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Adoption of Electronic Techniques in Teaching English-Yoruba Bilingual Youths the Semantic Expansion and Etymology of Yoruba Words and Statements

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Abstract—Yoruba is one of the Nigeria’s four hundred languages linguistically threatened with extinction considering the language attitude of its native speakers especially the youths. The youths’ flair for English is making them lose interest in the use of Yoruba. This study was designed to introduce and teach the Yoruba youths the origin of some Yoruba words and statements using electronic devices like video tape recorder, phones, and power points presentation. Twenty Yoruba words, phrases, clauses, and statements were dramatized, recorded in CDrom and practically demonstrated in the classroom setting. We elicited our data through various Yoruba discourses with their historical origin traced to past happenings. The major sources of data collection for this study include records of discourses in Yoruba, waxed musical records and conversations among Yoruba natives especially in Urban areas in Nigeria. Twenty of the collated words, phrases, clauses and statement were also linguistically analyzed. The study encourages the use of electronic gadgets in teaching Yoruba. It is also a valuable attempt among others in saving Yoruba language from going to extinction as a result of its native youth speakers’ lack of interest and knowledge of the origin of many of its words, clauses, phrases, statements and usage.

Index Terms—E learning, extinction, language, etymology, youths, linkage

I. INTRODUCTION

Yorùbá is the language of the Yorùbá people, the descendants of Odùduwà who are predominantly settled in the South Western zone of Nigeria and other countries in the West African coast, Brazil and the United states of America. In Nigeria, particularly in the western zone it functions as language of education, promotion of culture, tradition, vocation, religion, social and other facets of life. It is on record that the first Yorùbá primer was published in between 1859 and 1867 as well as the publication of ‘l'olù Òrhìnì’ “Yoruba News” published by Townsend at Abéokùtà. In this study, etymological approach was combined with e learning language teaching This study is based on referential theory of meaning as it reported the meaning extension in the examined Yoruba words, statements, clauses and phrases. The Yoruba youths’ interest in understanding the historical origin of selected Yoruba words, and statements was reinvigorated as Video recording of drummers in display and dramatization of past events was undertaken. The students’ interest was re-awakened as teaching learning took place in formal classroom setting using e-learning approach. The four lessons for this study were done involving the teacher (researcher) and the students in formal classroom setting. At the end, students became eager to collate more Yoruba words by doing the electronic recording. They also became aware of the historical attachments of the selected Yoruba words and statements. According to the expression in English Grammar Full Online Course http://thedefinition.com/dictionary/extend retrieved on the 2nd of May, 2018, “word” stands for the following: to stretch out, to prolong in space, to enlarge, to widen, to bestow, to offer, to import, to increase in quantity by weakening or adulterating additions such as to extend liquors, to value, (as lands taken by writ of extent in satisfaction of debt); to assign by writ or extent. Expansion for an instance is like seeing “word” as a noun that implies: the act of expanding or the state of being expanded, Something expanded, or expanded surface or part. The adequate extent or amount by which something expands. It is an increase, enlargement, or development. In this study, some Yoruba words and statements were traced to their original forms in meaning before being expanded to be what they are today i.e. it is important to teach the modern Yoruba youths on the origin of some Yoruba words as a way of promoting Yoruba peoples culture, tradition and the language itself especially as Yoruba youths are daily demonstrating preference for foreign languages. In the case of television, there is a ratio of 78:82% to 20:18% frequency of language usage in favor of English and this imbalance probably remains very much the same as at when this study was conducted(Adeniran, 1980). The Yoruba youths are therefore daily becoming more comfortable with the use of English at almost every endeavor of their lives including radio and television programs. This, therefore
makes them lose learning Yoruba rules and forget Yoruba culture and histories. This study links the modern youths to the historical origin of twenty Yoruba collated words, phrases and statements with the use of affordable electronic gadgets in order to sensitize the consciousness on their language background. In Nigeria, unlike the Yoruba natives, the Hausa tribe have more interest for use of Hausa than English. According to Bamgbose (2017), in the northern part of Nigeria, Hausa is encouraged to be spoken widely even by Hausa and non Hausa natives. At the markets places in northern Nigeria, one needs admixture of Hausa and English to communicate effectively. This is also reported in many government offices unlike what obtains in the southern part of Nigeria. The modern Yoruba youths mostly exhibit lack of interest for use of Yoruba and develop flair for English and thereby losing track of their historical origin and language as they are mostly migrants of Nigerian urban areas (Bamgbose, 2017). He once asserted thus:

Settlement in most countries of the world are typified by a rural urban divide, with rural populations being generally ethnically and linguistically homogenous and urban ones generally none heterogeneous. Nigeria is typical in this regard, with large population concentrations, in the major cities such as Lagos, Ibadan, Warri, Port Harcourt, Onitsha, Enugu in Southern Nigeria and Kano, Jos, Kaduna, Bornu, Abuja in the North.

Another factor responsible for fast loss of adequate knowledge of Yoruba dictons by Yoruba Youths is the discouragement of some Yoruba speaking State governments in the past on use of the language. As in Bamgbose, (2017), the Lagos State Government in 1999 as reported in the (Nigerian Guardian of 10th December) rejected the dominant of Yoruba language as medium of discussion in the Lagos State House of Assembly with the following statement:

“Yoruba language is not appropriate for the conduct of business of the House of Assembly since Lagos is a cosmopolitan a city. Besides, its use is capable of diminishing and reducing the intellectual capacity of the legislators”. p196

This viable unpleasant decision was taken in Lagos where about 75% of the inhabitants speak Yoruba and where Yoruba were to be used only in addition to the English. Yoruba Language drifting towards extinction is being encouraged judging by actions of those in government such as the one above. This study is set to provide gradual way of encouraging Yoruba Youths for the need for simultaneous use of Yoruba alongside English which had already gained ground in the hearts and minds of Yoruba elites. Ikotun(2006), worked on code-mixing and language borrowing in Yoruba. The study discussed code-mixing and linguistic borrowing as observed in Yoruba language speakers. Ikotun, (2006) observed that the use of English words in Yoruba utterances by some Yoruba language speakers is traceable to the internal linguistic constraints imposed by the structure of Yoruba. The Yoruba youths interest and flair for English is as a result of English value as the Nigerian language of administration, education, business transaction and colonization. Therefore, this is traceable to the colonialists unchallenged influence through the type of education for Africans especially at the pre-independence period. Therefore, Yoruba Youths like many early educationally are prepared as Africans in blood but Europeans in tastes, deeds, dressing, speech and even culture and tradition. Nigerian elites have been. Above assertion is supported with (Robin 1989) impression cited in (Ikotun, 2006) thus:

“Languages are adaptable according to the changing needs and conditions of the speakers and the change in their lives.

English roles in Nigeria has given it the present status of the Nigerians lingual franca in the Nigerian nation of almost 400 languages and 250 ethnic groups. The contact between English and Yoruba has resulted in loan words, code-mixing, code-switching and other interference phenomena. There have been morphological suppression of Yoruba by English as some English names are now coined in Yoruba as shown below and highlighted in (Ikotun 2006): Monday— Monde,(ojo aje) Tuesday—Tuside (ojo isegun), Wednesday---Weneside(ojo ru), Thursday---Toside(ojo bo), Friday-- - Firaide (ojo eti), Saturday----Satide (ojo abameta), Sunday ---sonide (ojo aiku). Majority of Yoruba youths in the recent time do not know the real native names for days of the week except the coined ones. In addition, and as typical examples, many Yorubá youths do not know the Yorubá lexical items for months of the year except the English coined ones as listed in (Ikotun 2006): January---janeani, (seere), February---February (erele), March---Maasi (erena) etc. Literacy in Nigeria is mainly measured with proficiency in English as it does not matter to some people whether they are good in the use of their native languages or not. The Yorubá youths in the recent times are fast loosing focus on their native traditions and culture. For instance, not many of Yorubá youths are aware of the use of politeness markers in addressing elders. In addressing elders, the youths and elites do result in coinage of English words such as listed in (Ikotun, 2006) thus:uncle——onku,dear—dia,madam——madamu,daddy——dadi. Etymology is the study of the origin of words and language history while language deals with communication involving human beings and animals. Etymology is a concept that centers on theory of history of words. As language moves and gets in contact with other languages, changes become imminent with loss of sounds, clauses, phrases or often disappearance of whole set of a sentence. Though lexicostatistics in contrastive analysis method provides traces to proto-form of words in genetically related languages, etymological treatment of words differs in the sense that it provides room for seeking the historical origin of words in same language. Meaning extension involves the perception of words, clauses and phrases beyond their primary meanings. Meanings are extended for accommodation of prevailing situations, events or objects. Etymology definition in English according to William (2005), is seen in terms of Mass Noun and ‘Count Noun: It is the study of two organs of
words and the way their meanings have changed throughout history. It is also seen as the organ of a word and the historical development of its meaning, for instance, "the etymology of the word" 'devil'. Ethnologue is a Latin word from Greek etymology of etymology and from etumon which is the singular form of etumon 'true'. The word etymology comprises two parts. The Greek word “etymon” which means ‘the true sense of a word, combined the Greek element “Cognitive” which means “doctrine study. Etymology in linguistics centers on tracing the origin and historical development of a language by determining the words earliest known use and changes in forms and meaning tracing its transmission from one language to another. William (2005), defined etymology in linguistics studies as study of the source and development of words and morphemes as an account of source and development of a word or a morpheme. Etymology is a base sentence concept with close relationship with meaning extension. According to Bamgbose (1996), language users especially for commercial purposes find pleasure in jokes which often depend on further minor or double meaning of words or ambiguities or sentences. He stressed further that:

‘Commercial organizations spend a lot of effort and money on naming products, devising slogans and creating massages that will be meaningful to the buying customers similarly over the meaning of some poems or stories’.

Meanings are often personal. In other words, meaning of any signified depends on the space, time, and context in which we observe it. According to Robin (1989), words are language signs similar in certain respect to national and conventional signs. The combination of words produces sentences that are capable of conveying meaning. Words relationship often time forms basis for meaning. Bamgbose, (1996) asserted that some studies have reported a reversed interference phenomenon whereby the bilinguals knowledge of second language (English) influences the Yoruba natives performance in Yoruba at almost all levels of linguistics. A related study is that of Robin (1989) that identified how Yoruba native speakers make use of code switching, code mixing and other strategies while speaking the English Language. The roles of English in Nigeria has so much influenced the tongues of modern Yoruba Youths. Bamgbose (2017), once found out that while English medium non-music programs on radio accounted for 66.88% of broadcast time, programs in Yoruba accounted for only 30.12%. In case of television, issue of youth tongue among the Yoruba natives is considered in the perspective of bilingualism as an effect of languages in contact. The contact between English and Yoruba has resulted in the emergence of Yoruba-English bilinguals. An average Nigerian bilingual deploys the two (and sometimes more) languages in his repertoire in a characteristic manner. Opoola (2000), reported the difficulties inherent in Yoruba-English bilinguals ability to coherently for a long time speak in Yoruba without English interjection. In this paper, the Yoruba youths were taught some historical facts about some Yoruba words employed in the recent time for oral and written discourses in Yoruba language. We precisely centered our discussion on few Yoruba words, phrases and clauses to drive home points on the historical linguistic concept of etymology and words origin as strategy for linking the youths to the past happenings in Yoruba land. Historical explanations pictures and video clips were provided on twenty selected words, phrases, clauses and statements while teaching the Yoruba youths as 200 level students of Linguistics at the Federal University Oye Ekiti.

II. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

There are lots of linguistic and valuable research works on the Yoruba language. These efforts have assisted in its codified and standard status among languages of the world. Many studies have been on the syntactic, morphological, semantic and other descriptive linguistic analyses of Yoruba. Infact, Scholars have contributed research works on Yoruba literature and language but with few insights into the historical linguistic aspects in tracing sources of Yoruba words, phrases and clauses. In addition, the general feeling among linguists and non-linguists is that there can be several meanings for a single Yoruba words, phrase, clause or statements. This study is a linguistic input in tracing the linguistic history of Yoruba words, clauses, phrases, statements and possible sources of meaning extension in the form of place(s), purpose of usage, and circumstance(s) of usages using affordable electronic gadgets. The study dwelled extensively on encouraging the Yoruba natives in seeking the etymological findings of Yoruba lexical and sentential items. It is an attempt to encourage the use of e learning as viable means of teaching African languages and culture which is a vivid gap in Yoruba language and literary teaching and existing research reports. This study unlike its existing type promotes the Yoruba youths’ interest on the need to use Yoruba even with their flair for English if their history, culture and language is to be saved from going to extinction. Yoruba language teachers phobia on the perceived huge capital in obtaining funds for procurement of e learning materials was also addressed by the study demonstration that ordinary android phones can be used for obtaining and analyzing data for cultural teaching and learning.

III. METHODOLOGY

In this presentation, twenty Yoruba words, phrase and clauses were collected with tape recorder from Yoruba natives written and oral discourses in Yoruba. These words, clauses, phrases, sources and historical origin were comprehensively discussed using e learning method of teaching. E-learning teaching in this context involves the use of electronic equipment in teaching and learning at formal schools. The teaching of Yoruba language and culture have been ordinarily in the past relied on story telling without practical performance with the use of electronic materials. In this study, mobile phones were used to record words and statements and video clips were presented while teaching the etymology of Yoruba to the Yoruba youths. The video clips used among others are the ones of ‘beans retailer’, Yoruba
traditional drummers performance in court and photographs of traditional places. Selected Yorùbá words, phrases, clauses and statements were elicited from the discourses of both Yoruba monolinguals and bilinguals at different Yorùbá peoples’ settlements such as markets, schools, relaxation centers, social gatherings and Yoruba traditional court rooms with records of oral speeches of the Yoruba natives. Few past traditional events were dramatized and used in the teaching of the selected students. Other sources of data elicitation for this study include Yorùbá traditional ‘jùjú’ and ‘àpálá’ music and songs collected and replayed during the formal classes where some of the analyzed words, clauses and phrases were elicited and taught. Pictures of Musical instruments such as dìndín (talking drum) for instance and video clips of Yoruba traditional talking drummers and other illustrative video clips were also employed to teach the students after the diagnostic test that confirmed their lack of knowledge of the etymological sources of the collated Yoruba words, phrases, clauses and statements. In the end, and after watching the video clips, listened to recorded traditional songs, and ploughing through the photo album of traditional places relevant to the selected words and statements, the following achievements were recorded: (1) Students interest in the use of Yoruba was improved; (2) The pleasurable formal classroom setting created with the use of electronic technique also promoted the students zeal and love for their indigenous language, Yoruba; (3) Historical sources of the Yoruba collated words, phrases and statements were protected from language endangerment. Twenty Yoruba youths made up of ten (10) Males and ten(10) Females students of between ages 18-20 were the subjects of the study at the Federal University oye Ekiti. The students were first tested on the meaning and etymological connections of the selected words. The result of the diagnostic test affirmed the point those students have little or no knowledge of the historical origin of the selected Yoruba words. A special class for teaching them was therefore organized with the use of recorded video tapes of past events, traditional and Yoruba music and pictures of historical places. The analyzed and introduced words, phrases, clauses and statements are as highlighted below:

1. Èlèwàsàpò́n- Sápò́n Cooked Beans Vendor
Sàpò́n is a residential area in Abeokuta where a food vendor used to sell cooked beans. The word therefore originated from the Yorùbá proverb that says: Sé bòötìmò èlèwàsàpò́n
Do not exceed your financial capacity.
This is a kind of warning and Yorùbá moral lesson.

2. Wàrò-Name of a slave
Wàrò was a proper noun for one of the then Alááfìn of Òyó’s slaves. The slave felt unrecognized in the palace affairs in spite of his loyalty and dedication to duty. He therefore set many dried grass built huts ablaze and was seriously punished though not without the following Yorùbá traditional song:
Wàrò burnt the house
With his curved left hand
Warò burnt the entire house
This word is used for whoever is seeking for undue recognition.

3. Àlòmòkò- Beautifully slim lady
This concept was used in one of the traditional Yorùbá Fuji music by Late SikiruAyinde Barrister. He praised his younger wife and poetically qualified her beauty thus:
The husband beautiful favorite, detach not
The husband beautiful favorite, detach not
Ájọkè the lovely cheerful lady detach not from Òyìndé
The husband beautiful favorite, detach not
Àlòmòkò primarily means: “to remain close to a lover” while its meaning extension is “a beautiful” lady.

4. Bàbà Ònìkèrhì- Man from Tonkere
Ònìkèrhì is a village near Ìlàṣì in Òsun state Nigeria where lived an old man who was once an adherent of the defunct Unity Party of Nigeria.(UPN) After decamping from UPN, one of the party campaigns was scheduled to hold in front of his house at Ònìkèrhì village in 1980. His annoyance made him pointed a fully loaded din gun to the then Òyó state Governor, Chief Bọ́lá Ìgè. The assassination attempt failed and the man was paraded throughout the rest political campaign tours of the party in more than three towns. The adage then was “who want to be named Bàbà Ònìkèrhì.[ Another name for Assailant”

5. Àgbejèkọ́yà- Farmers’ resistance
This word originated from the Farmers violent tax riot in the 60s in the defunct western region of Nigeria. This word is meant to remind the government and the governed to tread carefully in policy making in the recent time.

6. Ìbètáláìfù- Fiftynaira
During the reign of a Nigerian military President Ibrahim Badamosi Babangida, there was a welfare programme for the Nigerian women known as Better Life For Rural Women. Therefore, the picture of Nigerian women on 50 naira currency note was then translated into what fifty Naira stands for in Yorùbá though coined as Ìbètáláìfù-better life.

7. Mìrì-Twentyaira
The year 1976 witnessed the regime of a Military Head of state called General Muritala Ramat Muhammed, who was assassinated in February 1976. Therefore his photograph as inscription on the Nigerian twenty naira note made the Yoruba people call that amount of money ‘Múrí.

8. *Kékémárinwá*- Tricycle

The then Lagos military Governor, General Maruwa introduced Tricycle brought about Kékémárinwá i.e.,Maruwa bicycle. In Lagos and its environs and throughout Nigeria, tricycles are now called *Kékémárinwá.*


This was the riotous word used during the 1964 first republic political crisis in the then western region of Nigeria. Houses of political opponents were burnt and many people were assassinated as political opponents of NCNC and AG (Action group) clashed with each other. Petrol was used freely in burning houses and other properties on the instructions of riotous leaders by saying; wetie - wet the house with fuel before setting it ablaze.

**USAGE:** The word ‘wétíě́’ which is a combination of English /wet/ and Yoruba //. The word is freely use to describe that period till date as /Ọṣẹlúwétíě́/ ‘the politics of setting houses and properties ablaze

10. *Pẹnkeleımési*- Peculiar mess

There was a political leader in Ibadan known as Adébísì Adégòkè. In one of his political court cases as leader of NCNC which was a Federal but opposition party in western region once described the judgment that did not favor him as a “peculiar mess”. The anxiously waiting Yoruba dundun drummers and singers translated his statement into song thus:

*Pẹnkeleımési*  
*Adébísìmési*  
*Pẹnkeleımési*  
*Mési,mési,mési*  
*Pẹnkeleımési*

11. *Ọkùékọ*- Lagos Iced Fish

Lagos was the political and commercial capital city of the republic of Nigeria since 1960 independence. As time passes by, there was introduction of processed fish from the sea. As the fishes are iced, they resemble embalmed human corpse because of the ice that makes them solid. Yoruba people therefore changed the primary meaning of ọkù́- dead, Ékọ- Lagos to ‘ọkùékọ́’, the embalmed Lagos corpse- iced Lagos fish,

12. *Ọfádá*- Traditionally Milled Rice

Ọfádá is a town in Ọgun state Nigeria where native rice is planted in abundant, milled and produced for consumption. The town’s name has been changed to mean the local rice instead of saying ‘rice from ọfádá’ town, Yoruba people now refer to local rice as ọfádá.

