently since they began to learn English, it seems to be reasonable for most of the participants to employ adjuncts (I’d love to..., Pity! Thanks!), Fig.1 attempts to provide the answer to the first research question. On the contrary, the refusal strategies of promise and setting condition are avoided by the male students and female students. It seems to be possible that few of the students utilize the two strategies because the failure to keep a promise influence one’s credit or fame according to the Modesty Maxim (Leech, 1983) and the reason why only a few of the students use the strategy of setting condition may be the complexity of the subjunctive mood to make the students difficult to understand its usage and function.

B. Comparison of Gender Difference in Refusal Politeness Strategies

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Tab.1 shows the comparison of gender differences in refusal politeness strategies based on the number of the respondents in the given groups. It is clear that the great differences between the male students and the female student in refusal strategies. Tab.1 aims to satisfy the second research question: Is there any difference of the refusal strategies employment between male and female students? If there is, what is the difference?

It is demonstrated in Tab.1 that the indirect refusal strategy used by female students is significantly higher than that used by the male students, which indicates that the female students tend to use much more polite refusal strategies than the male students. In the employment of the indirect refusal strategies, there are also significant gender differences in the use of suggestion (74% for female and 21.7% for male), promise (26% for female and 8.7% for male), pity (84% for female and 34.8% for male), and apology (64% for female and 39.1% for male). As for the other refusal strategy such as dissuasion and reason, excuse of explanation, setting condition and adjuncts, the gender differences do not enlarge the gap between the male students and female students.

Tab.1 displays that there are significant gender differences in direct refusal and indirect refusal strategies. Only 20 percent of female students refuse directly, while 65 percent of male students used direct refusal strategies, which is significantly higher than girls. This may be resulted from the man’s supremacy in China because in Chinese traditional culture, a man has the authority or the power to make a decision directly (Cao, 2004). For Situation 1, the most of the male students say "no" directly to his parents, classmates and friends. When he was asked by his parents to accept the work they asked him to do, male students directly replied, "No, I don’t like the job. I’m not interested. They use such non-performative statements to express directly the negative willingness to make a refusal. However, the female students use persuasion and reasoning strategies to persuade their parents: “Mum, I see you just care for me, but I have grown up, I have to learn to be independent. So I would like to make a decision by myself. Anyway, thanks, Mum.”. The female students use address (Mum) and adjunctions such as ‘Thank you or thanks’ to narrow the distance from the hearer. As for the suggestion strategy, the number of the male students is quite lower than that of the female who accounts for 74% of the female participants, while the males only for 21.7%. Compared with the male students, the female students are more likely to refuse her roommate who asks her to go to the cafeteria to bring her food by promising to fetch the food, for example: "Ok, but I will go to the dining hall late. If you waited for me, I would fetch some for you. From the Tab.1, a conclusion can be reached that the female students tend to make more polite refusals than the male students. It can be explained from the psychology perspective that the females are very sensitive, gentle, soft, mild, sympathetic and considerate to the other’s feelings and behave very carefully not to hurt the others’ face (Wu, 2016).

### C. Face Threatening in Refusal Strategies

According to Brown and Levinson (1987), polite and euphemistic English refusal Strategy in the speech acts is the best way to avoid face threatening. The Face Saving Theory requires that all people who take part in communicative activities are Model Persons, who need to mind their own image and face. Marina Terkourafi (2015) explained that since the speech act of refusal is the most dangerous act to threaten directly the face of those involved in the communication, it is necessary to employ polite refusal semantic formula to reduce and avoid the face threatening to the participants in verbal communication activities to achieve the successful communication. Beebe et.al.(1990) claimed that the direct refusal should be avoided using in communicative activities, because the direct refusal directly uses "No, I can’t" to refuse the request, suggestion or invitation from those who participate in the communication, it directly hurt the hearer’s face. Therefore, in order not to threaten the face of the hearer, the speakers should try their best to use indirect refusal strategy and adjuncts in a refusal speech act to avoid or reduce the face threatening by expressing regret, providing suggestions, offering explanations and giving reasons, dissuasion and other indirect ways of refusal.

In this study, we can see from Tables 1 and 2 that there are significant gender differences in English refusal strategies. The results of this study indicate that a face threatening occur in refusal speech acts. It is observed in Fig.1 and Tab.1 that the female students rarely employ direct refusal strategies in communications, while 65% of the male students use direct refusal strategies. Therefore, the female students utilize appropriate refusal strategies to avoid the face threatening by the strategies of dissuasion and reasoning, explanation, giving reasons and promises and other refusal strategies, saving his/her own face as well as the hearers’. It is supposed that using more than one refusal strategy in one speech act

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category of Strategy</th>
<th>Group 1 %</th>
<th>Group 2 %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Direct refusal</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Persuasion and reason</td>
<td>86.0</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Excuse of explanation</td>
<td>88.0</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Suggestion</td>
<td>74.0</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promise</td>
<td>26.0</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pity</td>
<td>84.0</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apology</td>
<td>64.0</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Setting condition</td>
<td>56.0</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjuncts</td>
<td>88.0</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*The percentages in brackets show the number of respondents in a given group*
reaches effective politeness and avoid the face threatening. For example, in the multiple-choice task, the answer A is the direct refusal, answer B the indirect and answer C is much more indirect in Situation 7 where answer C contains pity strategy with an excuse or reason to express the speaker’s unwillingness to refuse and difficulty in compliance. The answer C seems the most politeness to save the listener’s face. The same way can be observed in the other four situations. According to John Searle (1969) and Geoffrey Leech (1983), the different syntactic forms convey the different meanings and different pragmatic strategies achieve politeness in a speech act. Hence, it is suggested by Erving Goffman (1955) and Brown and Levinson (1987) that in refusal speech acts the interlocutors attempt to employ the most euphemistic refusal strategies to avoid face threatening and make politeness to achieve the successful communication.

IV. Conclusion

The results of this study show that both male and female students adopt certain strategies in English refusal speech acts. The polite refusal strategies include direct refusal, indirect refusal and adjuncts. It is obvious that the different gender employs the different refusal strategies. Most of the female students tend to use indirect refusal strategies such as dissuasion and reason, excuse of explanation, suggestion, promise, pity, apology, setting condition and adjuncts while the male students are likely to utilize direct refusal strategy or less indirect refusal. It is the best policy for the interlocutors to attempt to employ the most euphemistic refusal strategies in refusal speech acts to avoid face threatening and make politeness to achieve the successful communication.

To some extent, this study makes a contribution to the domestic research on whether the gender differences of English majors affect the employment of English refusal strategies in the speech acts. There are some teaching implications for English learning and teaching to foster the improvement of the students’ pragmatic competence.

APPENDIX A

Survey Questionnaire Sheet
The DCT is modified from Sharyl Tanck’s (2004, p.20-22)
Thank you for your participation!
Age ___________ Gender ___________ Grade ___________
The years that you have been learning English ___________

Part I Answer the following questions in English according to the following situations. Please answer them promptly, not spending too much time thinking.

Situation 1. If your parents ask you to apply for the job that you do not like, what do you say to refuse to them?

Situation 2. Your girlfriend/or boyfriend asks you to have a meal together but you are still angry with her/him. What do you say to refuse him/her?

Situation 3. Your roommate asks you to lend him/her your laptop to play computer games a little while but you don’t want to lend him/her. What do you say to refuse him/her?

Situation 4. A classmate asks you to buy some food from the university canteen (学校餐厅) for him/her, if you don’t want to do that, what do you say to refuse him/her?

Situation 5. When you spend the weekend or holiday in your home, if your neighbor asks you to take care of her children, what do you say to refuse her/him?

Part II MULTIPLE CHOICE (Choose only one response to each situation.)

Situation 6: One friend of your brothers’ asks you to lend him some money to buy a new mobile phone. You would really prefer not to lend him. What would you say if you want to refuse?
A. No, I can’t.  B. Sorry, I’m afraid I can’t.
C. What about you asking him (your brother) to borrow some to you?

Situation 7: One day, one of your classmates comes to you to borrow your book card to borrow a book from your school. You do not really know him, and you worry that he cannot return the book. What would you say if you want to refuse?
A. No, I can’t.  B. Sorry, I’m afraid I can’t.
C. Pity! I’ve lent it to another classmate.
Situation 8: Your close friend asks you to help with his assignments. You have an important exam coming up. What would you say if you want to refuse?
A. Sorry, I’m afraid I couldn’t.
B. I would be happy to help you if I hadn’t too hard exam tomorrow.
C. Sorry, I’m really busy these days preparing for my exam.