Mo fẹ ra ọfádá áti ẹran kan.  
I want to buy ofada and a piece of meat.

13. *Gáádì*- Guard

Gáádì is a Yoruba word loaned from the English language word, ‘guard’.  
In Yoruba land, especially at Láhítàché, the word ‘gáádì’ or ‘òfísì’ (office) is now known as police station.  
N ó mú ọ de gáádì líòlì  
I will ensure that you get to the police station today.

14. *Agodí*- Prison yard

Ordinarly the word Agodi is for a suburb in Ibadan. However, since the Nigeria prison has been sited in the area, the meaning of the area is now generally synonymous now to prison yard even when there exist market, Motor Park and order recreational houses in agodi. Agodi now stands for prison yard.

Wọn ti n lọ si agodi  
They are on their way to the prison yard

15. *Lágbódókọ*- Prison yard in Oyo

This area in Oyo town was the home of another prison yard. Therefore, going to Lágbódókọ is often perceived as going to prison yard. See this Yoruba prayer  
Olórún má mú mi de Lágbódókọ láíláí  
May God forbid my being to Lágbódókọ in life

16. *Élélérèn*- Police headquarter in Abeokuta  
*Ònì ẹwè ẹran*  
Owner – leave

**Source:** The primary meaning of the word *élélérèn* is in term of its immunization status, i.e. it is a derived word from (*oni*) owner (ewé) leave (*ẹran*) adjective meaning for dryness. The meaning extension has changed the primary meaning to a place where the Ọgùn state police command was cited. It then becomes a dreaded place particularly for criminals in Ọgùn State and it environs. See the following statement:  
*Awọn iwà ọdaràn rẹ yìí yóó .padà gbé ọ d’élélérèn.*
17. *Olojärölé*—Prostitutes

*Olojärölé*—Evening/Night market sellers

The primary meaning of *Olojärölé* is for the traders that operate night markets in Yoruba land. Many Yoruba towns and villages have some markets that are only slated for between 6 and 9 pm daily. However, extending the meaning of the word, Olojärölé becomes a lexicon for the prostitutes whose operations are preferably done at night because of its shameful hatch in Yoruba land. See the following: *Ómọolójärölé *ú ‘ọ gbòdọ polọ̀wọ̀

Evening marketers (prostitutes) that must never openly advertise for customers

18. *Babájẹbú- Bábá-Ijébú* (Ijébú man)

The primary meaning of *bábájẹbú* is Ijébú man. The secondary meaning of *Babá Ijébú* in Yoruba land is local lottery (lotto). The originator of the lotto is (Chief Eligansa) who was a renowned Pool Executive Manager in the 70s. He, however, initiated the new lotto programme known as Bábá Ijébú i.e. named after the originator of the lotto, a man from Ijébú land.

19. *Ejikanisoobu*-Mobile Tailors

This was the name given to Ghana immigrant tailors in the 70s who migrated to Nigeria with mobile sewing machines for mending clothes. *Ejika* in Yoruba means Shoulder. Therefore, their shoulders became their tailoring shops

20. *báttá*—Stitch your shoe

In the 80s, Ghanian immigrants used to move round cities as mobile cobble stitching turned shoes and slippers. The strategy they adopted in advertising their customer was to say ‘so báttá re’ i.e. ’stitch your shoe’. This was due to their limited competency in the use of Yoruba language. In the end, Yoruba two words for ‘so’ - stitch and ‘báttá’ became normalized as name for cobbler (sobótá).

With the display of the recorded chants on the board, the teacher provided the linguistic analysis of the collated Yoruba words and statements in the classroom using the University lecture room projector. Explanations on the linguistic findings were also given showing that there exists phono-semantic relationship in the identified Yoruba words, phrases and clauses used for this study. The meaning extension recorded in the collated words indicates that certain phonological processes have been adopted in coining the newly derived words, phrases and clauses and their extended meaning as shown below:

1. Combination of two or more words using phonological processes like assimilation, elision and reduplication

   *Akárá + Òsù - Akáósù*

   Beans cake Òsù town Òsù beans-cake

   Phonetic process – loss of consonant /t/ and vowel /a/ resulting in retrogressive assimilation and final word ‘ákáósù-ostu.’ town beans cake’

2. *Séébo – Sè è bo oko yin?*

   Sè - è - o - bó - o, will you wash your car?

   Elision of segments /e/ and /o/ at the media and final position of the word

   Sè - è - o - bó - o
   Will - you - like - to wash - your car

3. Syllabic restructuring of loan words e.g.

   (a) fifty naira. *Bet te - l i fe b ét a - l ai - f ú*

   c v c c v c v v c v c v v c v c v v c v

   (b) Peculiar Mess - *Penkleleméẹsí*

   Pe - cu - li ar - m e s s
c v - c v v c v c v c v c
c v c c

   (c) a p e n n y -

   é - p i n - n i n

   v c v c c c v v c v c

4. Transliteration: Instances of making same pronunciation of loaned words as in the loaned language e.g.

   (1) Better life

   *-Bétálaisi = N50*

   (2) Wet

   *-weetie = spray it (with petrol)*

   (3) Peculiar mess

   *Penkleleméẹsi = frivolity*

   (4) Nominalization: some nouns (órọ orúko) were combined to form other words. Also, some adjectives were also derived as exemplified in the analyzed Yoruba words: thus,

   1. *Baba + Tonkère-Babatonkère*

   Father name of village (Baba from Tonkere village)

   2. *Eléwá + Sápópó - Eléwásapópó*

   beans seller of sapópó suburb in Abeokuta

5. Change in a word class leading to phrases lexical items compressed into a single word e.g.

   (1) *Téjù + mó + ìlẹjọ - tejímálejọ* (iced fish)

   Looking straight to guest
A discussion of the implications of this research work is in three areas: its contribution to linguistics study; use of e-learning approach in language teaching and learning and challenges for further study.

(1) This piece of work opens more attention in studies on meaning extension and semantics. It also encourages more studies on etymology as a viable part of a linguistic component called ‘semantics’.

(2) The study will prompt further research works on teaching African languages with the use of basic and simple e-learning equipments.

(3) This effort stands to protect the Yoruba language and history from going to extinction as many modern day Yoruba elites have formed the habit of neglecting the use of Yoruba to use of English. Majority of Yoruba youths cannot speak the language without code-mixing and code switching strategies and hardly could they link many Yoruba words, clauses and phrases to their historical origin since most events took place before they were born. An average native can hardly belief that épini- is a loaned English word “a penny” and “Silé” in Silékan is also an English loaned phrases “a shilling or “one shilling” This study highlighted sources and linguistic histories of few selected words, clauses and phrases.

IV. IMPLICATIONS OF THIS STUDY

A language with codified orthography among other African Languages. The presentation also collated some Yoruba words, phrases and clauses commonly used by Yoruba speakers. A class of Yoruba youths in a formal school set up was organized. Students of between age range of 18 and 20 years were taught on the historical origin of the collated words, and statements using simple and affordable e learning gadgets like mobile phones, video cassettes, and projector. Conclusively, therefore, the reported study has opened yet another interesting area in African linguistic studies especially in Nigeria with specific focus on teaching Yoruba morphology and semantic concepts such as lexicons, etymology and meaning amelioration or extension.

V. CONCLUSION

VI. RECOMMENDATIONS
FIGURE 2: Old Oyo Empire’s King and a British Visitor

Figure 3: Yoruba traditional beads drums feast

Figure 4: Oduduwa, the ancestor of the Yoruba people in Nigeria
Figure 5: Yoruba traditionally designed doors

Figure 6: Yoruba talking drum

Figure 7: Photograph of Nigeria twenty naira currency note (Muri)
Figure 8: Photograph of Nigeria fifty naira note.-Betalaifu

VID-20181219-WA0002.mp4

(A video clip of talking drums and dancers)

REFERENCES


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EFL Instructors’ Performance Evaluation at University Level: Prescriptive and Collaborative Approaches

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Abstract—The present paper aims to investigate EFL instructors’ performance at university level according to prescriptive and collaborative approaches in supervision. In order to achieve this target, the researcher addressed three questions. The first investigates instructors’ level of performance. The second and third questions aimed to identify instructors’ points of strength and action points. In this regard, the researcher developed an observation checklist (Appendix A) for supervisors to use when observing teachers'. He also developed observation guidelines for supervisors to make sure they are following the collaborative approach of supervision (Appendix B). The data were analyzed using descriptive statistics, including means, standard deviation and percentages to answer the first question. To answer the second and third questions, the researcher used content analysis to synthesize the supervisors’ feedback given to instructors regarding their points of strengths and action points. The results showed that the instructors’ performance was either satisfactory or outstanding based on the supervisors’ observation, which could be due to the professional development program conducted to develop their teaching competencies. In addition, the instructors showed themselves competent in other areas related to motivating students and providing them with constructive feedback. However, some instructors still need to develop their competencies in areas such as classroom management and teacher talk time. These have been summarized according to their frequency of occurrence in tables 2 and 3. Based on the results, the researcher drew a number of conclusions and recommendations.

Index Terms—instructors’ performance, prescriptive approach, collaborative approach, university level

I. INTRODUCTION AND THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

A. An Overview of Teacher Quality and Development

It can be claimed that one of the main roles of teachers is to provide learners with better learning opportunities. In order to help them achieve this target, they need professional development, support and encouragement. Teacher quality is the most important factor affecting student achievement, and students may benefit the most from learning with very effective teachers (Looney, 2011; Motoko et al., 2007; Nye et al., 2004). In this regard, evaluating teachers’ performance along with professional development can contribute to developing the quality of teaching which could have a positive effect on student achievement (Looney, 2011; OECDa (2009a).

Developing teachers’ quality at Taif University English Language Center is a policy priority. It is vital to continuously update instructors’ knowledge and skills, which would positively reflect on their teaching and learning in order to better meet students' needs and interests. In the same direction, teachers are evaluated to identify their needs, and provide them with support and frequent opportunities of professional learning and development.

Looney (2011) summarized the competences of teacher quality. He pointed out that effective teachers have good intellectual skills and good knowledge of the subject area; have rapport with students, recognize the significant role of motivation in learning; have strong classroom management skills; skilled assessors; and work collaboratively with their peers to develop a positive learning climate.

According to Gujjar, Ramzan, & Bajwa (2011), the qualities used to evaluate teachers include course objectives, using the textbook and supplementary materials, methodology, and content mastery, teacher's use of voice, discipline and motivation. Taylor & Tyler (2011) stated that teachers are evaluated on specific skills and practices covering classroom management, instruction, content knowledge, and planning.

B. Performance Evaluation

Teachers need to receive feedback on their performance, which is very crucial for their professional development. Teachers’ performance evaluation is meant for a number of purposes. It can be for assessing their performance for further action of promoting them or giving sanctions. Meanwhile, it can be for the purposes of appraisal or identifying their needs for professional development. Kocak (2006) stated that performance evaluation is a process of measurement and appraisal of employees’ individual achievements and behaviors. According to him, providing employees of educational institutions with feedback is motivating. In this regard, measuring their performance in a valid and reliable way is very important in providing teachers with feedback on their performance.
Hanushek and Rivkin (2010) pointed out that performance evaluation is important for American public school teachers and their employers. In recent years, reform efforts in American education have given a priority to evaluating teacher effectiveness. The emphasis on teachers' performance evaluation is enhanced by teacher productivity as long as it is directly related to their ability to promote student achievement.

Some researchers believe that teacher evaluation could improve teachers' performance, taking into consideration incentives based on evaluation and the contribution made by professional development in enhancing teachers' competencies. (Donaldson 2009 & Weisburg et al. 2009). Randall and Thornton (2001) stated that assessing teachers' performance may cause problems for both teachers and trainers as teachers do not like the idea of being assessed and criticized. In response to this, non-judgmental and humanistic approaches emerged. They maintained that the supervisor might be misunderstood if there is a report at the end of a certain visit. This is likely to happen no matter how the supervisor is supportive. Thus, the supervisor needs to make it clear to the teacher that there exist conflicting roles of the supervisor and will need to separate them.

In this regard, a team of EFL specialists developed a checklist (Appendix A) which includes a set of standards to use when conducting a classroom observation meant to describe the instructors' performance and provide them with feedback on their performance. They have it clear in their minds and should be conveyed to the teacher that the main goal is to support and encourage teachers to reflect on their teaching practices and assist them in their professional development endeavors. The observation has nothing to do with criticism or sanctions. Based on the evaluation, the observer and the teacher meet to discuss the teaching previously conducted for further action of support and development. The observation process conducted is based on a set of observation guidelines for observers to follow to assist observers implement unified practices when conducting classroom observation (Appendix B).

C. Supervisors and Supervisory Approaches

A supervisor is someone who has the duty of monitoring and improving the quality of teaching in a given educational situation. This may include inspectors, teacher trainers, educators, tutors, heads of departments, and curriculum specialists. The focus is on face to face interaction between a supervisor and a teacher with reference to classroom teaching previously observed in order to discuss teaching for the purpose of the teacher's professional development (Wallace, 1991). In the context of this study, the term will refer to teacher trainers who have been certified as Train the Trainers based on a certificate they have been awarded by an international organization.

The main goal of observation is to reach a mutual agreement between the supervisor and the teacher on employing better teaching methodologies. The supervisor listens to the teacher and then suggests solutions. Accordingly, the supervisor encourages teachers to employ alternative methods to improve the teaching quality (Widodo & Zakaria, 2008).

According to Wallace (1991), there are two approaches for supervision to follow with teachers. These are the prescriptive and the collaborative. In the prescriptive, the supervisor is the authority and the source of expertise who judges teachers' performance. On the other hand, in the collaborative approach, the supervisor is a colleague who shares expertise with the teacher. The main aim of this approach is to allow the teacher to reflect upon his own teaching for the purpose of professional development. So, the supervisor attempts to listen to the teacher carefully and help him/her take independent decisions. In this case, supervisors have an important role in improving the teacher’s performance. Some supervisors may use characteristics of both approaches using the prescriptive approach with less experienced teachers and the collaborative one with the experienced teachers.

In a similar direction to the approaches of prescriptive and collaborative, researchers suggested summative and formative assessment for teachers' performance. Some suggested separating the two roles of summative and formative assessment (Peterson, 2000; Cleveland et al. 1989). Peterson (2000) suggested two basic arguments made for separation. First, as the formative assessment has no summative consequences, teachers would reduce their defensiveness, they would show their weakness honestly and set challenging goals for their own development. In addition, they would willingly accept feedback and suggestions for performance improvement. Second, separation would enable the supervisor to make more effort on formative feedback to help teachers improve their teaching skills. In addition, Cleveland et al. (1989) argued that teachers' performance evaluation for summative purposes often involves the comparison among people, while formative evaluation focuses on an individual’s strengths and weaknesses.

Other researchers suggested mixing the two roles of summative and formative roles of performance evaluation (Prince & Lawler, 1986; Dorfman et al., 1986; Boswell & Boudreau, 2000) found that mixing summative and formative purposes in one meeting was not harmful to teachers' development. In these studies, the more formative assessment was used in teachers' performance evaluation, the better outcomes were achieved in terms of satisfaction and professional development.

The approach adopted in the study will be both prescriptive and collaborative. There is a numerical aspect which entitles supervisors to provide instructors with feedback on their performance. The scale ranges from "not demonstrated to outstanding. It also includes a place for comments, points of strength and action points. According to the observation guidelines, there is a pre-observation discussion to allow instructors to discuss teaching and learning. There is also a post-observation discussion where thoughtful questions are raised to encourage instructors to reflect upon their teaching practices. According to Wallace (1991), prescription has its function which includes authority of experience, but in a warm and pleasant manner. However, the goal is increased collaboration meant to improve the affective
relationship between the supervisor and the teacher to help teachers foster reflective practice and professional development.

D. Traditional and New Role of Supervisors

There are two roles that can be played by supervisors. The first one can be claimed to be traditional related to evaluating teachers’ performance, while the second is mainly meant at improving the teaching quality. Sheal (1989) stated that the traditional approach of classroom observation aimed at evaluating the teacher’s performance. In this approach, supervisors used to observe the teacher and then provide him/her with feedback of judgment without having the idea of improving the quality of teaching in mind. In this situation, the supervisor, sitting at the back of the class, would observe the performance of an anxious teacher who is trying his best to satisfy the supervisor (Akbari, Gaffar, & Tajik, 2006). During the observation process, the supervisor used a checklist to decide whether the teacher’s methodology was appropriate or not. After observation, the supervisor used to highlight some comments on the teacher’s methodology. The teacher, in turn, tried to defend himself/herself, stating that he would try to avoid the drawbacks raised by the supervisor (Akbari et al., 2006).

It can be seen clear that the stages discussed are decided by the supervisor, while the teacher has role of defense. In such a situation, the observation of a teacher’s performance does not contribute to the teacher’s professional development.

On the other hand, new roles of supervisors emerged in response to the traditional ones. These include planning for and observing the teacher’s performance without having in mind a judgmental role. In this regard, the main goal of observing the teaching process is not to judge teaching, but to identify both aspects of strength and action points. In this case, observation aims at improving teachers’ performance (Stroller, 1996). In this direction, English language institutes with experienced supervisors usually have successful teachers (Edmonds, 1979), because the supervisor plays a significant role in developing teacher’s attitude, creativity and decision-making (Cogan (1973). According to (Moradi, Sepehrifar, & Khadiv, 2014), cooperation is important between supervisors and teachers as it contributes to the teachers’ performance because both the supervisor and the teacher listen to each other and decide together how to take further action for the purpose of improving the teaching quality in various aspects related to teaching.

Farea (2013) maintained that supervisors play a key role in teachers’ professional development. Their main task should rely heavily on improving teachers’ performance. In this sense, supervisors can play various roles when observing teachers. A supervisor can be a resource of experience, an adviser, and feedback provider and an assessor (Gujjar, Ramzan, & Bajwa, 2011). Acheson & Gall (1997) introduced other various roles for supervisors. These may include being a mentor, counselor, a coach, a cooperating teacher, an inspector and a leader. In addition, Koç (2008) describes the supervisor’s roles as follows: he cooperates with the teacher to design the course outline and lesson plan; observes the teacher’s performance and provides him/her with comments to reflect upon; assists the teacher to put his/her teaching knowledge into practice; conducts scheduled meetings with teachers to discuss teaching methodologies; and exchanges ideas and expertise with teachers regarding their professional development.

E. Problem Statement and Objective

Based on the researcher’s professional contact with EFL instructors as a supervisor and teacher trainer, it has been noticed that they view classroom observation as a dreadful action meant to evaluate their performance in order to either hire or fire them. It is either to keep them in an institution or to terminate their contract. They see the supervisor as an authority whose main role is to judge their teaching performance, and that they act as defenders of their teaching practices. Few of them perceive it as a process that can be implemented for the purpose of identifying their needs in order to support them in their professional career. In addition, it might be claimed that it is easy to criticize teachers’ performance and hunt for their mistakes rather than being supportive. The new vision Taif University English Language Center is trying to enhance is that classroom observation is meant to appreciate teachers’ performance; it means that what teachers do is important; and it is an opportunity for them to reflect upon their teaching practices for further action of professional development.

F. Research Questions

This paper seeks to answer the following questions:

1- What is the present level of instructors’ performance?
2- What are the instructors’ points of strength?
3- What are the instructors’ points of weakness/ action points as a base for their needs?

G. Significance of the Study

The results of this paper will be important to:
- EFL instructors to reflect on their teaching performance in terms of their points of strength in order to transfer these to other colleagues, and to reflect on their action points that will form a base for their professional development.
- The Quality Assurance and Professional Development Unit in the English Language Center to consider the instructors’ points of strength and action points for further action of professional development. Points of strength can be
transferred to other colleagues as success stories, and action points will be the starting point for further training workshops on teachers' professional development.

- EFL scholars to consider the study recommendations for further related research.

II. REVIEW OF RELATED STUDIES

To the best of the researcher's knowledge, few studies have been conducted recently to investigate the evaluation of teachers' performance. However, there are studies related to the evaluation of performance in general. The most recent and relevant study was conducted by Kocak (2000) who investigated the evaluation process in the Turkish educational system. He pointed out that the results of the studies related to the evaluation process revealed that inspector-focused evaluation systems are not objective, reliable, or functional. According to him, there is a need for a system of teacher evaluation which is functional, transparent, and objective in order to develop the teaching quality system in Turkey. To achieve this purpose, he developed a teacher performance evaluation. The results showed that the scale of teachers' performance evaluation developed was valid and reliable in measuring teachers' performances.

Another relevant study on teachers' performance evaluation was conducted by Milanowski (2006) who studied the idea of splitting the roles of summative and formative performance evaluation. He pointed out that research papers on performance evaluation have argued that separating the two roles of summative and formative evaluation will bring about staff that is less defensive. They would be more open to discussing performance problems and accepting suggestions regarding their performance. Thus, evaluators will be able to provide more assistance toward improving performance. In his study on newly recruited teachers, he assigned them to two groups. The first group includes a split role where formative evaluation was provided by a peer mentor, and summative evaluation by managers and peer evaluators. The second group involves a combined role where formative evaluation and summative evaluation were provided by a peer. Teachers' responses were assessed using interviews, a survey, and performance ratings. The results revealed that there were no major differences between the groups in terms of teachers' openness to discussing the difficulties, accepting feedback, and the significance of performance development. These results have the implication of focusing on developmental assistance regardless the idea of splitting the roles of formative and summative evaluation.

Another study was conducted by Taylor & Tylor (2011) who studied the effect of evaluation on employee performance. He stated that employees can invest in evaluation for their development. They found that evaluation based on classroom evaluation and performance standards can improve teachers’ performance during evaluation and future endeavors of teachers' professional career.

III. METHOD

In this part, the researcher describes the procedures of data collection and analysis. It describes how the population and sample of the study were identified; how the study instrument was validated and checked for reliability; and the procedures followed for conducting the study and analyzing the data.

A. Population and Sample Selection

The population of the study consisted of ninety-five EFL instructors teaching English in the English Language Center at Taif University in the first semester of the academic year 2019-2010. Sixty-nine instructors were observed to achieve the study purposes.

B. Study Instrument

The researcher developed the observation checklist after reviewing related literature to find a tool to be used for identifying the EFL instructors' level of performance. The checklist includes a scale of four descriptive criteria (1= not demonstrated, 2= needs improvement, 3= satisfactory, 4= outstanding. There is also a place for observers to write their comments for each domain. At the end of the checklist, observers add their remarks on the instructors' points of strength and action points for further action of analysis and professional development. (Appendix A)

C. Instrument Validity and Reliability

In order to check the validity of the observation checklist, six EFL specialists were kindly requested to check if the domains and description of each domain were appropriate and relevant to the context. To check the instrument reliability, Cronbach alpha was used for this purpose. It was found 0.87, which is convenient.

D. Study Procedures

The researcher requested the approval of the English Language Center director to conduct the study. The director held a meeting with the supervisors who were assigned the task of observing the instructors’ performance to discuss the observation guidelines with them and receive their feedback so that there is consensus on the guidelines that will direct the observation process. The observation checklist was checked for validity and reliability. Having the consent of the instructors, the observation process was carried out. At the end of process, the researcher collected the observation checklist and processed the results using the appropriate statistical methods. Based on the study findings, the researcher came into a number of conclusions and recommendations.
E. Statistical Analysis

In order to answer the first question addressing the instructors’ level of performance, the researcher used descriptive statistical analysis including the use of means, standard deviation and percentages. Content analysis was used to answer the second and third questions which aimed to identify the instructors’ points of strength and action points for further professional development.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

To answer the first question addressing the instructors’ present level of performance, Table 1 shows means, standard deviation and percentages of their performance.

Key: 1= Not demonstrated 2= Needs improvement 3= Satisfactory 4= Outstanding

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Criteria</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Percentages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Std. Deviation</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Subject matter content</td>
<td>3.31</td>
<td>.58</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Organization</td>
<td>2.98</td>
<td>.71</td>
<td>1.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Rapport</td>
<td>3.30</td>
<td>.75</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Teaching methods</td>
<td>2.49</td>
<td>.88</td>
<td>11.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Presentation</td>
<td>2.98</td>
<td>.83</td>
<td>5.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Management</td>
<td>2.53</td>
<td>.88</td>
<td>8.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Sensitivity</td>
<td>3.27</td>
<td>.68</td>
<td>2.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Assistance to students</td>
<td>2.98</td>
<td>.757</td>
<td>2.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Personal</td>
<td>3.24</td>
<td>.60</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Physical aspects of classroom</td>
<td>2.82</td>
<td>.89</td>
<td>10.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is clear from the table above that the overall performance of instructors is either satisfactory or outstanding. The means, which are above 2, standard deviation and percentages indicate that the majority of instructors have performed well. This performance can be due to the fact that they have the competencies either from their teaching experience and that they have undertaken professional development courses conducted at the English Language Center. The professional development program has been conducted for five years now in order to develop the instructors’ knowledge and skills in various aspects of teaching and learning English as a foreign language. However, the least two domains as shown in the table above are "teaching methods" and "management" which got the means of 2.49 and 2.53 respectively. The means are more than 2, which indicate that they performed satisfactorily, but having a look at the percentages, it is clear that these two areas still need further consideration. In the area of teaching methods, 53.6% of the instructors need further professional development. In addition, the percentage of instructors’ performance in the domain of management is 55%, which is also an indication that they need to develop their competencies in this area.

What comes after these two domains are the areas of classroom. In these four areas, the instructors’ performance was satisfactory as the means were above 2. However, as the means are less than 3, it can be claimed that some instructors still need to work on these areas for further professional development. This, of course, goes with the idea that professional development is a continuous process where teachers need training while in the teaching profession based on their needs.
In order to answer the second question related to the instructors’ points of strength, Table 2 displays the strengths summarized according to their frequency:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Points of strength</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Motivating learners, which gets them involved</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>47.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Giving constructive feedback to learners</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>27.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Implementing differentiated instruction effectively</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>13.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Showing self-confidence</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>11.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is clear from the table above that the instructors observed have displayed certain competencies other than those shown in Table 1, but with different percentages. As stated earlier, the instructors joined a number of professional development sessions on areas related to teaching English as a foreign language, which could have enabled them to be more competent in these areas. The instructors who have displayed these competencies have been requested to run training sessions to cascade these skills to other colleagues. Meanwhile, as some areas received a little percentage, the instructors still need training sessions on these areas based on their professional development needs.

In order to answer the third question addressing the instructors’ points of weakness as action points, instructors need to consider for their professional development, Table 3 shows these action points according to their frequency of occurrence.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Points of weakness</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Classroom management (Time management, student grouping, discipline)</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>55.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Teacher-centered- Teacher talk time is too much</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>23.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Giving feedback to students on their performance</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>17.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>No organized way of using the board</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is clear from the table above that many instructors have training needs in issues related to classroom management such as time management, student grouping and discipline. This goes with the results discussed in table one. The most salient need is classroom management. Instructors also have needs in areas related to giving feedback to learners, teacher-centeredness, and effective use of the blackboard. These action points can be seen in terms of needs to be considered in the ongoing process of professional development run at TUELC. In addition, there are two competencies that were shown as points of strength and points weakness in some of the instructors’ performance as shown in Tables 2 and 3. This competency is providing learners with feedback. Some instructors were competent in this area, while others still need development. Here lies the importance of sharing experience between instructors in this area of teaching and learning.

V. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The present paper aimed to investigate EFL instructors’ performance at university level according to prescriptive and collaborative approaches in supervision. A number of experienced supervisors observed the instructors’ performance according to an observation checklist (Appendix A) which has both a numerical section to describe the instructors’ performance and provide them with feedback. The checklist has also two sections where the supervisors can observe other points of strength and points of weakness in the instructors’ performance. In these two sections, both supervisors and instructors can work collaboratively to discuss relevant teaching issues. It is the stage where the instructors get the opportunity to reflect on their teaching practices. In the observation process, the supervisors followed observation guidelines to maintain the objective of being supportive rather than judgmental while and after observing instructors (Appendix B). The results revealed that the majority of instructors’ performance was either satisfactory or outstanding. The instructors also displayed that they are competent in other areas discussed in Table 2. However, there are other areas of professional development shown in Tables 3 where instructors need to work on to develop their teaching competencies. The Quality Assurance and Development Unit in the English Language Center is recommended to consider the instructors’ points of strength to cascade training to other instructors. It is also recommended that more professional development sessions be conducted on action points revealed during the observation process.

Implications for future research

The results of this study have implications for the Quality Assurance and Development Unit in the English Language Center and EFL practitioners. The research is timely in the sense that it would be helpful for the Quality and Professional Development Unit to conduct more professional development sessions where the supervisors and instructors can further discuss and reflect on issues raised during the observation process. In these sessions, the instructors can share experience and reflect on teaching practices as well.
APPENDIX A. ENGLISH LANGUAGE CENTRE: CLASSROOM OBSERVATION FORM

Instructor: ________________________ Course __________________________________
Observer(s): _____________________ Date and Time _____________________________

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Review Section</th>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>Description/Comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Subject matter content</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
<td>shows good command and knowledge of subject matter; demonstrates breadth and depth of mastery</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organization</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
<td>organizes subject matter; evidences preparation; is thorough; states clear objectives; emphasizes and summarizes main points</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rapport</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
<td>holds interest of students; is respectful, fair, and impartial encouraging; interacts with students, shows enthusiasm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching methods</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
<td>uses relevant teaching and assessment methods, techniques, and technology; includes variety, balance, group involvement; uses examples that are simple, clear, precise, and appropriate; stays focused on and meets stated objectives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
<td>uses time wisely; attends to course interaction; demonstrates leadership ability; maintains discipline and control; maintains eye contact; uses a clear voice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sensitivity</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
<td>exhibits sensitivity to students’ personal culture, gender differences and disabilities, responds appropriately in a non-threatening, pro-active learning environment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assistance to students</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
<td>assists students with academic problems; uses differentiated instruction techniques</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
<td>evidences self-confidence; maintains professional comportment and appearance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical aspects of classroom</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
<td>states location and physical attributes of classroom, number of students in attendance, layout of room, distractions if any; list any observations of how physical aspects affected content delivery</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Key: 1= Not demonstrated  2= Needs improvement  3= satisfactory 4= Outstanding

APPENDIX B. TEACHERS’ PERFORMANCE AND OBSERVATION GUIDELINES

Introduction
In response to the instructors’ concerns raised when classroom observation is conducted in terms of supervisors’ judgmental policy when observing teachers’ performance, the researcher developed a set of observation guidelines and discussed them with the supervisors for comments and suggestions. These guidelines help the supervisors to adopt a supportive rather than a judgmental one when implementing the observation process. It consists of rationale, objectives, and guidelines that govern the procedures to be followed by the supervisors. The researcher consulted and adapted a document by Knol (2018) to add to his ideas of the observation guidelines section to be conducted for the purposes of being supportive rather than judgmental.

Rationale
Classroom observation has been perceived as a dreadful action meant to evaluate teachers’ performance in order to either hire or fire them. It is either to keep them in an institution or to terminate their contract. In addition, it might be claimed that it is easy to criticize teachers’ performance and hunt for their mistakes rather than being supportive. The new vision Taif University English Language Center is trying to enhance is that observation is meant to appreciate teachers’ performance; it means that what teachers do is important; and it is an opportunity for their professional growth.

Objectives
Classroom observation is meant to serve the following purposes:
1- To foster the fact that there is a plenty of opportunity to show teachers’ strengths.
2- To appreciate teachers’ performance rather than evaluating it.
3- To support teachers rather than criticize them.
4- To encourage teachers to reflect on their teaching practices by asking them relevant questions on what went well and action points need to be considered.

Observation Guidelines
1. Make teachers feel valued
The supervisor contacts the teacher in person to arrange a time to visit his class. He greets him with a smile and expresses his willing to see his class. He mentions that he respects the teacher’s work and is excited to see him in action.
2- The Pre-observation Discussion
The supervisor conducts a pre-observation discussion to help alleviate anxiety and provide the observer with information about what he would like to accomplish on the day of the visit. The collaborative nature of the pre-observation dialogue provides an opportunity for the observer and the instructor to reflect upon and discuss teaching and learning and to experience the observation and feedback process as a means to improve teaching rather than simply as a form of evaluation and judgment.

3. **Look for learning, not teaching**
   The supervisor should focus on the idea that he is observing the learning process instead of observing an instructor teaching a lesson. Here are some questions to help guide the supervisor.
   - What do we want students to learn?
   - How do we know students are learning?
   - What do we do when we find out students are not learning?

4. **Thank teachers publicly**
   At the end of the lesson, the supervisor should thank the teacher for the opportunity to spend a period in his classroom. He does this in front of his students.

5. **Follow up quickly and kindly**
   The supervisor should follow up quickly with a post-observation discussion to discuss points of strengths and action points, and encourage the instructor to reflect upon their teaching practices.

6. **Show you paid attention**
   When the supervisor and the teacher meet to talk about the lesson, the supervisor should have thoughtful follow-up questions. He does not simply read off of his report. Instead, he leads an interesting conversation that enhances teachers' reflection on his teaching practices.

7. **Use exploratory language not judgmental**
   Using exploratory language when giving teachers feedback helps him discover action points and emphasize the point that the observer is supportive. Instead of asking the teacher: why didn't you explain the aim of the lesson?, instead of saying: some learners weren't clear what to do for the first task. You need to check your instructions, the observer can say: I saw some students didn't know what to do. What do you think caused this?

**ACKNOWLEDGMENTS**

The researcher would like to acknowledge the contribution of the supervisors and instructors who participated in the observation process. Thanks go to the supervisors for their feedback on the observation guidelines. Many thanks go to the EFL specialists for validating the study instrument. Sincere thanks also go to the instructors who were observed.

**REFERENCES**


**Thaer Issa Tawalbeh** was born in the Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan on June, 10, 1968. He got his B.A. in English Language and Literature from Yarmouk University, Jordan in 1986. In 1997, he got his M.A. in TEFL from Yarmouk University. In 2005, he graduated from Anman Arab University for Graduate Studies with a PhD in TEFL.

His teaching experience ranges from being a teacher of English, a supervisor, the head of foreign languages division in the Jordanian Ministry of Education, and an instructor in the University of Jordan and the Arab Open University in Jordan. He has been the supervisor of the Academic Coordination and Follow up Unit at Taif University English Language Center since 2017. He got “Train the Trainer” Certificate from Cambridge University Press in 2018. He published a number of articles. The latest ones are: Investigating EFL Learners’ Multiple Intelligences in the Preparatory Year at Taif University; EFL instructors’ perceptions of Blackboard Learning Management System (LMS) at University Level; and - Instructors' Perceptions of English for Academic Purposes Textbooks at University Level.

His research areas focus on teachers’ professional development, and curricula development and evaluation. Thaer has participated in a number of international conferences and seminars such as TESOL Arabia and IATEFL and presented papers in conferences.
Lexico-grammatical Analysis of Native and Non-native Abstracts Based on Halliday’s SFL Model

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Abstract—The present study attempts to qualitatively investigate lexico-grammatical properties of academic journal abstracts written by both native and non-native speakers in educational psychology, based on Halliday’s systemic functional linguistic (SFL) Model. To this end, 30 (15 native and 15 non-native) abstracts were selected and downloaded from two international journals as the corpus of the study. In order to determine lexico-grammatical features of both groups, the frequencies of three variables i.e. lexical density, adjuncts, and transitivity were compared and contrasted. The results showed that no significant difference was seen between native and non-native abstracts in terms of lexical density (59.72% and 59.91% respectively). Adjuncts were used more in the non-native abstracts than in native ones. Moreover, lexico-grammatical features of transitivity items (existential, verbal, behavioral, mental, material, and relational) in non-native abstracts were significantly more than the native ones. The findings of this study can be useful for EFL students as well as teachers to enhance the quality of their writings for presenting them in academic contexts and leading journals.

Index Terms—Halliday’s SFL model, lexico-grammatical features, native and non-native abstracts

I. INTRODUCTION

Globalization is the newest issue that the world is moving toward. Obviously such fast-developing process needs having interaction and communication with people around the world. Not only translation makes the mentioned interaction possible, but also it is directly associated with the best quality of development in different areas. Academic research is growing up and its lexical features in the process of translation need to be more precise to be transferred for being compatible with lexical features of the native researchers. This work would be possible by applying Halliday’s systemic functional linguistic (SFL) model to know more about the relationship between the semantic notions conveyed through lexical items.

Standards of the academic journals are usually in the light of native English language patterns. This issue would be more vital when non-native researchers carry out a research and submit it to a native journal. Therefore, those research conducted by non-natives will not have the criteria of being published in the native journals, if the author is not aware of the lexical patterns. Due to the existence of this problem in non-native translations as well as the problem of compatibility with the native texts, it seems necessary to shed more light on semantic aspects and lexico-grammatical patterns of native texts which include transitivity, adjunct and lexical density. Contradictions between lexico-grammatical patterns of native and non-native texts caused more significant differences between native and non-native research quality.

Systemic functional linguistic (SFL): According to Michel O’Donnell (2011) “SFL is an approach to language developed by M.A.K. Halliday and his followers during the 1960s in the United Kingdom, and later in Australia” (p. 1). Halliday’s Systemic Functional Linguistics is from among the most outstanding and remarkable theories which is widely applicable in linguistics and literature.

Martin (1984) and Paltridge (2012) believed that a target-based, staged, and determined activity that the author or speaker tries to involve his/her culture and conditions in that can be a definition for genre. People have designed corpus for the aim of analysis, therefore they normally select texts to provide a sample of particular text-types, or genres, or a piece of spoken and/or written discourse (Stubbs, 2004).

Transitivity: According to Halliday and Matthiessen (2004) transitivity includes the processes, in the verbal group, the participants (human/non-human) who are participating in these processes, in the noun group, the circumstances in which the processes occur and the when, where, and how they take place, in the prepositional phrase and adverbial group.

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Lexical density: Based on Halliday (1994), lexical density measures the density of information in a text and analyzes the compaction of lexical items which arranged into the grammatical structure.

Adjunct: Almurashi (2016) maintained that adjunct is a subcategory of mood analysis which includes adjunct, subject and finite. In fact, adjunct is the structurally dispensable and optional part of a sentence, clause, or phrase that will not be able to change the meaning by removing from that sentence. Also, according to White (2000), the time, place, and the manner of the happenings are shown by adjuncts, as it is possible to be positive or negative to show different sides of a clause.