Situation 9: Your teacher asks you to stay after school to help clean up his office. You really have many other things that you need to do. What would you say if you want to refuse?
A. Sorry, I’m afraid I can’t.
B. I wish I could.
C. Miss Wang, I’m afraid I can’t. I have something important to do during that time.

Situation 10: One day, your friend’s teacher (he does not know who you are) is playing basketball on the playground and catches sight of you walking by. He invites you to join him. What would you say if you want to refuse?
A. No, I’ve no interest.
B. Sorry, I’m afraid I couldn’t.
C. I’d love to but I am poor at playing at basketball.

APPENDIX. B

Taxonomy of Refusal Strategy adapted from Beebe et. al. (1990, pp. 72-73):

I. Direct
1. Using performative verbs (I refuse)
2. Non performative statement
   a. "No"
   b. Negative willingness/ability (I can’t./I won’t./I don’t think so)

II. Indirect
1. Statement of regret (I’m sorry...I feel terrible...)
2. Wish (I wish I could help you...)
3. Excuse, reason, explanation (My children will be home that night/I have a headache)
4. Statement of alternative
   a. I can do X instead of Y (I’d rather.../I’d prefer...)
   b. Why don’t you do X instead of Y (Why don’t you ask someone else?)
5. Set condition for future or past acceptance (If you had asked me earlier, I would have...)
6. Promise of future acceptance (I’ll do it next time/I promise I’ll.../Next time I’ll...)
7. Statement of principle (I never do business with friends.)
8. Statement of philosophy (One can’t be too careful.)
9. Attempt to dissuade interlocutor
   a. Threat or statement of negative consequences to the requester (I won’t be any fun tonight to refuse an invitation)
   b. Guilt trip (waitress to customers who want to sit a while: I can’t make a living off people who just order coffee.)
   c. Criticize the request/requester (statement of negative feeling or opinion; insult/attack (Who do you think you are?/That’s a terrible idea!)
   d. Request for help, empathy, and assistance by dropping or holding the request
   e. Let interlocutor off the hook (Don’t worry about it./That’s okay./ You don’t have to.)
   f. Self-defense (I’m trying my best./I’m doing all I can do.)

10. Acceptance that functions as a refusal
   a. Unspecific or indefinite reply
   b. Lack of enthusiasm

11. Avoidance
   a. Nonverbal
      i. Silence
      ii. Hesitation
      iii. Doing nothing
      iv. Physical departure
   b. Verbal
      i. Topic switch
      ii. Joke
      III. Repetition of part of request (Monday?)
      iv. Postponement (I’ll think about it.)
      v. Hedge (Gee, I don’t know./I’m not sure.)

III. Adjuncts to Refusals
1. Statement of positive opinion/feeling or agreement (That’s a good idea.../I’d love to...)

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2. Statement of empathy (I realize you are in a difficult situation.)
3. Pause fillers (uhh/well/oh/uhm)
4. Gratitude/appreciation

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Qiaoying Wang was born in Bijie of Guizhou, China. She received her M.A. degree in English Language Teaching from De La Salle University, the Philippines in 2005.

Analysis of Discourse from Perspective of Systemic Functional Grammar*

Xiaqing Li
Department of Minority Languages and Literatures, Minzu University of China, Beijing, China

Abstract—Firstly the author introduces Systemic Functional Grammar in this paper, including the levels of language and their realization relationships, the systems of the three metafunctions and their submetalfunctions, as well as the two levels of discourse analysis(DA). Then being based on different aspects of the systemic functional grammar, this paper analyzes the four discourses. Person system, mood and modality system, cohesion system in systemic function grammar are used in analysis of the first discourse “heal the world” which reveals some features of discourse of song. Understanding these characteristics can deepen understanding of the listener to the discourse of English song so as to improve the listener's ability to appreciate the song. When analyzing the other three discourses, the author uses the “context-text-commentary” method. Elaborate applicability of this linguistic theory to DA is the purpose. Finally, concluding that analysis of discourse with the systemic functional grammar analysis is not only a good way, but also it has very important significance.

Index Terms—Systemic Functional Grammar, levels of language, discourse analysis, method of analysis, person system

I. INTRODUCTION

After Huang Guowen successfully applied the framework of Systemic Functional Grammar to analyze advertising discourse and pointed out that “this grammar is more suitable for the analysis of discourse than any other linguistic frame”. (Huang Guowen, 2001) This is because the system itself is a discourse-functional grammar, and its grammatical category can be interpreted as the realization of the semantic paradigm, that is “its grammatical forms naturally associated with coding significance. (Halliday, 1994) This discourse grammar clearly describes the various levels of language and relations among them; this is because the grammar is used to illustrate how language is used, and that is “it offers the method of insight into the meaning of discourse and the effectiveness of discourse ; this is because the systematic functional grammar clearly describes three metafunction network systems of language, and as well as the concepts of their subsystems and possibility of the application of them; it also because it clearly outlines levels and steps of discourse analysis, and the application of this grammatical framework for analyzing discourse allows us to avoid making only subjective and casual comment on discourse. There are two purposes for writing this article: one is that “further demonstrate applicability of systematic functional grammar in discourse analysis; the other is that “propose a more practical method or procedure of application of this grammatical framework for analyzing discourse. The following the author will firstly discuss the main theoretical aspects of the systemic functional grammar: levels of language and the relationships among them (Halliday, 1994) and that "context - text - commentary" discourse analysis approach, and functions related to the system will be mentioned in the process of analysis; and finally illustrate the value of systemic functional grammar in terms of discourse analysis.

II. THEORETICAL REVIEW

A. Introduction to the Systemic Functional Grammar

Systemic functional grammar (SFG) is a form of grammatical description originated by Michael Halliday(Halliday, 2011). It is part of a social semiotic approach to language called systemic functional linguistics. In these two terms, systemic refers to the view of language as "a network of systems, or interrelated sets of options for making meaning"(Halliday, 1994); function refers to Halliday's view that language is as it is because of what it has evolved to do. Thus, what he refers to as the multidimensional architecture of language "reflects the multidimensional nature of human experience and interpersonal relations." (Halliday, 2003) (Systemic Functional Grammar. https://wenku.baidu.com/view/912fb66bf6ec4afe04a1b0717fd5360cbb1a8d43.html. accessed by 29/11/2017) Halliday describes his grammar as built on the work of Saussure, Louis Hjelmslev, Malinowski, J.R. Firth, and the Prague school linguists. In addition, he drew on the work of the American anthropological linguists Boas, Sapir and Whorf. His "main inspiration" was Firth, to whom he owes, among other things, the notion of language as system.(Halliday,1985) Among American linguists, Benjamin Lee Whorf had the most profound effect on my own

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thinking. Whorf "showed how it is that human beings do not all mean alike, and how their unconscious ways of meaning are among the most significant manifestations of their culture" (Halliday, 1985) (Halliday and His Systemic Functional Grammar. https://www.docin.com/touch/detail.do?id=1790286222&from=singlemessage. accessed by 29/11/2017) For Halliday, grammar is described as systems not as rules, on the basis that every grammatical structure involves a choice from a describable set of options. Language is thus a meaning potential. Grammarians in SF tradition use system networks to map the available options in a language. In relation to English, for instance, Halliday has described systems such as mood, agency, theme, etc. Halliday describes grammatical systems as closed, i.e. as having a finite set of options. By contrast, lexical sets are open systems, since new words come into a language all the time. (Halliday, 1961) These grammatical systems play a role in the construct of meanings of different kinds. This is the basis of Halliday's claim that language is metafunctionally organized. He argues that the raison d'être of language is meaning in social life, and for this reason all languages have three kinds of semantic components. All languages have resources for construing experience (the ideational component), resources for enacting humans' diverse and complex social relations (the interpersonal component), and resources for enabling these two kinds of meanings to come together in coherent text (the textual function). (Halliday, 1985) Each of the grammatical systems proposed by Halliday are related to these metafunctions. For instance, the grammatical system of 'mood' is considered to be centrally related to the expression of interpersonal meanings, 'process type' to the expression of experiential meanings, and 'theme' to the expression of textual meanings. Halliday refers to his functions of language as metafunctions. He proposes three general functions: the ideational metafunction, the interpersonal metafunction and the textual metafunction. The ideational metafunction is the function for construing human experience. (Systemic Functional Grammar. https://www.doc88.com/p-271407208775.html. accessed by 29/11/2017.) It reflects the contextual value of "field", that is, the nature of the social process in which the language is implicated. (Halliday, 1985) The interpersonal metafunction relates to a text's aspects of tenor or interactivity. Like field, tenor comprises three component areas: the speaker/writer/persona, social distance, and relative social statuses. (Halliday and His Systemic Functional Grammar. https://www.docin.com/touch/detail.do?id=1790286222&from=singlemessage. accessed by 29/11/2017) The textual metafunction relates to mode; the internal organization and communicative nature of a text. Systemic functional grammar grammar deals with all of these areas of meaning equally within the grammatical system itself. (Systemic Functional Grammar. https://wenku.baidu.com/view/94fd85370b42e3f1572763c6.html. accessed by 29/11/2017)