The research was established based on the theory of systemic functional linguistic (SFL). In fact, SFL is a particular method to linguistics who think of language as a social semiotic system, this system was enriched by Michael Halliday; this concept was taken from his professor, J. R. Firth. According to Martin (1997) “Functional linguistics are fundamentally concerned with showing how the organization of language to relate to its use” (p. 4).

According to Halliday (1994); Halliday and Matthiessen (2004); Halliday and Webster (2009), three main metafunctions can be considered in language in the theory of systemic functional linguistics. The mentioned metafunctions can be identified in any piece of language use including ideational, interpersonal and textual. The ideational metafunction comprises human’s perception of the world and the relationship between the concepts and entities. The social role and potentials of language that were proven by the interpersonal metafunction. Finally, the factors that textual metafunction deals with are the arrangement and the emphasis on various parts and elements in utterances and clauses. Accordingly, based on Eggin (2004); Halliday (1994); Halliday and Matthiessen (2004); Martin, Matthiessen, and Painter (1997); Thompson (1996, 2004), there of the most important determinants determined the aforementioned metafunctions. They are field, tenor, and mode. Field is the first one which is parallel to the ideational metafunction, or the subject of content, or the notions and concepts that are the matter of discussions. The other name given to this term is “a discourse type”. People’s social ranks and relations, that is based on interpersonal metafunction, are categorized as the other factor which believe that they are involved in a linguistic exchange. Mode, the last factor, runs parallel to textual metafunction and pertains to the form and format of the text being produced and exchanged that written and spoken can be named as the simplest examples.

Lexical density, the most frequent lexical items, and keywords are three parts of lexical features’ analysis. Based on Halliday (1994), information density of a text is measured by its lexical density. “According to how tightly the lexical items have been packed into the grammatical structure” (p. 76).

Process in SFL is the semantic phenomenon realized by verbs. The accompanying participants are specified in the light of the type of process (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004). Halliday and Matthiessen (2004) believe that “there are six main process types in English. The grammar of experience: process types in English. The processes of the outer experience in the world are referred to the material processes, while those denoting the inner experience, or the experience of consciousness, are referred to as mental processes. The processes expressing the theory and practice in language studies or relation between two fragments of experience are called relational processes. Verbal processes refer to those that are induced by inner experience and involve any type of saying or doing something with language.

As Halliday and Matthiessen (2004); Praxedes Filho (2004); Yuli and Yushan (2012) said, behavioral processes are what we see as the manifestation of the real feelings, experiences, and decisions like crying. Finally, the existential process type refers to verbs that accordingly all phenomena of all kinds are simply recognized to “be”, or “exist”. The point needs to be clarified that these are the main process types of most of languages.”

It is worthwhile to add that Halliday’s SFL model is general and can be used in a variety of the fields like education, translation, discourse analysis, history, sociology and children language development. Therefore, according to Halliday and Webster (2009) lots of research used SFL model in their works and interestingly attractive and enticing results and implications were found in the foregoing and the rest of the fields.

SFL is a broad and widely-accepted approach to analyze language with respect to its functional meaning (Young & Harrison, 2004). Therefore, its application is very far-reaching, effective, and productive (Banks, 2002).

Another similar study conducted by Almurashi (2016) entitled “An introduction to Halliday’s systemic functional linguistics”. It precisely explained the keywords of SFL and gave an applicable tradition, some instances for showing the value of applying SFL precisely, and also the positive points and gains of dealing with SFL as a communicative motivation in language learning. It obviously was a general topic in comparison with the present research.

In terms of the articles analyzed academic abstracts as the source of text analysis, Valipour, Aidinlu, and Asl (2016) have conducted a research entitled “Investigating lexico-grammaticality in academic abstracts and their full research papers from a diachronic perspective”. Three disciplines, with one field as a subcategory in each discipline, were under concentration in this study. Besides, BNC general English was used as the reference corpus. The factors analyzed in both abstracts and full articles included lexical patterns, keywords and keenness value. According to the results of this study, comparison with general English and particularly the use of specific lexical items, a wide variety of the probable lexical realizations were used differently.

Likewise, beside analyzing lexico-grammatical features of academic abstracts, Holtz (2011), analyzed full articles too, then he compared the mentioned properties to see the difference between these two text types in a broader linguistic context. In his corpus which was based on practices in corpus linguistics, he decided to compile and process texts in the field of computer science, linguistics, biology, and mechanical engineering. Interestingly, he found out there is a
significant distinction between the abstracts and their research together with a clear domain specific variation. Although different methodologies were used in these two articles, both of them identified similar results.

Holtz (2011), performed a twofold methodology including deductive empirical analysis and an inductive empirical analysis to corroborate the outcomes of the deductive analysis, while Valipour et al. (2016) analyzed lexicogrammatical variations of the corpus synchronically, diachronically, and over time to conduct their research and then they used Word Smith Tools Software for the corpus analysis and then SPSS has been used.

The findings of another research carried out by Norouzi, Farahani, and Farahani (2012) entitled “Deverbal nominalizations across written-spoken dichotomy in the language of science” revealed that the mostly-used elements were the verbs in spoken modality and nominalizations in written. Besides, both verbs and deverbal nominalizations accounted as the most frequent material process types. (Verb categorization base and the other related nominalized editions employed their process typology from Halliday’s systemic functional grammar framework.) Lower frequency of nominalizations proved the fact that from among the verbs, relational process types were assigned the second highest frequency.

Norouzi et al. (2012), focused on both written and spoken materials, but Rodriguez Arancón (2013) just focused on written materials and analyzed essays done by Universidad Nacional de Educacion a Distancia (UNED) students. This written corpus was just selected from the essays of L2 students in Business English course. Particular types of lexicogrammatical errors were the source analysis in the form of three macro-functions of SFL-based genre analysis. The chosen text of this corpus was analyzed in three different ways for transitivity, mood and theme. Each analysis corresponded to the exploration of field, tenor and mode. Results of this study have shown that if genre’s forms of canonical could be controlled better, students can write more creatively and communicatively with less errors because they can view the text as a whole piece of language.

In a separate article, the spoken augural addresses of America’s President were analyzed by Huen (2011). He selected political context of a presidential debate (President Barack Obama and George W. Bush) in a way that it was completely spoken, on the contrary of Rodriguez Arancón’s article which analyzed lexicogrammatical aspects of a written text. In order to have a deep understanding of systemic functional linguistics, the unit of evaluation was clause (exactly in two levels of clauses including within the clause and beyond the clause) that was suitable for analyzing transitivity structure, clause-complex logical relations, the organization of functionally-significant text spans, and thematic progression. As Bush’s text was used as the reference, Obama’s lexicogrammatical analysis is in a way that one to two kind of transitivity structure with stable process type and participants were employed, small number of theme was used, a considerable and logical number of rhetorical structures were used that consequently shows that in terms of lexicogrammatical options, both of them had some likeness and dissimilarity.

In a research paper presented in a conference entitled “Lexical density and readability - a case study in English textbooks”, it is found that although a common sense of lexical density exists, it is probable that the typical type of complexity in written language (Halliday, 1985) rise regularly with the text levels and their readability; as a result, there was not any significant relationship between them in reading comprehension texts. Another important point of this article mentioned by To, Fan, and Thomas (2013) is that on the contrary to the present research, that linguistic complexity of the texts in English textbooks was mostly pertained to its grammatical aspects, not lexical density.

Teich, Janich, and Holtz (2011) found that for distinguishing the tenor of discourse and its categorizations, social distance, and social role relationship, signs and indicators of which are modals, nominalizations, sentence length, vocabularies, type/token ratio, and grammatical complexity, abstracts and research articles were significantly different; that is, they used less modals than research articles. Also, with respect to SFL perspective on collocation, it is found that sign and its habitual contexts have a dependent relationship, however many other linguists choose collocation analysis by the use of large-scale corpus analysis (Gledhill, 2009).

Based on the results of two articles conducted by Henrique (2004) and Pedro Henrique Lima Praxedes Filho, a high level of spoken and written narrative’s complexity was seen which were 87.61% and 94.14% for separate levels of complexity and 90.72% for mixed level complexity. Additionally, in order to gain the advanced level of lexicogrammatical complexity, using SFG was strongly recommended in this article.

The objectives of this research are:

1. To examine the significant differences between native and non-native abstracts in terms of transitivity (process types).
2. To examine the differences between native and non-native abstracts in terms of lexical density.
3. To analyze mood of abstracts and determine different types of adjuncts.

Publishing an article in a native journal with high IF is what every researcher seeks that needs following writing standards of English language. To obtain this object, providing a native translation plays a crucial role. The implication and result of this research can be finding a resort to recognize clearly the differences between what is called as native and non-native texts and also finding a solution for decreasing such lexicogrammatical differences between these two types of texts. In fact, this research aimed at exploring observable linguistic features at lexicogrammatical level, and evaluating them quantitatively to answer the following research questions:

1. Is there any significant difference between native and non-native abstracts in terms of transitivity (process types)?
2. Is there any significant difference between native and non-native abstracts in terms of lexical density?
3. Is there any significant difference between native and non-native abstracts in terms of modality (adjunct)?

In order to solve the upcoming related problems, more effort is needed in the field of text analysis. If a researcher is about to write an academic article, s/he should forget about translation and the structure of the first language; instead, it is suggested to focus on the structure of the target language as more as possible. Sources of these problems will be found through analyzing transitivity, mood analysis, and lexical density based on Halliday’s SFL model.

II. METHODOLOGY

Research design: This research has exploited a qualitative approach, analyzing the data through text analysis method.

Research material: The corpus of this research comprised 30 (15 native and 15 non-native) academic abstracts downloaded from two journals specialized in educational psychology. They were compared and contrasted in terms of lexical patterns. In order to have a text analysis with high precision, both categories were selected from the same discipline, within a time distance of 4 years.

Data collection procedure: As was stated above, educational psychology was used as discipline for downloading both native and non-native abstracts. The native abstracts were downloaded from the online Journal of Indigenous Research, Utah State University, (https://digitalcommons.usu.edu/kicjir/about.html). The focus of this publication is on research conducted with indigenous populations, with emphasis on psychology, education, and general health students.

Non-native abstracts were taken from Educational Psychology (Edupyschol-UK), published by Taylor & Francis (Routledge), which is also an online journal (www.bps.org.uk/publications/JEP_1.cfm). The theme of this international journal is inclusively related to research in psychology and education.

Thirty academic abstracts were chosen from the above journals in order to show the variations caused by stylistic tendency of these journals. In order to increase the reliability of the research, the regulated principles of sampling methods were applied in data collection, i.e. they were selected based on purposive sampling method to cover the expected discourse community, which is educational psychology in the present research.

Data analysis procedure: The selected data were analyzed manually and the numerical results were tabulated in the following tables. Besides, there are three more tables in the result section, Table 13 shows the lexical density and expected discourse community, which is educational psychology in the present research.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE 1.</th>
<th>SAMPLE OF TEXT ANALYSIS OF A NON-NATIVE ABSTRACT, SENTENCE 1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sentence 1</td>
<td>The aim of this study was to investigate the <strong>interplay between</strong> test anxiety and working memory (WM) on mathematics performance in <strong>younger children</strong>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transitivity</td>
<td>Relational Process (<strong>interplay between</strong>)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Modality</td>
<td>Circumstantial (<strong>younger children</strong>)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lexical density</td>
<td>12 out of 23</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE 2.</th>
<th>SAMPLE OF TEXT ANALYSIS OF A NON-NATIVE ABSTRACT, SENTENCE 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sentence 2</td>
<td>A sample of 624 grade 3 students <strong>completed</strong> a test battery consisting of a test anxiety scale, WM tasks and the Swedish national examination in mathematics for <strong>grade 3</strong>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transitivity</td>
<td>Behavioral process (<strong>completed</strong>)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Modality</td>
<td>Adjunct: circumstantial (<strong>grade 3, Swedish</strong>)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lexical density</td>
<td>20 out of 29</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE 3.</th>
<th>SAMPLE OF TEXT ANALYSIS OF A NON-NATIVE ABSTRACT, SENTENCE 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sentence 3</td>
<td>The main effects of test anxiety and WM, and the two-way <strong>interaction</strong> between test anxiety and WM on mathematics performance, were <strong>modelled</strong> with structural equation modelling techniques.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transitivity</td>
<td>Behavioral process (<strong>modelled</strong>)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Modality (adjunct)</td>
<td>Relational process (<strong>interaction</strong>)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lexical density</td>
<td>Existential adjuncts: <strong>--------</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>17 out of 27</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE 4.</th>
<th>SAMPLE OF TEXT ANALYSIS OF A NON-NATIVE ABSTRACT, SENTENCE 4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sentence 4</td>
<td><strong>Additionally</strong>, the effects were also <strong>tested</strong> separately on tasks with high WM demands (mathematical problem-solving) versus low WM demands (basic arithmetic). As expected, WM <strong>positively predicted</strong> mathematics performance in all three models (overall mathematics performance, problem-solving tasks, and basic arithmetic).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transitivity</td>
<td>Behavioral process (<strong>tested</strong>)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Modality (adjunct)</td>
<td>Mental process (<strong>predicted</strong>)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Adjunct: conjunctive (<strong>Additionally</strong>)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>adjunct: circumstantial (<strong>positively predicted</strong>)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>adjunct: circumstantial (<strong>versus</strong>)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lexical density</td>
<td>(32 out of 40)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 5. Sample of Text Analysis of a Non-Native Abstract, Sentence 5

| Sentence 5 | Test anxiety had a negative effect on problem-solving on the whole sample level but concerning basic arithmetic only students with lower WM were affected by the negative effects of test anxiety on performance. |
| Transitivity | Existential process: had |
| Modality (adjunct) | negative adjunct: circumstantial: negative effects |
| Lexical density | (21 out of 33) |

Table 6. Sample of Text Analysis of a Non-Native Abstract, Sentence 6

| Sentence 6 | Thus, students with low WM are more vulnerable to the negative effects of test anxiety in low WM tasks like basic arithmetic. |
| Transitivity | Existential process: are |
| Modality (adjunct) | adjunct: conjunctive: thus |
| Lexical density | (14 out of 22) |

Table 7. Sample of Text Analysis of a Non-Native Abstract, Sentence 7

| Sentence 7 | The results are discussed in relation to the early identification of test anxiety. |
| Transitivity | Verbal process: discussed |
| Modality | Relational process: in relation to |
| Lexical density | (7 out of 13) |

Table 8. Sample of Text Analysis of a Native Abstract, Sentence 1

| Sentence 1 | Teaching Indigenous students environmental education through an interdisciplinary learning approach takes advantage of a more holistic perspective that these students share. |
| Transitivity | Behavioral process: teaching |
| Modality (adjunct) | adjunct: circumstantial: more holistic perspective |
| Lexical density | (13 out of 21) |

Table 9. Sample of Text Analysis of a Native Abstract, Sentence 2

| Sentence 2 | Students enrolled in three different Native American and Indigenous Studies courses were asked to contribute to a class capstone project. |
| Transitivity | Verbal process: were asked |
| Modality (adjunct) | Behavioral process: contribute |
| Lexical density | (14 out of 20) |

Table 10. Sample of Text Analysis of a Native Abstract, Sentence 3

| Sentence 3 | The three projects consisted of a land acquisition and management proposal with the Miami Nation of Indiana, a proposal for a forest management plan for the Keeewenaw Bay Indian Community, and environmental histories of the Miami, Potawatomi, and Shawnee in Indiana. |
| Transitivity | Existential process: consisted of |
| Modality (adjunct) | adjunct: circumstantial: Miami Nation of Indiana |
| Lexical density | (23 out of 41) |

Table 11. Sample of Text Analysis of a Native Abstract, Sentence 4

| Sentence 4 | The development of these service and community projects in natural resource management and environmental studies promoted an interdisciplinary teaching method because students had multiple considerations before, during, and after the creation of the assigned tasks. |
| Transitivity | Behavioral process: promoted |
| Modality (adjunct) | Conjunctive adjunct: because |
| Lexical density | Circumstantial adjunct: interdisciplinary teaching method Mood adjunct: before, during, and after |
| | (19 out of 35) |

Table 12. Sample of Text Analysis of a Native Abstract, Sentence 5

| Sentence 5 | These projects were designed to build capacity with students enrolled in the courses and to promote tribal sovereignty. |
| Transitivity | Mental process: were designed |
| Modality (adjunct) | |
| Lexical density | (10 out of 18) |
III. Results and Analysis

After downloading the articles and counting the number of their lexical density, adjuncts including conjunctive and circumstantial, and process types including material, mental, relational, verbal, behavioral, and existential, the following results were obtained which is considerable in three

Table 13. Lexical Density and Percentage of Native and Non-Native Abstracts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Lexical density</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Non-native</td>
<td>1461 out of 2466</td>
<td>59.91%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Native</td>
<td>1281 out of 2145</td>
<td>59.72%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As it is depicted in Table 13, from among the selected abstracts, results of lexical density of 30 native and non-native abstracts and their percentages are shown. Accordingly, lexical density of non-native abstracts, from among 2466 words, is 1461 and lexical density of native abstracts, from among 2145 words, is 1281. As a result, total percentage of non-native and native abstracts are 59.91% and 59.72% respectively.

Table 14. Adjuncts’ Subcategories Frequency of Native and Non-Native Abstracts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Conjunctive frequency</th>
<th>Circumstantial frequency</th>
<th>Vocative frequency</th>
<th>Modal frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Non-native</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Native</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to Table 14, mood analysis (adjuncts) divided into four two types including modal, vocative, conjunctive and circumstantial that the results of the third and fourth ones in non-native abstracts were 54 and 96 respectively. The same results for native abstracts were 39 and 93 respectively. Adding this issue is important that the modal and vocative did not have any example in such academic abstracts, this is why their frequency is 0.

Table 15. Frequency of Transitivity’s Subcategories of the Native and Non-Native Abstracts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Material</th>
<th>Mental</th>
<th>Relational</th>
<th>Verbal</th>
<th>Behavioral</th>
<th>Existential</th>
<th>Sum</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Non-native</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>108</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Native</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As it is depicted in Table 15, transitivity divided into 6 process types including material, mental, relational, verbal, behavioral, and existential processes. Total number of transitivity items are 108 in non-natives and 80 in natives. Separate results for material, mental, relational, verbal, behavioral, and existential processes in non-native abstracts were 3, 23, 7, 36, 24, and 15 respectively. Obviously, verbal process type was the most frequent one and material process type had the least frequency. Also, the results in native abstracts were 12, 13, 6, 19, 15, and 15 respectively. As it is considerable in this table, verbal process type was the most frequent one which was almost half of the ones in non-native process types and existential process type had the least frequency. On the contrary of the mental processes in non-native abstracts and the existential processes in native ones, both native and non-native ones used equal verbal and behavioral processes; however, verbal, mental, and behavioral process types were the most common processes.

IV. Discussion

The percentage of lexical density in native and non-native abstracts was 59.91% and 59.72% respectively. Therefore, there was not any significant difference between the native and non-native abstracts in terms of lexical density. From among different methods of measuring lexical density, Halliday’s (1989) method was used in this research. In fact, the number of lexical words in a clause as lexical density was taken into consideration by him. Based on Halliday, if the values for lexical density are higher than 10, texts even become difficult to read (Valipour et al., 2016): However, chi-squares result of Valipour et al. (2016) analysis for each discipline regarding the transitivity and mood depicted that there are significant differences between papers over time at .05 level of significance (.000<.05), therefore their results in terms of mood analysis (adjuncts) are in line with the results of the present research, but regarding transitivity is not in-line with the results of the present research.

Regarding another article carried out by Huen (2011) which was about spoken augural addresses of America’s Presidents, Bush and Obama, lexico-grammatical analysis has shown the application of some of the transitivity structures with stable process type, which is in line with the results of the present research in terms of transitivity.

Choice of words is, actually, meaningful in the principle of functional grammar. Functions of the word and also its meaning by the choice of the words were under focus in this principle. (Ye, 2010). In comparison with non-native abstracts, lexical density in the native abstracts was not based on the Halliday’s standards. Also, lexical density in the non-native abstracts was not quite close to Halliday’s theory, but the length of the sentences in non-native abstracts was shorter than the native ones.

The analyzed abstracts were informative and most of their clauses and sentences were structured based on declarative mood indicated that the communicated information is very strong and factual-based. This mood type strengthens the
text’s appeal to the readers/listeners (Noor, Ali, Muhabat, & Kazemian, 2015). Mood analysis of native and non-native abstracts showed that the native sentences were grammatically structured based on the standards. In such kind of the text, this is what one would expect that accordingly interrogatives or imperatives would be super unusual (Banks, 2002). Also, mood analysis of non-native abstracts depicted that the mentioned regulations and principles of grammatical structures were not considered as existed in native abstracts. Analyzing the types of adjuncts showed that non-natives used mood, conjunctive and modal adjuncts. This premise in native abstracts is evident too, except the fact that the level of using conjunctive adjunct was different. Native abstracts were well-organized in a way that they did not require considerable conjunctive adjuncts to connect to different parts. Therefore, both native and non-native abstracts were used at the same level of mood and circumstantial adjuncts, but the frequency of using conjunctive adjunct in the non-natives were significantly higher than the natives (54 and 39). The frequency of circumstantial adjunct used in both native and non-native abstracts showed that there is a kind of tendency toward the elicitation of the issues in educational psychology through the extended use of the circumstantial adjunct. Although using this type of adjunct caused the sentences to be lengthy in both native and non-native abstracts, it makes the meaning more explicit.

The transitivity analysis of process types indicated that the most frequent process type used in the native abstracts were verbal, behavioral, and existential, but in non-native abstracts the most frequent process types were verbal, behavioral, and mental. These two types are having a minor, but close relationship with each other that will be considered by some commentators, or even see verbal process as a sub-group of mental process (Berry & Matthiessen, 1996). The rare use of material process in both native and non-native abstracts showed the weak relationship between the notions and entities (Banks, 2002). The distribution frequency of the processes in Table 15 has shown that after the verbal and behavioral processes, the mental process in non-native abstracts and existential process in native abstracts enjoyed the highest level. In comparison with technical texts that material process was the most commonly-used element in their texts, transitivity analysis of psychological texts has shown that the verbal, mental and behavioral processes were the most frequently-used processes.

V. CONCLUSION

The present research is actually an extension to the similar research conducted by previous researchers, and provides an adequate starting point for the EFL learners owing to its practical nature. The findings of this study have implications for novice writers who would like to present their writings in academic settings. They further reveal that Halliday’s SFL model can be an acceptable and effective model for language analysis of religious texts. The presentation of the tabulated forms is also very helpful for the beginners. The findings can, in fact, be exploited by such extended groups as journal editors, teachers and students. They can help them improve their writing in a right, accurate and academic mode. A final word is that based on the findings of this research, through gaining standard and high quality writing, non-natives can boost their chance to publish their articles in journals with high impact factors.

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A Corpus-based 3M Approach to the Teaching of English Unaccusative Verbs

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Abstract—This study attempts to take a corpus-based approach to teaching English unaccusative verbs to Chinese students in a 3M way, which is a combination of implicit and explicit instructions. It finds that Chinese students welcome the corpus-based approach and are excited to see the concordance lines retrieved from the Chinese English Learner Corpus (CLEC). And they prefer explicit instructions by the teacher, which they think is insightful and useful. But they are not keen about figuring out the usages of the target words from the context, which they think is a bit boring. This suggests that Chinese students, who have been accustomed to being spoon-fed by their teachers, are not highly autonomous. This study concludes that the corpus-based 3M approach is in general effective for the teaching of English unaccusative verbs.

Index Terms—vocabulary teaching, English unaccusative verbs, Corpus-based approach, 3M approach

I. INTRODUCTION

The Unaccusative Hypothesis (Burzio, 1986; Perlmutter, 1978) suggests that intransitive verbs are not homogenous, but can be further divided into unaccusatives (e.g., appear, happen, melt, and sink) and unergatives (e.g., cry, jump, work). The sole NP of an unaccusative plays the role of theme and is projected as the object at the D-structure, whereas the only NP of an unergative acts as the agent and is projected as the subject the D-structure. As far as English is concerned, both unaccusatives and unergatives canonically appear the NP-V structure, which makes it hard to detect their difference on the surface. What’s more, many English unaccusatives can be used as transitives without any morphological changes. Therefore, English unaccusatives are divided into non-alternating and alternating unaccusatives, according to their ability to participate in the transitivity alternation. Alternating unaccusatives can be used as both intransitives and transitives (e.g., The ice melted and The sun melted the ice); whereas non-alternating ones can be used only as intransitives, but not as transitives (e.g., The ball disappeared and The magician disappeared the ball).

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. L2 acquisition of English Unaccusative Verbs

English, as a configurational language, represents grammatical relations in a sentence configurationally rather than in terms of morphological case (Zobl, 1989). Since English is a nominative-accusative language system, its canonical alignment between thematic roles and grammatical relations is agent-subject and theme-object. That is to say, the thematic role of agent is typically projected to the grammatical subject position, while the thematic role of theme is typically projected to the grammatical object position. Zobl (1989) suggests that this non-canonical way of mapping without any morphological changes poses a challenge to L2 learners in acquiring English unaccusatives.

It is found that L2 learners are apt to make errors with English unaccusatives, irrespective of their first languages (L1) (Cai, 2000; Deguchi and Oshita, 2004; Hirakawa, 2000; Hwang, 1999; Ju, 2000; Mo 2012; Yip, 1995; Zobl, 1989). Montrul (2005) notes that there are four types of unaccusative errors in L2 English. First is passivization, which refers to L2 learners’ production and acceptance in judgment tasks of non-alternating and alternating unaccusatives in the NP-Be-Ven structure (e.g., The book was disappeared or The bridge was broken). Second is avoidance, which refers to L2 learners’ reluctance to accept non-alternating and alternating unaccusatives in the NP-V structure in judgment tasks (e.g., A leaf fell or The fish burned in the pan). The third error is L2 learners’ production and acceptance in judgment tasks of non-alternating unaccusatives in the V-NP structure with or without an expletive (e.g., There/It/ arrived a strange man). The fourth error is transitivization, which refers to L2 learners’ production and acceptance in judgment tasks of non-alternating unaccusatives in the NP1-V-NP2 structure (e.g., The man disappeared his wallet). Of these four types of unaccusative-related errors, passivization is most frequently reported. According to Oshita (2000), it is one of the most universal, conspicuous and persistent errors of L2 English. In contrast, avoidance is much less noticeable. It won’t become an issue unless in experimental settings like judgment tasks. Production of postverbal NP structures for unaccusatives is often limited to L2 learners whose L1s have null expletives. Transitivization is observable in L2 English, but much less frequently than passivization.

Sorace (1995) observes that there are variations among unaccusatives in that some verbs show consistent unaccusative behaviors across different languages and in different contexts while other verbs do not. In her study of
Italian unaccusatives, Sorace identifies three pairs of semantic determinants: dynamic/static, telic/atelic, and concrete/abstract. According to these criteria, non-alternating unaccusatives are judged to be the core unaccusatives, whereas alternating unaccusatives are considered to be the most peripheral unaccusatives. Sorace suggests that the acquisition of unaccusatives is affected by their positions on the unaccusative hierarchy. Verbs higher on the hierarchy are acquired earlier than those at lower positions. Since non-alternating unaccusatives are placed higher on the hierarchy than alternating unaccusatives, they are predicted to be acquired before the latter.

Oshita (2001) proposed the Unaccusative Trap Hypothesis, which is a three-stage model, to account for the L2 acquisition of unaccusatives. At Stage 1, L2 learners make no distinction between unaccusatives and unergatives, due to the canonical Subject-Verb sentence pattern in the input. They fail to perceive the difference that the subject of the unaccusative verb has no volition and therefore is not the agent, although that of the unergative verb is. At this stage, unaccusatives are lexically misanalyzed as unergatives and consequently misrepresented as unergatives at the syntactic levels. At Stage 2, some learners discover the subtle difference between seemingly identical intransitive verbs and restructure their interlanguage grammars accordingly. Now they realize that the subjects are not always the agents. Some are actually the objects. This correct lexical analysis leads them to arrive at the correct deep structure representation, where the internal argument is placed in the object position. However, when they attempt to move the internal argument of the unaccusative verb from the D-structure object to the S-structure subject, they tend to overtly mark this NP movement with the salient passive morphosyntax be + Ven. That is to say, the deep structure representation is correct, but the surface structure representation is wrong. At Stage 3, these learners make further progress and are capable of both correct lexical analysis and correct syntactic representations. Not only are they aware that the only NP of the unaccusative verb is its internal argument, which should be projected on the object position on the deep structure representation, but also refrain themselves from overtly marking the NP movement with the salient passive morphosyntax be + Ven. In a word, they become targetlike in the use of unaccusatives.

B. Corpus-based Language Learning

Corpus is a body of written text or transcribed speech which can serve as a basis for analysis and description (Kennedy, 1998). Corpora can be classified in different ways and used for different purposes. For example, they can be divided into general corpora and specialized corpora by compiling purposes and spoken and written corpora according to language channels. They can be divided into diachronic and synchronic with reference to the time and native corpora and learner corpora according to the contributor of the text source. The past few decades have witnessed a fast development of corpus linguistics. For a long time, however, corpora have been used as a new tool for language research. The potentials of corpora in language teaching are not recognized until the recent two or three decades. Now more and more learner corpora and textbook corpora are being built and put into use.

Johns (1991) initiated the idea of Data Driven Learning (DDL), which advocates the use of computer-generated concordances to engage students in exploring regularities of patterning in the target language and the development of activities and exercises based on concordances output. DDL can be conducted in a variety of ways: (1) searching for example sentences, (2) filling the gaps, (3) putting in order, (4) finding a rule, and (5) having a quiz. In these activities, learners have to work and look for answers themselves, which will convert them from passive learners into active ones. Their learning motivation will be enhanced in the discovery process and their comprehension and retention of the target words and rules will be enhanced, too.

C. Implicit and Explicit Vocabulary Teaching

As the building blocks of the English language, vocabulary has always occupied an important place in the process of English teaching and learning. Over the years, a vast array of vocabulary instruction methods have been proposed. Numerous as they are, they can be divided, according to the directness of the teaching method, into explicit teaching, implicit teaching and a combination of the two. Explicit teaching suggests that direct attention should be given to vocabulary, which should be taught in a decontextualized way before they are explained from various aspects (Sokman, 2002). In contrast, implicit teaching argues that vocabulary should be taught to students via some activities in an unconscious way (Nagy, 2002). Ellis (1994) notes that explicit instruction impart vocabulary knowledge to the learners directly and ask them to do some exercises accordingly, while implicit teaching asks the learners to induce rules from the given examples by themselves. It has been found that both approaches have strengths and weaknesses. Sokmen (2002) admits that teaching vocabulary without reference to their contexts will relieve the cognitive load imposed on the learners on the one hand, but will make the learning process boring and uninvolving. Coady (2001) point out that implicit vocabulary instruction may be effective, but is time-consuming. And it is particularly difficult for less proficient learners as they are asked to guess the meaning of an unknown word from a context full of unknown words. As a result, they are likely to make mistakes. In light of these problems, more and more researchers are calling for a combination of the two methods in the actual vocabulary teaching. They suggest that the two methods are not only complementary, but also dependent on each other (Nation, 2003; Schmitt, 2008). That is to say, the implicit learning of guessing meaning from the context for learners of higher proficiencies will be greatly boosted by explicit instructions. Therefore, Sokmen (2002) notes that the pendulum has swayed from the direct vocabulary teaching to the indirect teaching and now back to the middle: implicit and explicit learning.
III. TEACHING EXPERIMENT

A. Rationale
The 3M approach designed for unaccusative accusatives is a combination of implicit and explicit vocabulary teaching. It consists of 3 stages. Stage 1 is to make the students meet the English unaccusatives and learn them implicitly. Stage 2 is to make them muddle through these verbs with explicit instructions from the teachers. Stage 3 is to enable them to master these verbs after going through the first two stages. The procedure and specifics of this teaching approach is shown in Figure 1.

B. Research Questions
This study had three research questions to answer. (1) What do Chinese students think of the corpus-based approach? (2) What do Chinese students think of the 3M approach, which is composed of implicit and explicit teaching? (3) Is the corpus-based 3M approach effective for the teaching of English unaccusatives?

C. Subjects
The students of this study are a group of 26 college students, who are second and third-year English majors from an independent college of a university in Jiangsu Province, China. They participated in this experiment when they were taking a selective course instructed by the author.

D. Materials
The vocabulary teaching materials used in this study are collected on the Internet by the author himself. Some of them are adapted by the author for the sake of teaching purposes and conveniences. These materials include reading passages and vocabulary exercises containing the target words.

The corpus used in this study is Chinese Learner English Corpus (CLEC), which is constructed by Gui and Yang (2002). It is a one-million-word corpus with five sub-corpora: ST2, ST3, ST4, ST5 and ST6. In terms of genre, CLEC is a written corpus composed of test compositions and free writings produced by Chinese learners at different levels. ST2 is contributed by senior high school students, while the others are all supplied by college students. The target words investigated in this study are common, high-frequency English unaccusatives, non-alternating and alternating alike. Some of the non-alternating unaccusatives are appear, arrive, die, disappear, happen, rise and remain, and some of the alternating unaccusatives are begin and increase.

E. Methods
The teaching methods used in this study include classroom readings, corpus searching, quizzes, presentations and discussions. Follow-up interviews with students are conducted to evaluate the effect of the teaching.

F. Procedures
The procedures of this study can be seen in Figure 1. The second stage of the chart is the focus of the experiment and therefore is given the uttermost attention.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
A. Implicit Teaching of Non-alternating Unaccusatives

Contexts containing non-alternating unaccusatives were provided to the students. A sample of the contexts is shown in Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Non-alternating unaccusatives</th>
<th>Absence of a conceptualizable agent in discourse</th>
<th>Presence of a conceptualizable agent in discourse</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fall</td>
<td>It became very cold. Leaves fell to the ground quickly.</td>
<td>Strong wind blew for hours. Leaves fell to the ground quickly.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appear</td>
<td>The fog cleared. The house appeared slowly.</td>
<td>The little boy tried to pull his toy house out of the sand. The house appeared slowly.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exist</td>
<td>The old church was built with stones. It has safely existed for many years.</td>
<td>The local people took very good care of the old church. It has safely existed for many years.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Remain</td>
<td>John failed to do a better job this year. His salary remains at the same level as last year.</td>
<td>John’s boss refused to increase his salary this year. His salary remains at the same level as last year.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When asked how they felt about being asked to read the target words shown in Table 1, many students said that they were not very interested. “I can’t see the point. I know these words. I’m not interested.” Student A complained. Her feeling is shared by other students. For example, Student B said that “It’s almost a waste of time in class. I feel at a loss. I can’t figure out the purpose of doing so.” This suggests that Chinese students are not used to implicit teaching. They are not capable of gleaning the semantic and syntactic properties of the non-alternating unaccusatives from the context.

B. Explicit Teaching of Non-alternating Unaccusatives

When asked if they had already known the target words, many of the students said yes. So the author started to analyze the unique syntactic properties of the non-alternating unaccusatives by referring to the L1 Chinese.

Non-alternating unaccusatives exist in both English and Chinese. And they share some similarities. First, both of them are morphologically unmarked, when compared with unergatives. Unlike French and Italian, which select different auxiliaries for the perfective use of unaccusatives and that of unergatives, neither English nor Chinese marks their unaccusative/unergative distinction with any overt morphologies. Second, non-alternating unaccusatives in neither English nor Chinese can be used in the passive voice. For example, it is grammatically incorrect to produce English sentences like "What happened yesterday" and "The leaves were fallen down." It is also wrong to utter Chinese sentences like "什么被发生了" (Shenme Bei Fasheng Le) (What PASS happen PFV) or "树叶被掉了下来" (Shuye Bei Diao Le Xidai) (Leaf PASS fall PFV down come). The instructor reminded the students that the passivization error of English non-alternating unaccusatives had nothing to do with the influence of L1 Chinese.

English and Chinese unaccusatives are different from each other in some aspects. For example, it is easier to identify unaccusatives in Chinese than in English, because Chinese is featured by surface unaccusatity, which refers to the linguistic fact that the indefinite NP of a Chinese unaccusative can either be put preverbally (e.g., 三个人来了) (Sange Ren Lai Le) (Three people come PFV) or postverbally (e.g., 来了三个人) (Lai Le Sange Ren) (Come PFV three people). When it comes to English, however, the postverbal use of NP for unaccusatives is much less common, as it can only be found in the there-insertion construction (e.g., There arrived a policeman) and the locative-inversion construction (e.g., From the distance came a young man).

When asked what English verbs can be used in the there-insertion construction, the students answered sporadically and uncertainly. Some suggested verbs like come, appear, and happen, and some suggested verbs like lie and exist. Under such circumstances, the teacher pointed out that non-alternating English unaccusatives, which denote a change of location (e.g., arrive, come, go, fall, and rise) or express existence and appearance (e.g., appear, happen, die, exist, and remain) can be used in the There-V-NP structure, as long as the postverbal NP is indefinite. Hearing this, the students came to realize that the surface subject of a non-alternating unaccusative is in fact its object at the underlying level. They said that they were greatly enlightened.

Then the instructor went on to say that Chinese students, like other L2 learners of English, tend to make errors with non-alternating English unaccusatives. As Montrul (2005) points out, the four errors are passivization, avoidance, postverbal NPs, and transitivization. Since avoidance only surfaces in judgment tasks, the instructor asked the students to find out the non-target uses of some non-alternating unaccusatives in CLEC. For example, the instructor asked them to search for the wrong uses of appear, die and happen in CLEC. When they came up with the needed concordance lines, they were very excited and deeply convinced. Some of the concordance lines the students yielded are listed in Table 2.
Concordance lines like the above impressed the students, convincing them that they were prone to error with English non-alternating unaccusatives. The author took the opportunity to elaborate on the usages of these verbs that they cannot be used in the passive voice, in the there-insertion construction without there or as a transitive verb.

Yip (1995) suggests that to acquire the non-alternating unaccusatives, L2 learners should work to expunge the ungrammatical passive use of these verbs from their interlanguage grammar. Her viewpoint was not supported by the concordance lines in Table 1. Therefore, the instructor argued that the acquisition task of non-alternating unaccusatives is more complex than what Yip suggested. To help students fully acquire these verbs, L2 instructors should explicitly explain the semantic and syntactic properties of these seemingly easy intransitive verbs so that they can store such linguistic knowledge in their mind and refrain them from making errors. What’s more, the instructors might as well introduce the unaccusative-related theories to the students. For one thing, he or she can tell students that unaccusatives, predicted by the Unaccusative Trap Hypothesis, are more vulnerable to errors than unergatives. For another, the instructor can tell the students that some non-alternating unaccusatives are peripheral and more susceptible to errors than others, as suggested the Unaccusative Hierarchy Hypothesis (Sorace, 1995). Therefore, they should be more alert when dealing with peripheral non-alternating unaccusatives. To test the learners’ mastery of the explicit instructions, the instructor can ask the students to fill in the blanks with the appropriate form of the word given in the ensuing brackets in contexts indicating a conceptualization agent (e.g., As the heavy flood destroyed the post office network, my letter _____ (arrive) several days later).