B. Introduction to Discourse Analysis

The approach of analysis developed in discourse analysis and discursive psychology has been partly a product of the conception of human action. This conception emphasis the following features— action orientation: Discourse is the primary medium of human action and interaction. Action are not merely free standing but are typically embedded in broader practices. Some actions are Generic (e.g. Making invitation) and some are specific to the settings ( e.g. Air traffic control management of flight crew). Action orientation discourages the expectation that analysis discovers a one

to one relationship between discrete acts and certain verbs. Situation – There are altogether three senses in which discourse is situated. First is the sequential organization so that the basic environment of what is being said is what has been said just before that, but this setup does not determine what is next to come. Second is the institutional location in which the tasks and identities of institution are relevant to what takes place. Third, it can be situated rhetorically, such that the descriptions may resist actual or potential attempts to counter them as interested. Construction – Discourse is constructive as well as constructed. It is constructed from various resources such as words, categories, commonplace ideas and broader explanatory systems. It is constructive in the sense that versions of the world, of events and actions, and of people's phenomenological worlds are built and stabilized in talk in the course of action. A person may explain not making an urgent call intentionally by saying that the number was unreachable or of his own faulty cognitive processing. Although these principles appear to be abstract but these are developed through analysis as well as theoretical practices. Rather than being the start, action orientation is often the endpoint of analysis. In action orientation to understand what is going on it is important to understand the talk in terms of the way it is situated. The rhetorical character of the talk is one of the features of discourse that is to be revealed through analysis. (Halliday and His Systemic Functional Grammar. https://www.docin.com/touch/detail.do?id=1790286222&from=singlemessage. accessed by 29/11/2017)

III. ANALYSIS OF DISCOURSE “HEAL THE WORLD”

A. Application of Person System in Analysis of Discourse “Heal the World”

There's a place in your heart  
And I know that it is love  
And this place could be much  
Brighter than tomorrow  
And if you really try  
You’ll find there’s no need to cry  
In this place you’ll feel  
There’s no hurt or sorrow
There are ways to get there  
If you care enough for the living  
Make a little space  
Make a better place ...  
Heal the world  
Make it a better place  
For you and for me  
And the entire human race  
There are people dying  
If you care enough for the living  
Make it a better place......  (Heal the World There’s a Place in Your Heart and I know that It Is.  

The lyrics above are just a part of “Heal the world”. Application of the person system in the lyric discourse is widespread, and its implementation mainly depends on the person pronoun system. The author statistics that situation of application of the person pronoun in the lyric discourse “Heal the World”, and find that uses of the first-person pronoun in the lyrics are eighteen times, and uses of the second person pronoun are eleven times, and uses of the third-person pronouns are six times. We can see that uses of the first and second person in the lyrics are clearly dominant. Below the author will discuss usage of person pronoun in the specific lyrics “Heal the world”.

a. The use of the first-person pronoun in analysis of “Heal the World”

There appears several first-person pronouns such as “I”, “we”, “our”, “us”, “me”, “my” in lyrics. Usage of “We” is the highest frequency, and there has been ten times; followed by is “me”, which appears twice. “I” and “my” each appear twice. “our” and “us” each appear once. Such as: “We could fly so high” “Let our spirits never die” “In my heart I feel you are all my brothers” “Love’s enough for us growing”. (“Heal the World” There’s a Place in Your Heart and I know that It Is, http://www.docin.com/p-441700256.html. accessed by 29/11/2017.) We can see that creators use “we” many times, and they are trying to take every listener into the song, and let them feel that they are a part of it, and they speaks their own affairs, and make them immures in this feeling. So they are inspired by passion in their hearts. They take some actions to protect the earth and to save their homes.

b. The use of the second-person pronoun in analysis of “Heal the World”

There appears the two second-person pronouns “you” and “your” in lyrics, where “you” appears 10 times, and “your” appears once. Such as: “There’s a place in your heart” “In this place you’ll feel there’s no hurt or sorrow”. The use of the second person pronoun allows the listener to feel intimate relationship, introducing them into specific scenarios of lyrics; they do not consciously equate themselves to “you” in a song in the process of listening to music. So they can more actively ground into the atmosphere of lyrics.

c. The use of the third person pronoun in analysis of “Heal the World”

“it” and “their” are the third person pronouns used in the lyrics of this song, such as: “Heal the world” “Make it a better place” “Together we’ll cry happy tears” “see the nations turn theirs words into plowshares”. The third person pronoun in this song is mainly used to refer to thing, and including former reference and backing reference. In the later analysis of cohesion system used in the lyrics it will be specifically explained.

B. The Use of Mood System in Analysis of “Heal the World”

Halliday believes that there are two kinds of basic role of language: giving and requirements (Halliday, 1994: 68). Lyrics of charity song may reflect the two roles of languages. On one hand the listener is given the message of lyrics; on the other hand, the listener is required to take action to respond to the call. These two effects of charity song is closely linked to the mood system. Tone system is an effective tool for discourse analysis of lyrics. The author inspects mood system mainly from the perspective of syntactic and focuses on statement mood, question mood, and imperative mood in the lyrics. Through analysis I found statement mood and the imperative mood are mainly used in this lyrics of song, and interrogative mood is used only for once. “There's a place in your heart And I know that it is love” “Heal the world” “Make it a better place” “Then why do we keep strangling life” “wound this earth, Crucify its soul”? (“Heal the World” There’s a Place in Your Heart and I know that It Is. http://www.docin.com/p-441700256.html. accessed by 29/11/2017) Declarative mood, imperative mood and interrogative mood are respectively used in three sentences. “Heal the World” is a song about charity, so the creator mainly uses indicative mood to tell the listener that his deep concern about this state of the world, and sketches out a better world to make the language more persuasive. In the whole song use of imperative mood greatly enhances the appeal of the song. Which can evoke a sense of responsibility in mind of listeners, and make them act to create a better world for people around the world. The lyric which uses interrogative mood not only can express thoughts and feelings of creators but also allows listeners to reflect on their behaviors and realize the truth.

C. The Use of Cohesion System in Analysis of “Heal the World”

Halliday divides cohesion into grammatical cohesion and lexical cohesion. Grammatical cohesion can be divided into coordinate, omissions, substitutions and connection. Lexical cohesion can be divided into repetition, synonym / antonym, hyponymy /part-whole relationship and collocation. (Zhuanglin Hu, 2005) The author will analyze lyrics of
this song from aspects of coordination, connection and repeat. Coordination can be divided into two types: inner reference and outer reference. Inner reference can be divided into former reference and backing reference. Coordination: Coordination often appears in English lyric discourse. Such as: “Heal the world” “Make it a better place” “And the dream we were conceived in will reveal a joyful face” (“Heal the World” There’s a Place in Your heart and I know that it is. http://www.docin.com/p-441700256.html. accessed by 29/11/2017.) In the above example the case ten is the former reference, and the case eleven is the backing reference. In the case of ten “it” refers to “the world”; in the case eleven “the dream” refers to the dream in our hearts. We can see that the use of coordination in the lyrics can make structure perfect and cohesion natural. Connection: There are a lot of conjunctions in English lyrics, which can not only make the songs become colloquial, but also make the song becomes smooth and consistency. For example: “We stop existing and start living” “Then it feels that always” The conjunction “then” is used in the case twelve, which makes cohesion of lyrics become coherent naturally and contacts sentences perfectly, so that the creator can express thoughts and feelings better. Repeat: The device “repeat” is often used in English lyrics. For example: “So make a better world” “Make a better world”. The device “repeat” is used in lyrics. On one hand it can make melodies of lyrics beautiful, on the other hand it can deepen the theme of song and deepen the impression of listener to the song

IV. ANALYSIS OF DISCOURSE “THE MIDDLE EASTERN BAZAAR”

Discourse: The Middle Eastern Bazaar takes you back hundred-even thousand-of years. The one I am thinking of particularly is entered by a Gothic arched gate way of aged brick and stone. You pass from the heat and glare of a big, open square into a cool, dark cavern which extends as far as the eye can see, losing itself in the shadowy distance. Little donkeys with harmonious tinkling bells thread their way among the throngs of people entering and leaving the bazaar. The road way is about twelve feet wide, but it is narrowed every few yards by little stalls where goods of every conceivable kind are sold. The din of the stall holders crying their wares, of donkey boys and porters clearing a way for themselves by shouting vigorously, and of would be purchasers arguing and bargaining is continuous and makes you dizzy. (The first paragraph) (Mei Renyi & Wang Lili, 1995) (The Middle Eastern Bazaar http://www.doc88.com/p-9495492730979.html)