### C. Implicit Teaching of Alternating Unaccusatives

Yip (1995) suggests that L2 learners should realize the functional difference between the intransitive use and passive use of English alternating unaccusatives. Therefore, the instructor provided a list of sentences with the alternating unaccusatives used in both forms, asking the students to think about the differences by themselves. A sample list is shown in Table 3.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Errors</th>
<th>Concordance lines</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Passivization</td>
<td>A very unhappy thing was happened [vp7, 3-3].</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>And last year he was died [vp7, 2-2] from car.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Postverbal NP</td>
<td>Before it appeared the lunar eclipse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transitivization</td>
<td>Her former beautiful fact [wd3, S-] shrank by degrees, and appeared [wdl, 1-2] many wrinkles.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>But these have rised [fm2, -] [wd3, S-] the satues [fml, -] of women indeed?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The students told the instructor that they were not very clear about the meaning of the sample sentences, although they had a vague idea that the sentences were focused on the choice of whether to use the target verbs in the passive voice or not. They asked the teacher to be explicit.

### D. Explicit Teaching of Alternating Unaccusatives

The instructor first of all pointed out that L2 learners tended to passivize English alternating unaccusatives (e.g., “For last 15 years computers have drastically affected our life and this will be continued in the future”). Their tendency to do so can be attributed to their heavy reliance on an external force to trigger the occurrence of an event. Then the instructor asked the students to search for the passive uses of begin and increase in CLEC. When they came up with the needed concordance lines, they were surprised to find that Chinese students tended to passivize alternating unaccusatives in a context that didn’t suggest a need to do so. Some of the concordance lines the students yielded are listed in Table 4.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Errors</th>
<th>Concordance lines</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Passivization</td>
<td>The meeting was begun [vp7, 3-0]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Another new year is [vp7, 1-1] begun.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Now the speed of all the trains in China has been increased.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Salaries are increased and living condition improved.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The instructor pointed out that it is unnecessary or inappropriate to passivize all alternating unaccusatives in all contexts. Sometimes the unaccusative use itself is simple and adequate (e.g., Being very old, the wooden bridge broke gradually). However, L2 learners are reluctant to do so with alternating unaccusatives denoting a strong external causation (e.g., break, drop, change, and improve). It has been widely found that L2 learners are unwilling to accept and produce a sentence like The window broke (Mo, 2016). The concordance lines in Table 4 serve as further evidence for this unwillingness. It seemed that Chinese students had difficulty in using alternating unaccusatives as unaccusatives.

Mo (2016) finds that English alternating unaccusatives are not acquired equal in that L2 learners only master the transitive and passive uses of verbs denoting a strong external causation (e.g., break and drop) and the intransitive use of verbs with a weak external causation (e.g., sink and melt). Based on this finding, the instructor told the students to choose and decide the appropriate form of the alternating unaccusatives according to the given contexts. There is no need for them to overcorrect themselves and avoid the passive use of alternating unaccusatives at all.

E. Effect of the Corpus-based 3M Approach to the Teaching of English Unaccusatives

In the follow-up interviews, the students told the instructor that the corpus-based approach aided with implicit and explicit instructions was an interesting, involving and instructive method. Compared with the traditional classroom vocabulary teaching method, it had several advantages. First, it had a technical attraction in that it taught students to search in corpora. Second, the combination of implicit and explicit instructions enhanced the students’ understanding of the target verbs. Third, the explicit instructions provided by the teacher were not only in-depth but also theoretical, which deepened their understanding of the English language. When it comes to disadvantages, some students complained that implicit teaching featured by contexts was not very interesting. They preferred the explicit teaching by the teacher, which suggested that these Chinese students were lazy and lacking in motivation and autonomy. They must have got used to the traditional cramming method.

V. CONCLUSION

This study reported a teaching experiment on how to teach English unaccusative verbs to Chinese students. By taking a learner corpus-based approach and a 3M method, which is a combination of implicit and explicit instructions, this study made three findings. First, Chinese students are delighted to have access to the corpus, which greatly aroused their interest in the classroom learning. Second, Chinese students are more accustomed to being taught explicitly by the instructor than to figuring out the usages of the target words from the sample sentences by themselves. Third, the corpus-based, 3M approach is a good way to teach Chinese students the English unaccusatives. This study suggested that more efforts should be made in the future to explore how to conduct the teaching of English unaccusatives to L2 learners.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This paper is a result of three research projects. The first one is Variations in EFL learners’ acquisition of English unaccusative verbs: Implications for computer-aided language teaching practices (14YJC740068) funded by the Ministry of Education, China. The second one is A multi-factorial approach to L2 acquisition of English causative alternation (2017SJB1312) funded by the Department of Education, Jiangsu Province. The third one is Building up an excellent comprehensive English course (3510300818) funded by Wenzheng College, Soochow University.

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A Study on Object-oriented Adverbials in Mandarin from a Cognitive Perspective

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Abstract—The ubiquity and elusive nature of object-oriented adverbials in Mandarin has been a heated topic of discussions in the Chinese linguistic community. Scholars analyzed the syntactic manifestations and semantic constraints of this phenomenon and placed Semantic Orientation Theory at the core of the researches. It is claimed that object-oriented adverbials originate from and can be converted back to be the attribute of the object. From a cognitive perspective, this paper argues that different sentence patterns are different cognitive gestalts and have different pragmatic and discourse functions. It is concluded that (1) there is no conversional relations between the adverbials and attributes even though they are both semantically related to the object; (2) object-oriented adverbial sentences and attributive sentences represent different kinds of cognitive construal, the former being dynamic and sequential while the latter being static and holistic; (3) grammatical metonymy is the fundamental cognitive mechanism for the seemingly mismatch of form and meaning language and the cognitive basis of the Semantic Orientation Theory founded by Chinese scholars.

Index Terms—object-oriented adverbials, semantic orientation theory, grammatical metonymy

I. INTRODUCTION

A family of interesting natural language phenomena in Mandarin has long been overlooked by international linguistic community to the extent that it does not, till now, have a well-recognized English name. The ubiquity and elusive nature of such kind of linguistic manifestations did trigger a vast amount of researches in the Chinese literature (e.g. Zhu (1982), Sobelman & Ho (1982), Lu (2003), Li (2007), etc.). However, most of these researches have been concerned with their syntactic manifestation and lexical constraints while their discourse function and cognitive mechanism are largely ignored. The following are some of the most frequently uttered sentences in daily lives and also repeatedly employed examples in the researches.

(1) a. Ta [nongnong de] pao le yibei cha.
   3sg [thick thick DE] make PERF a cup tea.
   Lit.: He thickly made a cup of tea.
   He made a cup of thick tea.

b. Ta [yuanyuan de] hua le yige quan.
   3sg [round round DE] draw PERF a circle.
   Lit.: He roundly drew a circle.
   He drew a round circle.

Despite of their syntactical adjacency to the predicate verb, the adverbials are semantically closely connected with the objects. Previous researches hold different views on how these adverbials should be addressed. Pan (1981) treated the adverbials in front of the verbs as attributes because they are closely related to the object and can be converted back to their original pre-nominal slot. Others (e.g. Zhu (1982), Zhang (2005), Lu & Shen (2011), etc.) treated them as adverbials because of their placement in front of the verb while admitting the fact that semantically they are closely related to the noun other than the verb in their adjacency. Still others (e.g. Lv (1986), Liu (1992), You (1999)) held a more dynamic view towards this phenomenon and claimed that the adverbials and attributes are convertible under certain conditions and, therefore, there are source sentences in the deep structure. However, the controversy of whether the attributive sentence or the adverbial sentence is the source sentence makes the issue even more complicated.

In accordance with the claims of the structuralism that different word orders means different sentence structures and the cognitive view that different sentence structures means different gestalts, we hold that the previous researches are flawed and have obvious shortcomings. From a cognitive perspective, we will prove that there is no conversional relationship between the attributive sentences and adverbial sentences despite of the occasional cases where an exchangeable relation seems existent. They are different syntactic patterns, conveying different meaning, having varying semantic and syntactic constraints and functioning differently in discourse.

From a cognitive view, the two sentence patterns represent different ways of construal. The adverbial sentence represents a dynamic construal of the static nature as represented by the attributive sentence. Grammatical metonymy is

1 In this paper, adverbial sentences refer to sentences with object-oriented adverbials while attributive sentences refer to sentences whose object has an adjectival modifier that may be placed in the pre-verbal slot and function as an adverbial.
the underlying cognitive mechanism that make different construal possible.

II. PREVIOUS RESEARCHES ON OBJECT-ORIENTED ADVERBIALS IN MANDARIN

The relationship between form and meaning is the most important issue in the study of language. Generally speaking, form and meaning are pairs, with different linguistic forms conveying different meaning and functions varyingly. However, there seems to be exceptions in Mandarin where there are mismatches of form and meaning as exemplified by example (1). Instead of indicating the manner, time, place, etc. of the verb or the sentence at large, the pre-verbal adverbial closely relates to the object, which is usually at the end of the sentence, with the verb and modifiers in-between. Still there are far more similar sentences in Mandarin that point to an important source of productive language behavior that, until recently, has largely escaped the notice of researchers interested in meaning.

Chao (1968) named these mismatches between form and meaning as “skewed relations”. Facing the failure to analyze such sentences with existent theories, Chinese scholars (e.g. Lv, 1979; Shen, 1983; Shao, 2004, etc.) devised the Semantic Orientation Theory, which is defined as the phenomenon where there are several possible modification relationships in a syntactic structure but only one of these relationships are possible (Shen, 2008). Further, four orientation categories are classified, namely, verb-to-noun orientation, noun-to-noun co-reference, modifier-to-head orientation and default element orientation. The current study focuses on the third category. It should be noted that we are using a quite different sense of the term Semantic Orientation against that in western linguistics as the attitude of a particular text toward a given subject, which can be further broken down into the evaluative factor (either positive or negative) and the potency (the degree to which the text is positive or negative) (see Lyons, 1977; Battistella, 1990).

Sentences including object-oriented adverbials has some sorts of nonstandard meanings or usages absent from dictionaries and grammar books and, typically, not computable by traditional linguists. Discussions focusing on how we treat these elements have been going on from the 80s of last century and different opinions had raised and can be classified into three categories.

Pan (1981) considered the adjectives in the adverbial slot to be attributes based on the fact that semantically they are closely connected with the object even though they are placed before the verb. The adjectives moved upwards (or leftwards) but the movement does not change their nature, i.e. the modifier of the object.

(2)a: guangkuode pingyuan dixia, [hengde, shude, zhide, wande], wa le bujiqishude didao.
Wide plain under, [vertical DE, horizontal DE, straight DE, curl DE] dig PERF numberless tunnel.
Lit.: Under the wide plain, vertical, horizontal, straight, curl, dug numberless tunnel.

Under the wide plain, numberless vertical, horizontal, straight and curly tunnels were dug.

b: Xue Lin chiwan le fan, you [yanyan de] he le jiwan cha.
Xue Lin eat over PERF meal, then [thick thick DE] drink PERF several bowls tea.
Lit.: Xue Lin had meal, and then thickly drank several bowls of tea.
Xue Lin had the meal and then drank a few bowls of thick tea.

For (2)a, it is claimed that because of the length of the adjectival phrases and their loose connection with the object, they can be moved forward without any change of meaning. For (2)b, it held that in order to emphasize the character of being thick, the attribute is moved forward, but the movement does not change its nature of being an attribute of the object. Zhang (1980) and Wen & Luo (2000) held a similar view with Pan and claimed that attributes can be moved before verbs and, after the movement, they are still attributes.

Quite differently, some scholars tend to disagree with the previous conclusion and regard the moved attributes as adverbials (Zhu, 1982; Lu, 1982; Dai, 1982; Shao, 2007; etc.). Lu (1982) held that the adjectival phrases in (2) are all adverbials. In his view, the adjectival phrases in (2)a form a parallel joint structure and they have an enumerative function. As regard to (2)b, “yanyande” (thickly)is an adverbial modifying the whole predicate-object structure. While holding the view that these adjectives or adjectival phrases as adverbials, they do not deny the close connection between the adverbials and the objects and try to prove its justification from the syntactic structure and the syntactic function of stative adjectives. Taking the so-called “skewed relation” between the syntactic structure and semantic structure of these sentences into consideration and facing the failure of analyzing these sentences with existent theories, scholars developed the Semantic Orientation Theory which we mentioned in part one and will address again in the fifth part of this study.

Still others (e.g. Lv, 1986; You, 1999, etc.) held a more dynamic view towards such phenomenon and claimed that the adverbial in the surface structure is actually the attribute in the deep structure while some claimed the contrary is true. It’s quite safe to conclude that they consider the two kinds of sentence patterns as having a convertible relation and bear with them the same meaning. However, this view barely neglected the varying conditions for the formation of such sentences and their different discourse functions (Lu, 2003).

No study, however, has so far dealt with object-oriented adverbials with the cognitive approach. From the perspective of cognitive linguistics, a sentence represents a gestalt and, therefore, there is no convertible relations between the sentences. This view differs from the previous researches and will be backed up by facts in three aspects. Firstly, it is true that some of the adverbials can be placed before the object and vice versa, still there are cases where the conversion is impossible. Secondly, the adverbial sentences differs from the attributive sentences as each of them has divergent discourse functions. Thirdly, these two kinds of sentence have their subordinate categories and specific
requirements and constraints for well-formedness and acceptability.

III. SYNTACTIC & SEMANTIC CONSTRAINTS OF OBJECT-ORIENTED ADVERBIALS

Scholars (e.g. Zhang, 1990; Zheng, 2000; Lu, 2003; Li, 2007) have taken a primarily semantic or syntactic approach to the constraints of the units in sentences with object-oriented adverbials. Different approaches and varying data led to different, sometimes contradictory, conclusions. In this study, both semantics and syntax are incorporated into the analysis of this phenomenon.

A. Semantic Constraints

An utterance is composed of many semantic units and each of these units plays a role in the overall meaning (Mary, 1999). As for sentences with object-oriented adverbials, the verbs and the adverbials bear with them the most important semantic roles and determine whether the sentence is acceptable or not.

Previous studies hold that the verbs in an adverbial sentence must be volitional and causative. Volition is considered as a synonym of intention in this case, a concept that distinguishes whether the action is intended by the subject/agent or not. It is claimed that only volition verbs are allowed in the adverbial sentences (Lu, 2003). The effect of this is such that when a volition verb is removed or changed, the meaning of the sentence will differ in same way or be unacceptable. And by causation, it indicates that the subject either causes someone or something to do or to be something, or causes a change in the state of the object. Thusly, the underlying situation of an adverbial sentence is that the causee or object undergoes an action or has its state changed with the effect of the predicate verb in a manner or way indicated by the adverbial. These two semantic constraints on the verb can account for the examples in (1). The actions are intentionally controlled and carried out and, as a consequence, the flavor and density of the coffee in (1)a and the outline of the cycle are changed in a preferable way as the subject intended. However, Li (2007) found that the following examples cannot be properly accounted for by these two semantic rules.

(3)a: ta [rere de] hele yibei cha.
3sg [hot hot DE] drink PERF a cup tea.
Lit.: He [hotly] drank a cup of tea.
He drank a cup of hot tea.
b: Zhuozi shang [rere de] fang zhe yibei cha.
Table above [hot hot DE] place PCT a cup tea.
Lit.: On the table [hotly] placed a cup of tea.
On the table there placed a cup of hot tea.

Li (2007) examined the previous studies on the semantics of the predicates and found obvious shortcomings in the explanation of sentences as shown by example (3). Based on Guo’s (1997) classification of verbs into three categories, namely, state verbs, action verbs and change verbs, it would be more appropriate to take action verbs as the categorical constraint for the verbs in adverbial sentences. Action verb is under the superordinate category of dynamic verbs which shows continued or progressive action over a span of time. It may have a perfective and durative aspect depending on whether there is a defined endpoint or not. Action verbs meet the requirement of process in adverbial sentences because of their temporal features and progressive nature.

Secondly, instead of claiming the objects’ gradual change in state or coming into being under the effect of the action, it would be more appropriate to hold that the graduality of the feature of the object is another semantic constraint. Lu (2003) held that the object of the adverbials sentences has the feature of graduality, by which he means that the nature of the object changes in a continuous manner or the object itself come into being with the progressive process of the action. This generalization makes sense with most examples like (1), but fails to account for the following examples as shown in (4),

(4): Ta [yingying de] mo dao kuai shitou.
Lit.: He [hardly] touched piece of stone.
He felt a piece of hard stone.

We agree with Li (2007) that, instead of the objects’ graduality, it would be more appropriate to hold the graduality of the feature of the object as the semantic constraint. The action indicated by the verb changes the feature of the object or the feature is gradually felt as shown in (3)b and (4). In (3)b, one cannot judge whether the tea on the table is hot or not, but with wafting steam and other feature like water bubbling furiously with tea leaves rolling inside, the feature of being hot is felt with the careful observation. While in (4), the solidity of the stone is an innate nature, its hardness cannot be changed whether somebody touches it or not. But through repeated touches, the subject/agent can tell that the stone is hard. Therefore, it’s quite safe to conclude that the gradual change or sensing of the feature of the object comprises the second semantic constraint of object-oriented adverbial sentences.

B. Syntactic Constraints

While the semantic constraints deal with the inherent requirements, the analysis of syntactic constraints of adverbial sentences will primarily focus on the particular requirements of the sentences units. From a syntactical
approach, the adverbials and the semantically oriented object will be examined in this part.

From the modifiers of the objects in the examples listed in previous sections, it’s safe to summarize that the objects are usually modified by yi (one) or ji (several). In some cases (e.g. (4)), yi is omitted. However, the omitted number does not change the meaning of the phrase and its grammatical function as show in (1), (2)b and (3). However, adverbial sentences whose object has large numbers as modifiers are not easily accepted by native speakers (see Li (2007)). The “‘a/an+quantifier+noun” structure is indefinite, with no fixed reference. Thusly, the usage of this structure undermines the importance of the object and it loses its status of being the focus of the sentence. At the same time, the object-oriented adverbial is emphasized and become the communicational focus and pragmatic stress. In the regard of reference, the object in an attributive sentence bear more significance than that in an adverbial sentence. When the object appears in the structure “number + quantifier + noun” and the number is not yi or ji, it is endowed with high individuality and clear reference, which will, in return, contradicts with the emphasis of the adverbial. That is the reason why the objects in adverbial sentences are usually appear in the “yi/ji + quantifier + noun” structure.

The second syntactic constraint is about the form of the adjectives function as the adverbials. All the adjectives that appear in adverbial sentences are static adjectives as classified by Zhu (1968) in their reduplicated forms. Reduplication appears most frequently to mark intensification on adjectives (Dixon, 2006). The existence of a link between reduplication and iconicity is often acknowledged and the link signifies a “quantitative” resemblance between form and meaning and views increase as the core meaning of reduplication: “an increase in form corresponds with an increase in the projected referent(s) of the form” (Conradie, 2003: 203).

Reduplicated adjectives in Mandarin take with them connotation of high affection and volition, which make perfect match with adverbial sentences. Firstly, as for volition or purpose, the property as represented by the reduplicated adjectives has the feature of [+controllability], it is a state that the agent want to achieve. Take (1)a and (4)c for example, by intentionally prolonging the time of heat, the porridge become thicker and thicker and by adding more tea leaves and keep leaves in the hot water for a longer time, the agent get thicker tea. It also should be noted that all the adjectival adverbials are heterogeneous, with opposite states at the each ends of the pole and have endless in-between states. By intentional control, the subject/agent can change quality or state of the object by acting purposefully on them. Secondly, the reduplicated adjectives have different degrees of subjectivity when they are placed on the adverbial slot and the attributive slot. When they function as adverbials, the sentence indicates strong subjectivity or an intensified readying in terms of quantity or continuity.

IV. Adverbial Sentences vs Attributive Sentences

Chapter III focuses on the semantic and syntactic constraints for the well-formedness of adverbial sentences. Some of these constraints have been taken as criteria for the successful conversion of attributive sentences to adverbial sentences. This chapter is concerned with the differences between adverbial sentences and attributive sentences. The so-called conversational relationship will be examined.

A. Sentence Conversion

The close connection between the object-oriented adverbial and the object makes the intuitional inference that adverbial sentences are converted from attributive sentence quite reasonable. Some scholars (e.g. Zhang, 2005) claim that for every adverbial sentence, there is an original or source attributive sentence. For repeated use of adverbial sentences, the source sentence may disappear and no longer be used. In actuality, in line with the structuralism and cognitive linguistics, different word orders indicate different sentences patterns which in turn forms different gestalts, which reflect different ways of recognizing this world. We base our claim that the so-called convertible adverbial sentences and attribute sentences are different syntactic patterns on the fact that not all attributive sentences can be converted into adverbial sentences and vice versa.

He threw here a very red apple. →*He red-ly threw here an apple.
3sg [blackblack DE] dye PERF hair. →3sg dye PERF [black black DE] hair.
Lit.: He [black black-ly] dyed hair. →He dyed [very black] hair.
He dyed his hair deep black. →He dyed his deep black hair to other color./He dyed his hair deep black.
3sg [thickthick DE] boil PERF pot porridge. →3sg boil PERF pot [thick thick DE] porridge.
Lit.: He [thickly] boiled a pot of porridge. →He boiled a pot of [thick] porridge.
He thickly boiled a pot of porridge. →He boiled a pot of thick porridge. (Lu, 2003)

The converted sentence of (4)a is unacceptable because of the semantic incompatibility between the adverbial and the verb. The converted sentences of (4)b and (4)c are acceptable, but differences still exist between the two because the connotations and even truth values are not equal. The original adverbial sentence of (4)b has only one meaning and can be paraphrased as that his hair was not deep black and for some purposes, he intentionally dyed his hair black. The
sentence conveys strong intention and purpose. However, the converted sentence in (4)b has two different readings as shown by the English translation, one being that his hair had been black and he changed it into different colours and the other being that he dyed his hair deep black. The reduplicated adjective “heiheide” intensifies the degree of black in the second reading.

The sentences in (4)c have been considered as having the same meaning and taken as one of the best examples of attributive-adverbial conversion. This kind of sentences have arose most controversies and been the subject of heated discussions. We hold that the conclusion can only be true in the regards of semantic meaning and truth values. However, with regard to pragmatic meaning, the adverbial sentence is endowed with strong intention and the property of being thick is highly expected and carefully controlled during the process of cooking. While the attributive sentence is prone to be an objective report of the state of the porridge.

B. Discourse Functions

With regard to discourse functions, Li (2007) investigated the attributive sentences and adverbial sentences and pointed out that the noun phrase (including the head of the phrase, i.e. object) in attributive sentence has high topical continuity and frequently functions as the theme of the following text, being the repeated target of anaphoric reference. From the view of information structure, the noun phrase is new information (also see Chen (1987)) and always functions as the topic of the following discourse. Surveys (Li, 2007) show that nearly 70% of the noun phrases acting as objects in the adverbials sentence are incidental elements in the discourse and seldomly be referred to in the following discourse. More often than not, the adverbial sentences function as the background information in discourse. Moreover, 25% of object-oriented adverbials are used in the manner adverbial clauses, which is even more typical of being as background information.

V. A Grammatical Metonymic Account

From the stative modifying attribute to the dynamic adverbial, the change signifies different ways of construal: the holistic scan of the object and/or its properties and the sequential scan of the gradual naissance or sensing of the object and/or its characteristics. This chapter will focus on the mechanism of how different expressions are possible and hold that the formation of different expressions are the results of construal.

A. Grammatical Metonymy

In this part, we will mainly address on the mechanism of object-oriented adverbials’ coming into being with a brief introduction of the grammatical metonymy first.

After the seminal work co-authored by Lakoff and Johnson in 1980, which triggered a vast amount of research on the role of metaphor and metonymy in conceptualization, scholars came to realize that metonymy may be a more fundamental cognitive phenomenon than metaphor (Panther & Radden, 1999). In the Chinese literature, Shen (1999) claimed that grammatical metonymy refer to the grammatical manifestation of metonymy, which is a general cognitive phenomenon.

Based on the degree of abstractness, Ruiz de Mendoza & Diez (2001) classified metonymy into high-level metonymy and low-level metonymy. And grammatical metonymy is a high-level metonymy which has consequences in terms of linguistic structure. Based on the research of the metonymic motivation of a vast amount of grammatical phenomena, Ruiz de Mendoza & Pena (2008:251) defined grammatical metonymy as “a form of generic or high-level metonymy that has consequences in terms of morphological and/or syntactic structure”. While Panther & Thornburg (2009:16) define grammatical metonymy as conceptual metonymy which motivates distributional properties of function words, grammatical morphemes, and word classes. Based on the study of Chinese syntactic structures, Wu (2013:40) defines grammatical metonymy as conceptual metonymy which effects the syntactic distribution of elements and the formation of the whole syntactic structure. She claims that the purpose of grammatical metonymic research is to reveal the cognitive mechanism of metonymy of syntactic structure and how it effects syntactic structure.

The Semantic Orientation Theory mentioned in Chapter I reveals the semantic relation of syntactic units and provides a new approach to the research of meaning. However, the confirmation of the semantic relationship between different sentence elements is rather intutional. That is, the theory is weak in explaining why the separated united are connected instead of the adjacent ones. From a cognitive perspective, we hold that the mechanism underlying the semantic orientation or link is grammatical metonymy. In the following part, two grammatical metonymies are deployed to address this phenomenon.

B. Property for Intention to Achieve That Property

The most commonly used grammatical metonymy for object-oriented adverbial sentences is PROPERTY FOR INTENTION TO ACHIEVE THAT PROPERTY. Examples as (1), (4)b and (4)c belongs to this metonymy. The adjectives representing the property are intentionally used as adverbials, and through the action as indicated by the verb, the object is controlled or caused to have that property. This grammatical metonymy is reflected in our everyday language by a wide variety of expressions, e.g. “nongnongde” (thickly), “yuanyuande” (roundly), “cuicuide” (crisply), etc. The descriptive nature of adjectives determines that the link between adjectives and nouns are customary. When
people use the adjectives, which are usually placed in the pre-nominal slot, as pre-verbal adverbials via grammatical metonymy, the meaning and function of these adjectives change. Instead of describing the stative property of the object as it is usually conceived, these adjectives, by functioning as adverbials, implies strong intention to achieve that property.

C. Property for Sensing That Property

Another type of the object-oriented adverbials is not about the change of the object or the property of the object as exemplified by (5). The property donated by the adjectives is not the intentional result of the predicate verb, but the pre-existent property of the object. Semantic analysis shows that the difference between the two is that instead of changing the state of the object, the subject gradually figure out the feature of the object. The gradual process of recognizing feature through the action denoted by the verb is the main difference between the adjective’s attributive and adverbial uses.

(5) a: Ta [yingying de] caizhe kuai shitou.
   Lit.: ? He hardly stepped a piece of stone.
   He stepped on and felt a hard stone.

b: Ta [ruanruan de] modao yige dongxi.
   3sg [soft soft DE] touch PERF a thing.
   Lit.: ? He softly touched a thing.
   He touched a soft thing.

The stone in (5)a is hard not because he stepped on it. The property of being hard is gradually felt through the action of stepping on it. Also, confirmation of the soft texture of the thing in (5)b comes from repeated touching.

VI. CONCLUSION

This paper has been committed to the cognitive analysis of object-oriented adverbials in Mandarin. It argues that adverbial sentences and attribute sentences are two different syntactic patterns from a cognitive view and strongly oppose the traditional view that they are convertible sentences. Semantic and syntactic approaches both are incorporated into the analysis of the constraints of adverbial sentences. It is pointed out that the two sentence patterns represent two different gestalts and different construal. With grammatical metonymy, the semantic link of separated sentences units, or the so-called “skewed relationship between form and meaning” are addressed in a proper way and it provides a cognitive basis for the Semantic Orientation Theory.

This paper offers a different perspective on the analysis of the object-oriented adverbials in Mandarin and provides new evidence to the cognitive claim that different sentences are different gestalts and even the slightest change of form brings the change of meaning. It’s expected that it could shed some light on the research of syntax-semantics interface within one language and typological researches between different languages.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Special thanks to Francisco J. Ruiz de Mendoza, a renowned world-famous cognitive linguist from Spain, for his insightful suggestions on this paper.

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Integrating Multiple Intelligences in the EFL Syllabus: Content Analysis

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Abstract—This study aims at analyzing an EFL course book in terms of the availability of multiple intelligences (MIs)-based activities and their distribution among the four English language skills. To achieve this the researchers surveyed other experiences in this context and analyzed a unit in terms of the availability of MIs-based activities in Unlimited Series/Level Four/Unit Two/Cambridge University Press, their weight and distribution in each skill. The results showed unfair distribution of the four skills and the eight multiple intelligences. This is due to the nature of the English language unit where certain intelligences are more appealing. It is recommended that curriculum designers give nearly equal weight to the four skills especially in general English courses and include as many MIs-based activities as possible. This variety is of great importance to students as teachers guarantee that no learning styles among students are left behind.

Index Terms—multiple intelligences, EFL syllabus, content analysis, TPR

I. INTRODUCTION

According to Gardner (1983) intelligence is the natural ability to give variety of solutions to problems and to enable the learner to process information ready to be activated in culturally valuable products (Zarie and Mohseni, 2012) cited in Deracksham and Faribi (2015). This definition summarizes the ultimate goal of any teaching learning process. It also justifies the fact that educators and curriculum designers have special interest in Multiple Intelligences (MIs) and hope that they can find solutions for many challenges associated with linguistic and logical mathematical-based curricula and the traditional teaching and assessment strategies. Armstrong (2008) assured educators that each person possesses the eight intelligences which can be developed to work together in a complex way. When teachers are aware of the applications of MIs and the curriculum is designed to cope with the students individual differences, they can provide enough variety in the activities they use so that most of the pupils’ learning potential can be addressed (Berman, 1998) cited in Bas (2008) and Saeidi (2009).

Teachers, educators and curriculum designers shouldn’t be surprised to find students not responding to classroom activities, demanding further explanations or not involved in classroom interaction. The answer is simply because their interests and preferences are not taken into consideration. Gardner (1993) said that educational methods should be tailored to be more flexible to learners having different intellectual capacities and should be rearranged to integrate MIs so that these capacities would be addressed. Chapman and Freeman (1996) cited in Chen (2005) assured students who have low percentages of MIs that intelligence can be improved through teaching and is changing through life. In addition, the different learning styles and needs of the learners result in different intelligences. Gardner (1983) also thought that each person is able to develop all intelligences through education and training.

The MI theory has also been injected in English language teaching in an attempt to echo the innovations in the teaching strategies reflected by the learner-centered approach. Among the new teaching strategies are total physical response (TPR), suggestopedia, cooperative learning and communicative language teaching (Snider, 2001) cited in Botelho (2003). EFL and ESL books are also analyzed to identify the different types of activities and to see if they include MIs.

A. Statement of the Problem

Most EFL course books are designed with linguistic and logical interests in mind thinking that this is the shortest way to teach English language. Doing this educators and curriculum designers forget that students have different interests and various learning styles. Some students learn through diagrams, pictures, advanced organizers, role plays and singing. MIs theory came to cope with this challenge and help educators meet these peculiarities.

B. Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to analyze an EFL unit from Unlimited Series/Level Four/Unit Two/Cambridge University Press to see which of the eight MIs are integrated in the unit and their distribution in each language skill throughout the unit.
C. Questions of the Study

The study attempts to answer the following three questions:

1. What is the weight given to each language skill in Unlimited Series/Level Four/Unit Two/Cambridge University Press?
2. What is the weight given to each Multiple Intelligence in Unlimited Series/Level Four/Unit Two/Cambridge University Press?
3. What is the weight given to each Multiple Intelligence in each language skill?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

This short review tried to revise the basic conceptions of the related literature of the MIs theory. It focused on the definition of this theory, its background and its applications in EFL syllabus and language learning/teaching.

A. Multiple Intelligences Definition and Background

"Multiple Intelligences" is a theory suggested by Gardner nearly thirty-five years ago. It states that every individual has a number of potentials that enable him/her to manage in the teaching learning process. These potentials vary in percentages among people and can be developed and improved through education and training (Gardner, 1993; Botelho, 2003).

Gardner introduced the multiple intelligences theory as a response to the traditional view of teaching and testing. He supposed that each person has at least eight intelligences and these intelligences interact in different manners which make that individual a unique profile. Each person has the eight intelligences with varying percentages and a missing intelligence in one's profile is not the end (Boelho, 2003).

B. Multiple Intelligences and English Language Learning/Teaching

As a response to the solely linguistic based curricula and the traditional ways of assessment, MIs theory came to address students' different learning styles and to evaluate them according to their preferences. Visual learners are exposed to pictures, videos and films, auditory learners may be given aural texts and exercises and kinesthetic learners are allowed to move through activities like role plays, TPR and learning by doing (Berman, 1998) cited in (Bas, 2008).

Spirovska (2013) conducted a study to describe the types of intelligences and how the theory of MIs can be applied in teaching foreign languages. She reminds educators that every individual can develop the eight intelligences. Thus, it is the teachers' job to help students develop the intelligences necessary in any learning situation. Derakhsan, and Freebi (2015) intended to review the effects of MIs on learning English as a foreign language. They pointed out that each multiple intelligence has an impact on a specific skill in language learning. They also mentioned some effects of MIs on teaching in terms of having implications for teachers. Among these are: helping students develop their understanding and appreciation of their own strengths and preferred way of learning, providing greater variety of ways for students to learn and demonstrate, and guiding teachers in preparing lesson plans that address the full range of students' needs, in addition to a better understanding of students intelligences. Saedi (2009) inspired by the fact that all learners have at least eight intelligences that are proportionally different from one individual to the other, he reported a number of reasons why teachers respond positively to MIs theory. Botelho (2003) analyzed the MIs Theory in English language teaching with regard to texts and materials, in addition to teachers' perceptions of issues related to MIs theory. The study shows that English language teachers use MIs, but activities in books only respond to four intelligences. It is also recommended that more intelligences should be included, and learners' intelligence profiles should be considered.

Surveying the literature about MIs theory shows that it is a breakthrough for curriculum designers, educators and teachers in general and EFL/ESL teaching/learning in particular. It spreads new life in teaching materials and teaching strategies. A teacher who is aware of MIs and the activities they reflect will enjoy teaching because he will definitely see an interactive class free of de-motivation and boredom.

III. METHODOLOGY

To analyze the content of the targeted unit regarding the eight MIs, the researchers first clearly defined these intelligences and then investigated and specified almost every possible type of activity that matches each intelligence. They reached an agreement on the definitions of the eight intelligences and listed the related types of activities under each intelligence. Then they went through the activities in the targeted unit as stated in the course book (Student Book & Workbook), specified the language skill(s) each activity addresses and the type of intelligence it reflects. The results of the analysis were tabulated and analyzed. The occurrences were counted, and the percentages were calculated.

IV. RESULTS

This research article was an attempt to carry out a content analysis of unit two in Unlimited Series/Level Four/Cambridge University Press taught to preparation-year students at King Abdulaziz University in terms of the availability and comprehensiveness of MIs-based activities and language skills. The table below shows an analysis for that unit regarding the eight MIs types and the four language skills.
The table below provides a content analysis of a unit in the Unlimited Series Level Four Cambridge University Press. The table includes the following data:

- **Subtitles**: Keeping in touch, It's good to talk, Online friendships, Speculating
- **Activity No. and Title**: Various activities related to keeping in touch, making sentences, answering questions, and discussing sentences.
- **Skill Addressed**: Speaking, Listening, Reading, Writing
- **Multiple Intelligence Types**:
  - Intrapersonal
  - Interpersonal
  - Linguistic
  - Musical
  - Logical
  - Visual
  - Spatial
  - Bodily
  - Naturalistic
  - Musical
  - Linguistic

### Table 1: Multiple Intelligences and Language Skills Content Analysis of Unit Two in Unlimited Series/Level Four/Cambridge University Press

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subtitle</th>
<th>Activity No. and Title</th>
<th>Skill Addressed</th>
<th>Multiple Intelligence Type(s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Keeping in touch</td>
<td>1. How do you keep in touch with your family and friends?</td>
<td>Speaking</td>
<td>Intrapersonal; Linguistic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Listen to two conversations. What method of communication is each about? What do the people think about it?</td>
<td>Listening and Speaking</td>
<td>Logical; Interpersonal; Linguistic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. Listen again. Which sentences are true, and which are false?</td>
<td>Listening</td>
<td>Logical; Interpersonal; Linguistic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4. Discuss the questions. Give reasons. (personal questions)</td>
<td>Speaking</td>
<td>Interpersonal; Intrapersonal; Linguistic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5. a. Look at some sentences from the conversation. Who says 1-6?</td>
<td>Listening</td>
<td>Logical; Intrapersonal; Linguistic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>b. Look at the highlighted expressions in 5a. Which expressions give: the speaker’s opinion/other people’s opinion? Which expression says: it’s OK to do something/there’s no reason to do something?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6. a. Look at this sentence. Listen and notice which words are stressed.</td>
<td>Listening</td>
<td>Musical; Linguistic; Logical</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>b. Look at sentences 2-6 in 5a. Mark the words you think are stressed.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7. a. Write one or two sentences giving your opinions about these statements. You can include other people’s opinions too.</td>
<td>Writing and Speaking</td>
<td>Interpersonal; Intrapersonal; Linguistic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>b. Look at each other’s sentences. Talk about them using the expressions in 5a</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It’s good to talk</td>
<td>1. Use the adjectives to complete the opinions from Graham and Murat’s conversation.</td>
<td>Writing</td>
<td>Linguistic; Logical</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. a. Put the words in order to make sentences.</td>
<td>Writing and Speaking</td>
<td>Logical; Intrapersonal; Linguistic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>b. Talk together. Do you agree with the sentences in 2a?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. a. Work alone. Tick (v) the things you think are a waste of time.</td>
<td>Speaking</td>
<td>Intrapersonal; Interpersonal; Linguistic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>b. Discuss all the ideas. Try to agree on three things that are a waste of time.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Online friendships</td>
<td>1. Answer the questions in groups. (Warm-up personal questions for the reading passage)</td>
<td>Speaking</td>
<td>Intrapersonal; Interpersonal; Linguistic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. a. Read the title of the article. Why do people use social networking sites? Can these sites be bad for friendships? Why?</td>
<td>Reading and Speaking</td>
<td>Logical; Intrapersonal; Linguistic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>b. Read the article. Does it mention your ideas?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. Read the article again. In Dr. Tyagi’s opinion, why might young people: … (4 comprehension questions)</td>
<td>Reading and Speaking</td>
<td>Logical; Intrapersonal; Linguistic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4. Talk together about the questions. (3 personal questions, why and how)</td>
<td>Speaking</td>
<td>Logical; Intrapersonal; Interpersonal; Linguistic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speculating</td>
<td>1. a. Look at the sentences 1-7 from the article. Which modal verbs mean: - I’m sure about this? - This is a possibility? b. Listen to check and practice saying the sentences.</td>
<td>Listening And Speaking</td>
<td>Linguistic; Logical; Musical</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Which highlighted expression(s) A-G in the sentences below can you use: - to emphasize that you are sure? - to say you think there’s a good change to something? - to compare the chances of different things happening?</td>
<td>Speaking</td>
<td>Linguistic; Logical</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. How likely are these things in the future? Write sentences with these words about: online relationships/be important newspapers and books/disappear - most people/speak/Mandarin /contact old friends online -I/get my dream job -I/learn another language</td>
<td>Writing</td>
<td>Intrapersonal; Linguistic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4. Discuss the ideas in 3 together. Do you have the same ideas?</td>
<td>Speaking</td>
<td>Intrapersonal; Interpersonal; Linguistic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discuss an issue</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>1- Answer the questions together. (personal questions)</td>
<td>Speaking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Get it right!</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>1- Read the web postings. Who mentions these topics, Laila, Samira, or both?</td>
<td>Reading</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Explore Speaking</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>1- Listen to two conversations Eric has on the same day. Who’s he talking to in each conversation? -a colleague -a stranger</td>
<td>Listening and Reading</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2- a- Which highlighted expressions do the speakers used to: 1- ask for clarification? 2- Clarify what they’re saying? b- Add these expressions to group 1 or 2 above. c- Listen to check.</td>
<td>Reading and Speaking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Look Again</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>1- a- Make sentences about your family and friends. b- Talk about all the sentences together. Do you agree? Why? Why not?</td>
<td>Writing and Speaking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2- a- What do you think your country will be like in 10, 20 or 50 years? b- Compare your ideas.</td>
<td>Writing and Speaking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3- a- Listen and underline the letters in these words which make a /ʃ/ sound. b- In pairs, answer the questions. (about the use of ch and tch sound) c- Spellcheck. Close your book. Listen and write ten words. Then check your spelling on p 147.</td>
<td>Listening and Speaking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4- a- Complete the adjective-noun collocations from texts in the unit with these words. b- Match up the adjectives and nouns. Then write five questions to ask a partner using the collocations.</td>
<td>Writing</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table (1) above shows the subtitles, page numbers of 49 activities as stated in unit two in Unlimited Series/Level Four/Cambridge University Press. The other two columns displayed the language skill(s) addressed and the MIs type integrated. As shown in the table some activities integrated two skills (22 activities) and others covered only one skill (27 activities). As for the MIs integrated, the linguistic intelligence appeared in all activities. At least one or two types appeared side by side with the linguistic intelligence. And in five cases three intelligences accompanied the linguistic intelligence. In conclusion, 25 activities addressed two intelligences, 19 addressed three and 5 addressed 4.