Objective analysis of discourse: see features of discourse from type of transitive verb process. Variables of situation context: Language Course: description of the Middle East market and activities on market; Tenor: The largest social distance between author and reader; language style: writing style of formal English. Analysis of types of transitive verb process: Transitivity system: There are six processes: physical process, mental process, verbal process, existential process, relational process; physical process can be subdivided into action process and event process. (Halliday, 1994):

A. Analysis of Type of Verb Process in Discourse

There are total of 21 verbs in this discourse. There are eleven material processes: the action process is used to describe actions as “entered”, “pass”, “leaving”, “losing”, “narrowed”, “thread their way”, “sold”; five verbal processes are used to describe noisy sound in market such as “din”, “shouting”, “bargaining”, “crying”, “arguing”; three relational processes are used to describe characteristics of the appearance and atmosphere of the market such as “is”, “makes”; two mental processes are used to reflect the author’s opinions about it such as “see” and “thinking of”.

B. Comment on the Discourse

The material process, action process, and verbal process are dominant in discourse, which is the main stylistic features of this discourse; in addition, because of the great social distance between the author and readers, and the formal writing in English, therefore some forms of the present participle of verbs are used. Twenty one verb processes, their participants and environmental factors are used to describe the characteristics of the Middle East market: a large of people and donkeys walk on the market, and in the bazaar people are busy in doing business, which is full of cries and bargaining sound of buyers and sellers. All in all these processes successfully reveals atmosphere full of vibrant and noisy sound here. Which is semantic characteristics of this discourse.

V. ANALYSIS OF DISCOURSE “BLACKMAIL”

Duchess: “We will not pay you.” (modulation: inclination: insisting)
Ogivile: “Listen, lady...”
Duchess: “I will not listen. (modulation: inclination: insisting) You will listen to me.” (modulation: obligation: required).
Duchess: We will not pay you ten thousand dollars. But we will pay you twenty thousand dollars (modulation: inclination: insisting).

Discourse Analysis Objective: To observe personality traits of the Duchess from the modality; Situation context variables: Language Course: events of blackmailing, crashing, and escaping: the accident car drives on the north and bargain; Tenor: The Duchess and who is a restaurant scout; The duchess is a noble, who has a high social status, while Ogivile has a low social status. They have the largest social distance; Language style: dialogue between Duchess and restaurant scout, and Colloquial English;
A. Modality Component Analysis of Discourse

Modality system: There are two options: the tendency or obligatory, there are three different levels of choice: high, medium, low. They are used to represent the speaker's attitude toward things. Modality component analysis of discourse: There are six components used to represent modality, such as “will”, “will not”, if other eight modality components associated with this discourse included in this text such as “want” “must” “never” intended, “decisively”. There are a total of 14 components used to represent modality, and these components are used to represent restaurant scout’s blackmail attitudes towards the event of the duchess and her husband’s car crash and escape.

B. Comments on the Discourse

Extensive use of the modality components are stylistic features of this discourse. These modality components show that the duchess's imposing personality and the dominant share in the process of bargaining with restaurant scout. restaurant scout spotted her and her husband’s behavior of escaping the car crash and wanted to blackmail ten thousand US dollars, but to his surprise, the Duchess said that she must give him twenty thousand Us dollars, but the condition is that they will drive their car to the north to escape police chase. Her condescending tone of command makes the restaurant scout gradually in a passive position. It can be clearly seen that “I, we will” and “you will” are suitable for haughty temperament of the duchess and very suitable for her attitude towards people because she is from a noble family. Her identity makes her not be at a disadvantage in any case. Therefore, the ingenious use of these modality components has successfully portrayed the smart character of Duchess, suggesting that she will be stronger than the restaurant scout in this bargain.

VI. ANALYSIS OF DISCOURSE “THE SOUND OF MUSIC”

Discourse: (Sister Margaretta Tells Maria that she is expected by the Reverend Mother in her office. Maria follows her in.)

Reverend Mother: You’ve been unhappy, I’m sorry.

Maria: Reverend Mother.

R.M.: Why did they send you back to us?

Maria: They didn’t send me back. Mother. I left.

R.M.: Sit down, Maria. Tell me what happened.

Maria: Well, I...I was frightened. R.M.: Frightened? Were they unkind to you? Maria: Oh, no. I was confused. I felt...I never felt that way before. I couldn’t stay—and I knew if I would be away from it, I’ll be safe.

R.M.: Maria, our Abbey is not used to be as an escape. What is it that you can’t face?

Maria: I can’t face him again. R.M.: Him? (To Sister Margaretta) Thank you, Sister Margaretta. (Sister Margaretta leaves the room.) Captain Von Trapp? Are you in love with him?

Maria: I don’t know, I don’t know. The Baroness said I was. She said that he was in love with me, but I didn’t want to believe it. Oh, there were times when we looked at each other: Oh, Mother, I could hardly breathe.

R.M.: Did you let him see how you felt?

Maria: If I did, I didn’t know it. That’s what’s been torturing me. I was there on God’s errand. To have asked for his love would have been wrong. I couldn’t stay. I just couldn’t. I am ready at this moment to take my vows. Please help me.

R.M.: Maria, the love of a man and a woman is holy too. You have a great capacity to love. What you must find out is how God wants you to spend your love.

Maria: But I’ve pledged my life to God. I’ve pledged my life to his service.

R.M.: My daughter, if you love this man, it doesn’t mean you love Godless. Now you must find out. You must go back.

Maria: Oh, Mother, you can’t ask me to do that. Please let me stay. I beg you.

R.M.: Maria, these walls were not built to

Shut out problems. You have to face them. You have to live the life you were born to live. (Then sings the song “Climb Every Mountain”) (FangYanetal.2001:829)

Objective Analysis of Discourse: Observe how the Reverend Mother persuades Maria to return to captain von Trapp and the Reverend Mother's personality traits from perspective of use of the mood and modality. Situation context variables: Language Course: Maria comes back to monastery and Reverend Mother talks to her;

Tenor: Maria had resigned and was no longer a tutor. She hopes to become a nun. The Reverend Mother is a bit elderly, who held the highest office in the monastery; the nuns in monastery seem to live in a big family, and there are social distance between them but relatively close; Language style: dialogue between Maria and the Reverend Mother, colloquial English;

A. Mood and Modality Analysis of Discourse

Mood system: there are differences between an indicative mood and imperative mood at the first level. If you choose indicative mood, you can further choose narrative mood or question mood. If you choose imperative mood, you may further choose whether it includes speakers or not. In each case the speaker and the hearer play different roles, and they are responsible for different social functions, as shown in Following Mood and modality of discourse analysis: During this conversation the Reverend Mother uses two imperative sentences such as “Sit down, please”. “Tell me what
happened”, and eight interrogative sentences. Modal verb are used for the five times in the discourse, Including “must” which is used for three times, and “have to” which is used for two times.

B. Comments on the Discourse

Imperative sentences, a lot of interrogative sentences, and modal verbs are used in discourse, which are the stylistic features of the discourse. Reverend Mother uses two imperative sentences and eight interrogative sentences. Maria is the performer to actions and the respondent to issues, indicating that social status of these two people who participated in the dialogue is not the same: Reverend Mother is dean of monastery, who has the great powers; Maria is a trainee nun, who is at a lower position. Through two moods Reverend Mother controls the content and direction of their dialogue. Through these eight questions she knows the Maria’s psychology activities and understand the cause of her distress.

This is language function of these two moods in discourse. At the same time they are living in the monastery where seems a large family, so they are relatively close to each other, for example they call each other “mother” and “daughter”. Maria told Reverend Mother secrets of her love with Von Trapp. Thus we can say that because of uses of the two moods and the related vocabulary the author successfully portrays the characters and qualities of a dir of monastery, who is kind and has a wealth of experience. In addition uses of imperative moods and modal verbs “must” “have to” i reveals another meaning of the dialogue: Although Reverend Mother’s words are very friendly, but her words have the authority. Her voice makes Maria felt that she was speaking on behalf of God, and therefore she must obey the will of God to come back to the Von Trapp.

VII. CONCLUSION

Through analysis of several different discourse, we can draw two conclusions: firstly, Through the analysis the author found that the appropriate use of person system and mood system can shorten the distance between creators and listeners to raise so as to improve nature of dialogue of discourse; appropriate use of cohesion can make the transition of discourse become natural so as to help creators to better express thoughts and feelings. In short, the systemic functional grammar provides a viable theoretical framework for discourse analysis. Halliday's Systemic Functional Grammar framework can be used to reveal the deeper meaning of the discourse. It also can be used to understand and explain the semantics of discourse and stylistic features, which is not only very important for the interpretation and appreciation of discourses, but also it has practical value on the English teaching of reading comprehension; secondly, “context - text - comment” mode of systemic functional linguistics used to analyze discourse is feasible. Explore it has some practical significance.

REFERENCES


Xiaqing Li is a Doctor degree candidate in the Department of Minority Languages and Literature at Minzu University of China in capital city Beijing, in China, where she is pursuing her Doctor’s degree in linguistics and applied linguistics. Her research interests include computational linguistics, and applied linguistics.
Research on Teaching Mode Construction of ESP Course for Textile Engineering Based on Production-oriented Approach

Jin Zhu Zhang
School of Humanity, Tianjin Polytechnic University, Tianjin, China

Abstract—In order to overcome the disadvantages of "separation of learning and using" in foreign language teaching in China, Professor Wen Qiu Fang and her team have put forward their theoretical and practical achievements of POA (Production-oriented Approach) after more than ten years of research and exploration. The Production-oriented Approach conforms to the reality of foreign language teaching in China in the aspects of teaching concepts, teaching hypothesis, and teaching process jumps out of the dilemma of needs analysis and passes through the theory of second language acquisition and the practice of foreign language teaching. It has profound theoretical and practical guiding significance for language teaching at colleges and universities in China. This paper, based on the introduction of POA theory and the current ESP teaching research achievements in China, combining with the practice of English ESP teaching for majors of textile engineering at Tianjin Polytechnic University, attempts to construct a set of feasible ESP teaching mode for the major of textile engineering based on POA (Production-oriented Approach).

Index Terms—POA, ESP teaching, textile engineering majors, ESP teaching mode construction

I. INTRODUCTION

Textile engineering is an important professional division in the higher education system of China, which has made great contributions to the training of textile talents and the development of the national textile industry. It has also made indelible contributions to the development of national foreign exchanges reserves and international trade for a long time. However, under the new situation, the textile industry in China is facing great challenges from many aspects at home and abroad, which objectively forces the talent training system of textile colleges and universities in China to reform in order to adapt to the changing situation at home and abroad under the situation of informatization and internationalization. At present, there are more than 15 colleges and universities featuring with the major of textile engineering in China. In 2018, the Ministry of Education announced the list of "double first-class" colleges and universities, and two universities, Donghua University, and Tianjin Polytechnic University were listed in the "double first-class" disciplinary construction. With the gradual deepening and promotion of "double first-class" construction, the reform of talent training system and curriculum construction is also gradually deepening. College English teaching, as an important part of the international talent training system, is also facing important development opportunities and great challenges. How to better support the cultivation of international talents in the field of language teaching and language service is an important and critical topic that requires every college English teacher involved to study urgently. Based on Professor Wen Qiu Fang’s POA teaching theory, combined with the college English teaching reform under the Double First-class disciplinary construction project of textile engineering at Tianjin Polytechnic University, this paper takes the ESP teaching of textile engineering as a breakthrough, and probes into how to construct a new teaching mode of ESP for the major of textile engineering in order to contribute to the cultivation of students’ language ability under the background of a broader sense of textile engineering.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. An Analysis of the Present Situation of College English Teaching

At present, English teaching in China is at the crossroads of reform. Since the reform and opening up of China in the 1970s, international exchanges have become more and more frequent, and the social expectation of college students’ English application ability is getting higher and higher. College English teaching has been criticized for “the separation of learning and using” and its time-consuming and inefficient teaching. The voice of compressing in-class teaching hours and reducing the credit has been constantly heard nationally, and some universities have made it a reality. As the basis of college English, middle school English teaching is also undergoing various reforms, and the socialization of college entrance examination has opened the prelude to the reform of English teaching system.

The implementation of any teaching activity must be based on needs analysis, which is an important guarantee of the effectiveness of the teaching effect (Wang, 2004). The theory of curriculum theory also points out that there are three bases for formulating and revising curriculum objectives: students’ development needs, social development needs and
disciplined development needs. Students’ demands have diversified obviously along with the polarized English levels among freshmen, and the gap of high-level foreign language talents needed by Chinese enterprises to be globalized is also widening (Zhao, 2017). The EFL concept, which has always been followed in English teaching, basically takes British English and American English as the criteria for evaluating learners’ success or failure, while neglecting the effectiveness and ideological nature of communication, resulting in low learning efficiency.

In recent years, with the cross-border integration of big data, cloud computing, Internet of things and mobile Internet, human life has entered the Internet era. At the same time, college English teaching is also greatly influenced by the Internet. The Internet provides a broader ecological environment and richer ecological elements for English education (Ye, 2017). Meanwhile, the traditional teacher-student relationship has also been subverted by Internet education. The flipped classroom can reflect the advantages of mixed learning, and help to build a new type of teacher-student relationship, which is a way to promote the effective use of resources (He, 2014). Among many media, Wechat has become an important education medium in the era of the Internet plus. More than 85% of students spend an hour a day on Wechat, 78% of students use Wechat as a learning tool; more than 65% of students develop the habit of learning English on Wechat (Chen, 2016). Sun Xianhong (2017) explores the ESP flipped classroom design from the perspective of multi-literacy training and tries to construct the ESP flipped classroom teaching mode based on the multi-literacy training framework, and proves its feasibility and effectiveness through empirical research.

At the same time, the Massive Open Online Courses (MOOCs) has attracted wide attention in the international arena, becoming a hot topic in the field of education, widely used in the field of college English teaching, has increased the interest and diversity of language teaching.

However, even if a variety of teaching modes and methods emerge in an endless stream, the challenges facing college English teaching are still obvious. Wen Qiufang (2012) believes that the current college English teaching cannot meet the three levels of needs: student development needs; social development needs, subject development needs. As a result, the division of foreign language proficiency among freshmen has been intensified, and high-level foreign language talents with international perspectives are seriously deficient. Liu Chongxin (2016) conducts a questionnaire survey of 6,000 undergraduate students and graduates on the learning needs and the effectiveness of college English teaching. The results show that more than 60% of the subjects believe that the college English class does not help to improve their English ability, the teaching mode is dull and the teaching efficiency is low.

B. POA Teaching Concept

Numerous English education experts and professors have long been committed to solving the problems in the traditional college English teaching modes in China, and have achieved greatly. The college English teaching concept and teaching mode have been greatly improved. Various distinctive teaching concepts and patterns emerge endlessly, which has achieved satisfactory results and has been proved effective in teaching practice. All these achievements are helpful to solve the fundamental problem of “what to teach and how to teach”, which is a fundamental problem in the reform of college English teaching in China. It has greatly stimulated the teaching motivation of “facing the society, integrating into the society, serving the society”, which is more helpful to break the backward cultivation tradition of college English teaching and high self-enclosure of the field.

At present, among these new teaching concepts and modes, POA developed by Professor Wen Qiufang’s team is a sound teaching mode with the complete theoretical system, which is characterized by easy acceptance by teachers and students, and good feedback in teaching practice. Prof. Wen Qiufang, from China’s Foreign Language Education Center of Beijing Foreign Studies University, leads the research group to propose a series of educational theories with Chinese characteristics. POA is one of the most influential achievements of the research group, the theoretical system and implementation path of POA has been basically formed after ten years of research and numerous teaching practices by Professor Wen’s team.

The POA theoretical system consists of three parts: concept (learning-centered theory, learning integration, whole-person education), hypothesis (production-driven, input facilitation, selective learning) and teacher-mediated teaching process (driving force, promotion, evaluation) (Wen, 2015). Compared with the existing western teaching theories, the “prescription of traditional Chinese medicine” issued by POA for the “separation of learning and using” is both clearly targeted and systematic. The purpose is to enable students to “learn through using, use by learning, and achieve through learning” (Wen, 2017). POA concept, covering all aspects of teaching (driving-promoting-evaluating), is systematically interlocked among each procedure and is plausible for teachers to implement teaching practice.

POA consists of three parts. Teaching concept in the first part serves as guiding ideology for the teaching, and hypothesis in the second part and the teaching process in the third part determine the general direction and overall goal of the classroom teaching. The specific POA theoretical system is shown below:
TABLE 1: PROFESSOR WEN’S POA THEORETICAL SYSTEM (WEN, 2014)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Levels</th>
<th>Production-oriented Approach</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teaching Concept</td>
<td>Learning-centered; Learning-using combined; Whole-person education;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching Hypothesis</td>
<td>Input-driven; Input-motivated; Selective learning; Learning through evaluation;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching procedures</td>
<td>Motivation-driven force ↔ Facilitation ↔ Evaluation (Teacher-leading)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

C. Literature Review of ESP Teaching Research

Teaching content is the main medium for teaching activities and students to acquire knowledge. What to teach and how to teach is a fundamental issue in the reform of English disciplines and college English teaching (Wang, 2010). CBI (content-based instruction) and ESP (English for special purposes) are the reform direction of college English teaching content, which can achieve the goal of “knowledge construction, thinking training and English skills improvement” (Sun, 2011). At the same time, college English teaching in different types of colleges should have their own characteristics, avoiding the “one-size-fits-all” teaching modes, and generating power through unleashing its own university specialty (Kong, 2014).

ESP teaching has become the development direction of college English teaching reform (Cai, 2018). Cai Jigang and Chen Yuyang (2013) conduct a questionnaire survey among students from 24 universities in Shanghai and find that nearly 80% of new students choose to use English as a tool to learn and exchange professional information and enhance their international communication skills in their own fields. 60% of freshmen have targeted college English learning in “the ability to improve their disciplinary learning in English (such as: having access to academic literature in English, listening to lectures and presentations, etc.)”. More than 83% of freshmen hope to “read the English academic literature”.

Cai Jigang (2015) believes that ESP teaching is the only effective way to continue to improve students' English proficiency at the university levels. Yang Feng (2013) believes that: under the premise of ensuring the core position of general English teaching, each university and college should cautiously decide whether to open ESP courses according to the levels of school running, the type of personnel training, the professional requirements, employment needs, and ESP teaching resources. Wang Junkai (2015) studies the application of educational information technology in ESP teaching. Liu Mei (2013) studies and explores the continuum model of college English teaching based on ESP curriculum system, in which, basic English, general English, and ESP courses are integrated into one, taking into account many factors such as teachers, students, tasks, and the environment in teaching. Guo Yanling (2015) discusses the role of ESP teachers from the perspective of teacher professional development. Ren Rongzheng (2012) uses the 5W+1H analysis method and analyzes the factors, such as purpose, content, method, teacher, task and other factors of ESP teaching based on the teaching practice of Western Medicine English. Wu Wenquan (2014) studies and explores the ESP teaching based on "MOOC Phenomenon".

The experts and scholars above have carried out analysis and research on the feasibility of ESP teaching, the concept of ESP teaching mode and many factors in teaching. There is strong guidance for future ESP teaching research, but little research and discussion is done based on a certain professional direction. Moreover, the research puts forward conceptual guidance on the teaching and development of the curriculum from a macro perspective, but the discussion is not enough from the micro-operational level.

Based on the author's ESP teaching practice of textile engineering and many other factors such as environment and evaluation mechanism considered, this paper attempts to construct a practical ESP teaching mode for textile engineering by taking POA (Production-Oriented Approach) research achievements as the theoretical foundation, combining with the actuality of the university's English curriculum reform in textile engineering, thus to explore a feasible way for ESP teaching of engineering majors.

III. RESEARCH DESIGN

In this part, the author intends to construct an ESP teaching mode of textile engineering based on POA.

A. Analysis of Related Factors

The construction of any teaching mode must be based on the consideration of relevant factors that affect teaching production. Then, it is expected to seek an effective balance between the variables, and ultimately achieve an effective output. ESP teaching is no exception. This paper analyzes the relevant factors from the aspects of needs analysis, general English courses, and major characteristics.

1 Students’ Needs Analysis

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To decide whether the teaching mode and teaching method are appropriate, the most important factor is to judge whether it can meet the students’ learning needs (Liu, 2016). The implementation of any teaching activities must be based on the needs analysis, which is an important guarantee for the effectiveness of teaching effectiveness (Wang, 2004). College English teaching is bound to go without a trace if one fails to understand, reflect and meet the demand (Kong, 2014). It can be seen that the analysis of learner needs is the first step in formulating all teaching modes, and it is also the necessary condition for testing whether the teaching mode is effective or not.

However, the author believes that the analysis of college students' English learning needs should also be cautious and rational. Cai Jigang (2010) believes that the objects of needs analysis should be placed at both ends of English learners and English speakers because students' needs have certain blindness and short-sighted utilitarianism. This kind of blindness can't be attributed to the students themselves. Under the long-term test-oriented education mechanism, many students are susceptible to get used to the test-driven force as the basic and only driving force for language learning. Liu Chongxi (2016) conducts a questionnaire survey of 5,692 undergraduate and graduate students on their learning needs. The research results show that “examination needs” accounts for the highest proportion, more than 70%. In terms of English ability and skill demand, the demand for listening ability is higher than other items. The author analyzes that listening comprehension in the academic tests occupies a considerable proportion regardless of the standardized test at home and abroad.

As part of the ESP teaching mode research, the author designs a questionnaire on three aspects: English learning motivation, demand status and language ability that one hopes to improve. The author did a survey of 260 undergraduate students in the School of Textile Engineering at Tianjin Polytechnic University. Among the 260 respondents, 172 students belonged to the College English Class (the 3rd level of college English), and the remaining 88 students, who had successfully passed the CET Band 4 & 6 in advance, belonged to classes of the optional English courses for the advanced levels. The results of the questionnaire for 172 students showed that “English for examination needs” took the highest proportion of learning, 89.5%; the second was personal literacy, which was 35.6%; the last was the career development needs with the only proportion of 26.4%.

The result shows: Firstly, for students with relatively weak English proficiency, the exam is still the first driving force, and more students cannot see the connection between English and future career development, cannot see the future career development that language learning can bring; secondly, Cai Jigang (2010) believes that ESP course teaching is to help students develop their abilities of reading academic literature, listening, speaking and speaking skills required for the full-English programs. However, the cultivation of this ability should be based on the basic situation of students' English, otherwise, it will lead to low production and low efficiency.

The other 88 questionnaires showed completely different results: “their career development needs” accounted for the highest proportion of 87.9%; “personal literacy increase” was the second place with 67.5%; “exam needs” accounted for the lowest proportion of 34.2%; in terms of “the ability that are hoped to improve”, the highest proportion was expression ability, accounting for 84.5%; which was followed by “academic literature reading and specialized English learning”, accounting for 64.7%. This result shows that:

I. students with good English foundation are more likely to connect their own development with English learning in the future. The demand for academic development is the first motivation for English learning, and students have expanded their disciplinary vision through English learning to enhance their future career. The demand for development;

II. In non-key universities such as Tianjin Polytechnic University, the teaching of ESP courses must be proceeded from reality and with certain requirements for the student foundation, the 2nd year should be the best teaching period when students have successfully pass the CET Band 4 & 6.

III. Time-consuming and inefficient college English teaching must be changed. For all undergraduates, the basic English courses for the preparation of the 4th and 6th grades can no longer meet the students' individualized language learning needs, nor can they meet the goal of international talent training. CBI (content-based instruction) and ESP (English for specific purposes) presently are the reform direction of English teaching content in colleges and universities (Sun, 2011).

2 Analysis of ESP Course Content

Kong Deliang (2014) believes that ESP textbooks should be based on specialized content, which can shorten the distance between college English and students’ majors so that students can truly feel the roles of college English to acquire specialized knowledge and generate English learning motivation. However, a real ESP teaching, in essence, is language ability teaching rather than content teaching (Cai, 2010). At present, a large number of specialized English textbooks from domestic publishers attempt to systematically introduce the subject contents of certain specialty, which is not a true ESP textbook. Such textbooks scare off a large number of college English teachers who are willing to engage in ESP teaching, making them think that “ESP teaching is a bilingual course teaching, which should not be taken up by college English teachers (Yin, 2011). The key to successful ESP is language learning skills rather than their specialized skills, which is the most lacking of students and the focus of ESP teaching (Jordan, 1997). Therefore, Cai Jigang (2014) believes that ESP classroom teaching should focus on language skills rather than disciplinary knowledge. Language teachers can be competent in ESP teaching as long as they have some basic knowledge in terms of professionalism. Therefore, the content of ESP classroom teaching should be academic lectures, explanatory texts and
effective evaluation mechanism; the open questions should be used instead of the objective questions to test the ability of mutual evaluation is also the process of learning and discussing with each other. The process of teacher-student mutual evaluation and peer-to-peer evaluation is different from the traditional evaluation mechanism at college English classroom. And the guidance of teachers plays a key role in the evaluation. The process of evaluation forms,

At present, college English teaching at the university adopts the combination of general English plus English optional skills development courses. The latter courses are generally targeted for students who have passed the CET Band-4. Subject to the shortage of teachers, these courses are limited to courses such as Audio-visual English, communicative oral English, and selective English newspaper reading, etc., all of which are designed to improve English language proficiency. According to the statistics on satisfaction degree of the courses in the survey, 27.5% of the students surveyed expressed satisfaction with the courses, and 67.7% of the students thought that the courses did not help the English ability improvement and specialty study, and just help to obtain credits and complete the course study; 75.6% of respondents believe that courses such as academic literature reading that is helpful for academic learning should be offered.

With the advancement of college English teaching reform in China, based on the author's investigation and research and the needs of the school's "double first-class" construction, the author believes that the establishment of ESP curriculum is the general trend and the inevitable demand for cultivating professionals with an international vision.

3 Analysis of the Leading Role of Teachers

Due to the influence of Western teaching theories, the role of teachers has been marginalized in the past 20 years (Wen, 2014). Teachers are only seen as facilitators, consultants, and helpers. POA believes that in addition to providing support and help for teachers, it is more important for teachers to play a leading role in the entire teaching process. Teachers should be the designers, organizers, leaders, and commanders of classroom teaching. Students are the main body of learning activities. Teachers can't replace students' learning, but in classroom learning, teachers play a leading role in how to make students actively participate in effective learning. In ESP classroom teaching, the leading role of teachers and the main role of students should be fully reflected and played. As a deepening and extending of students' academic learning, ESP is a huge challenge for both students and teachers. In ESP teaching, emphasis on the leading role of teachers does not necessarily mean to deny the subject status of students, but to give full play to the professional leading role of teachers. To maximize learning achievements, the professionalism and teaching experience of English teachers should be responsible for the quality of teaching.

At present, the research on the role of teachers in ESP teaching in China is still insufficient. Hu Pingping (2016) conducts a case study on the role of teachers in implicit courses. This study has a certain revelation and implication on the role of teachers in ESP classrooms and teaching methods. Zheng Yuqi (2014) studies the role of teachers in foreign language teaching in the post-method era. He points out that foreign language education in China has entered the post-method era, where a traditional knowledge transfer is no longer the main task of teachers. The teachers provide timely assistance when students need help, serving as the monitor, guide of teaching activities and the facilitator of meaning construction.

4 Teaching Effectiveness Evaluation of ESP Courses

Teaching evaluation has always been an indispensable part of foreign language curriculum construction. However, for a long time, the evaluation of teaching effectiveness has not received enough attention. The curriculum evaluation mechanism directly affects the effect of students' participation in classroom learning. The flexible and effective learning evaluation mechanism can motivate learners' subjective learning motivation and better participate in classroom learning activities. However, due to the long-term impact of exam-oriented education, learning assessment has always been an important criterion for measuring teaching evaluation, and sometimes even the only criterion, that is, the teaching effect is completely measured by the final evaluation results of students. Fang Xiucai (2017) constructs a framework for effective evaluation of foreign language teaching in the information age. He expands Danielson's (2013) scale into four dimensions, namely: planning and preparation; classroom teaching; teaching responsibility; second classroom extension. The effectiveness of teaching is discussed through the teacher's teaching logs, students' assessment forms, questionnaires, teacher-student interviews, and other forms.

In terms of student performance evaluation, quantitative scores are no longer the only criteria. Class participation, curiosity, and critical thinking skills demonstrated by students in the ESP class are important evaluation scales; small papers and oral reports are also the main manifestations of the ESP classroom learning evaluation mechanism. At the same time, teacher-student mutual evaluation and peer-to-peer evaluation are different from the traditional evaluation mechanism at college English classroom. And the guidance of teachers plays a key role in the evaluation. The process of mutual evaluation is also the process of learning and discussing with each other.

In short, the use of formative evaluation instead of the result evaluation is the basic principle of the ESP classroom effective evaluation mechanism; the open questions should be used instead of the objective questions to test the
students' understanding and mastery. The teacher should give the students the initiatives of classroom evaluation while offering the main guidance.

B. ESP Teaching Mode Construction Based on the POA

Through the analysis of relevant factors, the author combs the important factors in the construction of ESP teaching mode and provides the basic ideas for the construction of teaching mode. Based on the POA, combined with the author’s ESP teaching practice, the author analyzes the teaching concept, teaching hypothesis and teaching process in ESP teaching, and takes the ESP teaching of textile engineering as an example to construct the ESP teaching mode. As is shown below:

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Teaching Concept</th>
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<tr>
<td>1. Needs-centered: literature reading; horizon-broadening; oral reporting; critical thinking;</td>
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<td>2. Using-learning combined: using while learning; learning through using; interacting between learning and using;</td>
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<td>3. Whole-person Education: caring for students; attending to emotional factors;</td>
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<th>Teaching Hypothesis</th>
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<th>Teaching Procedures</th>
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<td>Task-oriented learning; discussing and presenting; effective learning and deep reading; multilevel evaluation and learning through evaluation;</td>
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C. Concepts, Assumptions and Processes of Mode Construction

This part mainly introduces the specific elements related to the teaching mode construction. The design concepts, assumption and process of mode construction will be specified in details.

1. Teaching Concepts: Demand-centered, Learning-using Combined, Comprehensive Education

It is clearly targeted at understanding the diverse needs of students, meeting those students’ needs who are interested in learning through ESP courses, improving the reading ability of academic literature and taking English as the carrier of expertise production capabilities. The design of the ESP teaching mode is based on the results of the student’s college English learning needs survey and is compliance with the disciplinary orientation of the internationalization of textile engineering at the university.

The concepts of learning by doing, doing by learning, learning and using, classroom learning with offline online learning is to be organically integrated in teaching practice. It is designed to use the output to verify the effects of input and apply the effective input to increase the depth and breadth of output contents.

Teachers are the leaders of classroom teaching and students are the main body of classroom activities. Teachers are committed to promoting learning through interaction, paying attention to students’ learning emotions, treating students equally, caring for students. Meanwhile, teachers, with holistic education and comprehensive education as the ultimate idea, are expected to provide necessary academic and emotional support in a timely and effective manner in classroom teaching.

2. Teaching Hypothesis: Output-Input-Output-Evaluation

Wen Qiufang (2014) believes that output is both a motivation for language acquisition and a goal for language acquisition. In view of the English level of Chinese students, with production as the core, Wen Qiufang proposes a series of hypotheses: Production-driven hypothesis; output driving—input-producing hypothesis (Wen, 2014) and Production-oriented Approach (Wen, 2015).

In ESP class, the emphasis is placed on the student-centered and teacher-leading mode with a focus on improving efficiency and effective learning, which may directly indicate Whether the teacher is conducting effective teaching or not and whether the students are having active learning. When the knowledge-based content is emphasized, the teacher leads the teaching process, in which the input purpose and output requirements are clearly defined; when the practical content is the priority, the student-leading interaction is the main part of classroom learning. The combination of formative evaluation and summative evaluation makes the formative evaluation of the classroom more conducive to the
immediacy dynamic and efficient evaluation (Graves, 2008). At the same time, the research shows that students’ self-confidence can be greatly improved through students’ self-evaluation and mutual evaluation (Cao, 2009; Xu, 2014).

3 Teaching Process: Task-driven, Discussion first, Effective Reading, Post-reading Learning

The teaching focus, teaching purpose and teaching methods of ESP courses are different from those of EGP courses. Therefore, the reading input of students under the guidance of teachers is the focus of classroom teaching. In the before-reading discussion, students may lead the output by various forms and purposes, such as the brainstorming, activating reading interest, encouraging expression, discovering the language and opinion omissions; taking reading as the “axis”. Teachers may play the role of guidance and lead the students to read by probing into the questions. The output after reading may take the forms of topic discussion, speculative writing, and academic topic presentation. Students are encouraged to expand their ideas, group operations, and collaborate to complete a project. At the same time, the teacher-leading evaluation with students’ full participation is also a key part of teaching, where teachers guide students to carry out reflective self-evaluation and mutual evaluation, evaluation of learning, and internalization of knowledge.

IV. ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

A. Case Study of Teaching Practice

The author has provided the “ESP Course for Textile Engineering” for the textile engineering majors of 2015 at Tianjin Polytechnic University. The course is in the form of English development course and is suitable for the sophomores of textile engineering who have passed the CET Band 4 & 6. The number of students who have selected the course is 32, and all the students have passed the CET Band 6. Through before-course investigations and interviews, 27 people are found to have plans to receive postgraduate studies home and abroad, hoping that English can be combined with disciplinary studies in the future. It is hoped that they can read academic literature, write academic papers, and participate in various academic workshops.

The course is taught for 16 weeks and the exam is in the last week. The author composes the lectures by himself, and most of the academic English articles for textile engineering are mostly selected from Yahoo/Google Scholar. The suggested textbook is Science and Technology English Course published by Tongji University Press. Two weeks is a teaching cycle with a total of 8 units in a semester. There is one topic with two articles in each unit, in which one is for intensive reading and another is for after-class reading. In-class teaching per week is 4 classes, the first 2 classes each week is for the before-reading discussion and output, the second 2 classes is the problem-guided interactive reading comprehension; then another 4 lessons of the second week is for reading and note-sharing, related topic discussion and project presenting.

Take the topic in the third week, for example, Interswoven globe: a show that reveals the fabric of power. This article, with moderate difficulty level, totaling 1,350 words, was selected from the international trade column of Guardian. The passage focuses on the history of international textile trade development and introduces the current trend of the international textile trade, especially the rapid development of China’s textile trade. The idea in the article shares some similarities with some of the contents in the course of “Introduction to Textile Trade” in the following semester for the textile engineering students. Therefore, the mastery of background knowledge is conducive to reducing language barriers in reading.

Based on the teaching concept of needs-centeredness, combination of learning and using, and whole-person education, the teaching hypothesis is driven by the concept that the output is the driving force, the input is the facilitator, and the input and output are mutually promoted through interactions. The classroom teaching process is as follows:

Before-reading, the teacher guided students to brainstorm and share their thoughts on any topic of the article about international trade/textile trade/Chinese textile trade/ Sino-U.S textile trade friction, etc.; the teacher helped students vividly and intuitively acquire relevant knowledge and understand the article through watching the English short film “Brief History Of Global Textile Trade”; students were expected to choose a topic and analyze the feasibility of completing the projects through group discussion and determine the division of work by the team leaders.

While-reading: interactive teaching of question-based reading. The teacher identifies 15 questions and guides the students to find the answers in teacher-student interaction, understand the meaning of the article, master the important details, and find out the logical problems or fallacies in the structure or expression of the article. These 15 questions cover the general meaning of the article, important details and the main difficult points in language.

After reading, students were expected to: 1) complete the study notes which include new language points, article summary, reading method summary, and beautiful sentence appreciation, etc.; 2) mutually evaluate the notes and find out the best one for sharing; 3) give the group project statement, make PPT, share on the stage, evaluate, interact with students, and evaluate in a peer-to-peer way.

In the final evaluation of the final exam, the daily performance scores account for 60 points, namely: 20 points for notes; 20 points for class presentation; 10 points for mutual evaluation among group members; 10 points for regular attendance; an extra 10 points for unique insights on the issues. The final exam is to submit a small paper, accounting for 40 points. Students are required to select their own topics of interest from the 8 units covered in this semester, complete a micro-dissertation independently which shares his own opinions with more than 800 words by digging into
the literature. Students are asked to submit an electronic version (for network plagiarism check) and printing version. The author along with one teacher from the School of Textile completes the scoring.

B. Students’ Feedback and Teacher Reflection

After the 16-week teaching period, the author designs a questionnaire and a group interview to evaluate the student's ESP course and the teaching mode. The questionnaire surveys the students' gains from the ESP course. The questionnaire is divided into 3 categories and a total of 18 questions, which respectively investigate the improvement of reading ability, the improvement of English skills and the improvement of academic reading and expression skills. The statistical results show that the highest proportion of items is: "My expertise has been expanded through ESP courses.” Of the 32 questionnaires, 84% chose “totally agree”, which is followed by: "I am more confident in academic reports through Textiles ESP courses.” 79% of the subjects choose "totally agree"; the lowest option is: "I have improved my reading comprehension accuracy through the ESP course." The proportion of "strongly agree" is 24%, which is basically consistent with the author's observation in the teaching process. There are two reasons for that:

1) The main teaching purpose of this course is not to improve the students' reading test scores by reading the articles.
2) 16 weeks of teaching, 8 intensive articles, 8 extensive reading articles, and the language input of the course is relatively small. In the future teaching, one must improve the amount of language input while taking into the effects account.

At the same time, some students were invited to conduct interviews. Here are some answers from students:

S1: During the past four semesters, except for the preparation for CET Band 4&6, I am just living off one's past gains and ruining my time. I feel very regretful for that. but this semester when I was expecting another unfruitful term, I chose this course. The harvest is really very big. I have never thought about expressing myself about my major in English. But now, I find out I could make it. I will continue to work hard and strive to express more freely and confidently.

S2: To be honest, this course is really difficult. It seems that it is the most difficult course I have ever had in my school days. It is completely different from the course which is just for passing the exam. I felt quite painful when I studied, but in retrospect, I have reaped a lot. I can also say something in my specialty in English. I am proud of myself.

S3: I had never heard the ESP course before I chose this class. I suspected that it would be as dull as the other English course. I begin to understand it a little after studying for one semester. In fact, I just wanted to get the credits at first, so I took my IELTS tests to the class. But later, I found out that there was still something meaningful in class. I can also force myself to practice my oral English and share my ideas on the stage. It’s really stressful to do so, but I really learn something while looking back. It is the richest semester in the four semesters of college English class. Meanwhile, I find that my thoughts are a bit widened, and the critical thinking required by IELTS writing seems less challenging than before.

S4: To be honest, this class is too time-consuming, and it is too difficult to take the credits, but I believe that every point is earned by myself, not just drifting along, and I have not wasted the precious time. Previously, time flies when switching the phone and starting the games after class, however, since I take this class, I have to think about group discussion, write reading notes, complete tasks, and share on the stage. There is certainly some considerable strain from this course, but it is very fulfilling too. I am very excited to complete a task with my peers.

S5: This class taught me how to use foreign academic websites, and how to search for what I want. I can stand up and discuss some issues related to textile engineering. I feel I am powerful although I still know quite a little. In addition, I did not like the major of textile engineering for I felt that I might be a female textile worker as someone always make the joke. But now I learn that this is also a serious science and a promising major, my interest in my major gradually awakens and grows.

V. CONCLUSION AND LIMITATIONS

Based on the concept of Prof. Wen Qufang's POA theory, combining with the characteristics of ESP teaching and the author's teaching practice and research, this paper attempts to construct the ESP teaching mode for textile engineering based on the POA concept. Guided by this mode, the author verifies its effectiveness in the teaching practice. Through questionnaires and other research methods, it is found that it can effectively improve students' literature reading, oral reporting ability under the guidance of textile engineering ESP teaching.

This study has the following limitations: 1stly, the statistical methods were slightly single and simple; the number of survey samples was small in terms of the students' English needs survey in the early period and students’ achievements’ surveys and questionnaires in the late period; secondly, the disputes between ESP and EGP is the focus of debate in the field of college English teaching, there is a certain degree of uncertainty in the meaning of the research. There are still different voices from other experts who disagree although there are experts, such as Professor Cai Jigang, Professor Wen Qufang, Professor Sun Youzhong, Professor Wang Shouren and other well-known scholars, who are strongly supporting the development of ESP curriculum; thirdly, due to the lack of professional ESP measurement forms, the scientific validity of ESP teaching is still in doubt; fourthly, the content in the ESP course cannot be deepened due to the lack of disciplinary background and knowledge. Sometimes, the discussion seems a bit superficial and lack of in-depth analysis and digging.
Notes: Due to the space limitation, the data collected and analyzed cannot be shown in the paper.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

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**Jinzhu Zhang**, Male, a lecturer at the School of Humanity of Tianjin Polytechnic University, Tianjin, China. His research interest lies in the Applied Linguistics and Language Testing Theory & Practice.
Call for Papers and Special Issue Proposals

Aims and Scope

Theory and Practice in Language Studies (TPLS) is a peer-reviewed international journal dedicated to promoting scholarly exchange among teachers and researchers in the field of language studies. The journal is published monthly.

TPLS carries original, full-length articles and short research notes that reflect the latest developments and advances in both theoretical and practical aspects of language teaching and learning. We particularly encourage articles that share an interdisciplinary orientation, articles that bridge the gap between theory and practice, and articles in new and emerging areas of research that reflect the challenges faced today.

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Special issues feature specifically aimed and targeted topics of interest contributed by authors responding to a particular Call for Papers or by invitation, edited by guest editor(s). We encourage you to submit proposals for creating special issues in areas that are of interest to the Journal. Preference will be given to proposals that cover some unique aspect of the technology and ones that include subjects that are timely and useful to the readers of the Journal. A Special Issue is typically made of 15 to 30 papers, with each paper 8 to 12 pages of length.

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