To answer the first question of the study with regard to the weight given to language skills, the number of occurrences for each skill out of the total number (71) was counted and the percentages were calculated as shown in table 2 below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language Skill Type</th>
<th>No. of Occurrences</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Listening</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>14.1 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speaking</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>36.6 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>23.9 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Writing</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>25.4 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>71</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in table 2 above, regarding the language skills occurrences, it was obvious that the heaviest weight was given to the speaking skill (26 occurrences, 36.6%) and this was at the expense of the listening skill (10 occurrences, 14.1%). The writing and reading skills were given almost equal weights, about 25% each.

To answer the second question of the study, which was about the weight given to multiple intelligences, the number of occurrences for each intelligence out of the total number (129) was counted and the percentages were calculated as shown in table 3 below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Multiple Intelligence Type</th>
<th>No. of Occurrences</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Linguistic Intelligence</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>38.3 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Logical Intelligence</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>25 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpersonal Intelligence</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>13.3 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intrapersonal Intelligence</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>18.8 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Naturalist Intelligence</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.78 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Musical Intelligence</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.3 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bodily Kinesthetic Intelligence</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.78 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spatial Intelligence</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.78 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>129</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in table 3 above, concerning the multiple intelligences occurrences, the heaviest weight was given to the linguistic intelligence (49 occurrences, 38.3%). The logical, intrapersonal and interpersonal intelligences had relatively
heavy weights (33, 24 and 17 occurrences, 25%, 18.8% and 13.3%), respectively. The other four intelligences took very light weights.

To answer the third question of the study, which was about the weight given to each multiple intelligence in each language skill, the number of occurrences for each intelligence in each skill out of the total number (151) was counted and the percentages were calculated as shown in table 3 below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Intelligence Type</th>
<th>Language Skill</th>
<th>Multiple Intelligences Frequency</th>
<th>Total &amp; Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Linguistic</td>
<td>Logical</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Listening</td>
<td></td>
<td>10</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speaking</td>
<td></td>
<td>26</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading</td>
<td></td>
<td>17</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Writing</td>
<td></td>
<td>18</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>71</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is worth noticing that there were 22 activities which included two language skills as appeared in table 1. The linguistic intelligence occurred in both skills of these 22 activities and this explained why there was a difference of 22 between the total number of skills occurrences (71) in table 2 and the number of linguistic intelligence occurrences (49) in table 3.

As shown in the table above the speaking skill was given the heaviest weight of multiple intelligences (65 occurrences, 43%). It was about twice as heavy as the weight given to the writing skill (35 occurrences, 23.3%). The lightest weights were given to the listening and reading skills (22 and 29 occurrences, 14.5% and 19.2%), respectively.

V. DISCUSSION AND ANALYSIS

The theory of multiple intelligences emerged towards the end of the twentieth century in order to deal with the fact that students have different learning styles. Educators and curriculum designers respond to this by providing enough variety in the activities so that they can meet their students potential (Bermam, 1998) cited in (Bas, 2008). The variety of activities not only helps students understand, but also develops a cooperative atmosphere in the classroom, get rid of fear and embarrassment and get more motivation and interest (Scott and Ytrebeg, 1990) cited in (Bas, 2008). The theory of multiple intelligences has a number of educational implications (Armstrong, 1994). Each person has all eight intelligences with varying levels, intelligences can be enhanced with instruction and development, interact together and don't exist by themselves.

The assumptions above imply that teachers should expand their techniques and strategies beyond the typical linguistic and logical ones used in the classroom (Cambell, 1997). The eight intelligences put together and reflected in attractive learning experiences and applied to lesson planning and curriculum development are expected to solve problems like motivation and lack of interest. They help us understand the diversity in students and work as a springboard for addressing these differences while teaching (Christon, 1998) cited in (Tawalbeh, 2016). Teachers should try to reach their students learning styles in order to cater for individual differences. This can be easily achieved through paying attention to MIs where teachers can take advantage of games, stories, music, images, role plays to add more interest and motivation and enhance students’ performance (Maftoon and Sarem, 2012) cited in (Tawalhe, 2016).

In this study the researchers aimed at analyzing an EFL unit from Unlimited Series/Level Four/Unit Two/Cambridge University Press in order to investigate to what extent the authors have integrated the multiple intelligences throughout the activities in the unit. To do this they find it appropriate to analyze the unit in terms of using the four English language skills, and the availability of MIs in general and per skill.

The answer to question one concerning the number of activities reflecting the four English language skills shows that speaking got the biggest weight in the unit (26 activities) which represents 36% of the activities in the unit as shown in table (2) above. Then reading and writing came second in terms of their weight 17 and 18 activities, respectively. Listening was given the least weight 10 out of 71 activities. As this is a general English course it is expected that the four skills should be given equal weights (25% for each). The authors of the book might have given freedom for the teachers to add environment and culture-based activities as this book is mainly used outside Britain in the Middle East and the Gulf States in addition to some other countries.

With regard to the MIs used in the unit, which is the main goal of the research, the authors did their best to include as many multiple intelligences as they found appropriate. Linguistic, logical, interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligences were apparently the luckiest as shown in table (1) above (49, 33, 17 and 24), respectively. This refers to the nature of
the unit taken from a general English language course where these intelligences can serve major objectives of the course book. Even though, a good unit is the one that meets most of if not all the students learning styles. According to Gardner, each person is unique and has a mixture of intelligences. People differ in the strengths and combinations of intelligences which can be improved through training and practice (Lei, 2004). Curriculum designers and teachers should respond to this by providing a variety of activities that match students’ preferences. To be fair to the authors, they might have compensated the poorly included intelligences in the teacher’s guide where they usually recommend certain tips and teaching strategies like TPR, drawing, miming, acting, role plays and field trips. Such activities can cater for the kinesthetic, musical, spatial and naturalist intelligences.

What applies to question one of the study also applies to question two in terms of the occurrences of MIs in the four English language skills. Linguistic intelligence occurred in the four skills with noticeable occurrence in speaking and less frequency in listening. Logical intelligence has fair distribution in all skills whereas speaking had the most occurrence of interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligences as speaking usually involves two or more people and needs thinking and preparation in order to make fruitful talks. Naturalist, musical, kinesthetic and spatial intelligences almost disappeared in the four language skills. The absence of these intelligences may have negative effect on the students in two aspects. First, some students’ learning styles may not be taken into consideration. Consequently, students will feel excluded unless their teachers pay attention to their lack of interest and respond to their individual needs. Second, all the activities that reflect the missing intelligences like video shows, illustrating, puzzles, games, role plays, drama, singing, dancing, outdoor activities, classifying, picnics, etc. will not be included in the syllabus (Lei, 2004). The result is fewer interesting materials that de-motivate students and affect their performance.

VI. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Upon surveying the literature about using MIs in the teaching/learning process in general and in EFL classroom in particular, it becomes clear that using multiple intelligences not only help teachers meet their students learning styles, but also provide a variety of activities that add interest and motivation to the classroom. EFL teachers are expected to respond to this by updating themselves with the right mechanism to discover students’ MIs. In addition, they should be aware of the activities that reflect each MI (Christison, 1998). Learning vocabulary items and using them in meaningful context which reflect linguistic intelligence is considered invaluable in reading and writing skills. Learning by doing which is the core of kinesthetic intelligence is a very important teaching strategy in the EFL classroom. Pair work and group work that reflect interpersonal intelligence are the teachers’ tool for promoting speaking skills (Morgan & Fonseca, 2004). On the one hand it is recommended that curriculum designers include a variety of activities that reflect a fair distribution of MIs in the four English language skills. On the other hand, teachers should attend workshops and training sessions to familiarize themselves with these activities and make sure that every student’s interests and intelligences in the class are taken into consideration.

REFERENCES

Salameh S. Mahmoud was born in Palestine, got BA in General English from Nablus/Palestine, high diploma, MA and PhD in Curriculum and Instruction from Amman/Jordan. All his experience is in teaching and coordination at public and private schools in Jordan. In 2005 he moved to KSA as a language instructor in King Abdulaziz Uni. in Jeddah/KSA. During this period, he participated in many committees in addition to teaching. Concerning publishing, in the last four years, he has already published five articles, and this is his sixth and currently working on the seventh. Finally, Dr Mahmoud has given many workshops and seminars about teaching methods in Jordan and in KSA. ESP has been one of the author’s concerns; he has already finished a book “English for Art and Design” which is now used in a big college in Jeddah.

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A Spatial Analysis of Isabel Archer in *The Portrait of a Lady*

Chenying Bai
Zhejiang Agriculture and Forestry University, China

**Abstract**—This paper attempts to develop a comprehensive analysis of Isabel Archer in *The Portrait of a Lady* from the perspective of spatial theory. It analyses the houses Archer settles down to expound that the physical surrounding constitutes not only the background setting but also the influential part of narration and character-shaping, explains how Archer deals with the conflicts between American and European culture through her marriage choice, revealing James’ aspiration for cultural integration, excavates Archer’s mental space to indicate her cognitive development of self-identification and growth from an innocent girl to a mature lady, so as to develop a profound understanding of the novel.

**Index Terms**—Henry James, *The Portrait of a Lady*, the Physical Space, the Social Space, the Mental Space

I. INTRODUCTION

Henry James (1843-1916) is a famous American novelist and literary critic. *The Portrait of a Lady* (1881) is one of his most popular novels, and it is regarded as one of his finest novel. Brownell once claimed that *The Portrait of a Lady* is “the best piece of realistic fiction published up to date”. (Bamberg, 1995, p.661) *The Portrait of a Lady* narrates the story of a young American woman, Isabel Archer. With the dream of expanding her knowledge and experience, the young, innocent and imaginative Archer comes to Europe with her aunt. Except for winning the favour of several suitors, she also inherits a large sum of money. Unfortunately, she falls into the conspiracy of two American expatriates afterwards and marries the false man. Though the suitors are still waiting for her, Archer chooses to face the challenging marriage, through which she finally establishes her self-identification.

Henry James and his *The Portrait of a Lady* have attracted long-last attention from large-scale readers and critics. Related studies probe into its international theme, narrative strategy, feminine consciousness, and so on. As for the reviews on the protagonist Archer, critics mainly focus on her marriage, growth and quest for freedom. The manifestation of Archer’s personality, the tragic effect of her marriage, her view on freedom have been expounded fully, the characters and events in this novel have been discussed a lot, but the physical world especially the houses Archer settles down and the relationship between the physical world and the characters have not got enough attention. Therefore, the author of this paper tries to analyse Archer’s physical surroundings and spatial movements from the spatial perspective.

Literary space criticism is a literary criticism method rising from the spatial turn in social science. The Chicago school of sociologists and geographers made an effort to inject space into studies on class, gender, power and the world system in 1920s. Then the roaring urban unrest in 1960s brought forth a revolutionary way to deal with space and the powerful effects of urban spatiality on human behavior and social development. Henri Lefebvre, the pioneer of space researches, suggests that space must be considered not simply as concrete, material object, but also an ideological, lived, and subjective one. He divides space into three aspects, respectively physical space, mental space and social space in his masterpiece *The Production of Space* (1974). The physical space indicates nature, the cosmos; the mental space includes logical and formal abstractions; the social space is the space of social practice, being occupied by sensory phenomena, including products of the imagination such as projects and projections, symbols and Utopias. (Lefebvre, 1991, p.11-2) In other words, physical space is the space in physical state, and is able to be perceived by human senses. Social space is the inter-personal space, and the construction of relationship of various social factors, placing emphasis mainly on politics, economy, power, race, class and culture. Mental space is the interior space constructed through the edition of and the projection onto the exterior world by human emotions and consciousness. Literary space criticism takes space in literature as the object of criticism. Literary space is the transformation, transfer and transcendence of people’s living space. Living space undergoes author’s selection, redefinition and creation, transformed into literary space, embodying authors’ aesthetics, outlook and humanistic concept. Thus literary spatial studies are based on the transformation stage between living space and literary space, and intends to explore external regulation of authors’ inner world and values.

Henry James is closely related with the issue of “space”. He has shuttled back and forth between America and Europe all his life. Through which, he manifests keen and unique insights into the European and American society and appreciates the human scene through the innumerable windows of the house of fiction. In his space, there is a conspicuous geographical route starting from America and terminating at Europe. It constructs an abstract map indicating the objective social phenomena of cultural difference and conflicts between America and Europe, and the subjective self consciousness including the relation between self and ego, self and other, self and society. The above
concrete and abstract spaces serve as the base where humanity and society are explored, where cultural geography and spatial criticism merge. Therefore, James’ space is worthy of exploration.

This paper attempts to focus on James’ The Portrait of a Lady and its protagonist Isabel Archer from the perspective of spatial theory. It first analyses the houses Archer settles down to expend that the physical surrounding constitutes not only the background setting but also the influential part of narration and character-shaping. Then, it explains how Archer deals with the conflicts between American and European culture through her marriage choice, revealing James’ aspiration for cultural integration. Finally, it excavates Archer’s mental space to indicate her cognitive development of self-identification and growth from an innocent girl to a mature lady.

II. PHYSICAL SPACE: HOUSES THAT WITNESS ARCHER’S LIFE JOURNEY

Gabriel Zoran (1984) claims that physical space is self-existent and independent of the temporal structure of the world. The text expresses physical structure by means of direct descriptions. This physical structure can be conceived as a kind of map based on the text. The series of places in The Portrait of a Lady serves as the map of Archer’s actions. The houses she settles down witness Archer’s cognitive process. “The place in which an event occurred was in his point of view of equal moment with the event itself; it was part of the action it had a part to play... it needed to be made as definite as anything else.” (Miller&James, 1972, p.14) Accordingly, James puts equal emphasis on the description of places especially the houses there and plot development, exhibiting the interaction between them. This part mainly discusses the houses like the old house in Albany, Gardencourt, the Palazzo Crescentini and the Palazzo Roccanera, which play very important role in promoting the development of the plot and shaping the personality of Archer.

The old house in Albany is the place in which Archer has spent most of her life in America. Firstly, it is old. It belongs to Archer’s grandmother. And there is even a notice of sale in the windows of one of the lower apartments. Secondly, it is large and square. Its rooms are extremely numerous. Thirdly, it is a double house. There are two entrances which are exactly alike: large white doors with an arched frame. On the third floor, there is an arched passage, connecting the two parts of the house. This house relates closely to Archer’s early life, it constitutes the token of her personality. Its being large and square helps to form Archer’s broad mind and strong desire to see the world and to enrich her experience. Its symmetrical structure indicates Archer’s double-sided personality. She aspires to freedom, but she is not able to abandon conventions completely. This is shown by her early education experience. Opposite to her grandmother’s double house, there is a primary school for children of both sexes. Archer has been offered an opportunity of laying the foundation of knowledge there, but she protests against its laws and quits schooling after a single day. Later, when she hears the hum of childish voices repeating the multiplication-tale, she feels indistinguishably the pain of exclusion as well as the elation of freedom. She enjoys the freedom but feels depressed being out of school. Furthermore, when she gets married and finds out the truth of her husband’s conspiracy, she chooses to return to family rather than escape from it. This choice also explains her consideration on convention to some extent though it is partially due to her mental maturing which will be fully analyzed in the last chapter. One of the exactly-alike entrances has long been out of use but never has been removed. Obviously, the out-of-use entrance indicates convention, and the frequently used entrance symbolizes freedom. She indulges in free reading in her so-called office. In her opinion, freedom is the consolidation of self-identity regardless of the surrounding society. She tends to ignore the truth for the truth will interfere with her own theory just like that she refuses to open the window though the window of her office is facing the street. She forms a vague conception of Europe and European culture through reading and decides to verify it. This old house enriches her mind, and endows her with strong desire to go out for knowledge and experience.

Archer’s first station in Europe is Gardencourt. Gardencourt is the Touchetts’ country house in England, which stands upon a low hill, viewing Thames. Its red bricks, brown ceilings, and deep green garden make it quite charming to the foreign guest Archer. Moreover, its long history satisfies her expectation of European culture. It has been built during the time of Edward VI, has provided a night’s hospitality for the great Elizabeth, has been bruised and defaced in the time of Cromwell’s wars, then has got restored and enlarged under the Restoration, and has been remodeled and disfigured in 18th century. The historical elements are much of the taste of Archer, which helps her to show her real self in this “Garden of Eden”. Archer soon becomes the focus of attention there. Her uncle Mr. Touchett likes her very much, and he answers her various kinds of questions patiently and humorously. Her cousin Ralph Touchett fancies her and protects her secretly. Ralph even persuades his father to offer Archer half of the Touchett inheritance, so as to support her escape from the window

Archer does not go back to her room soon as her aunt’ instruction. She says she is glad to know the conventional rituals from her aunt. But the purpose of knowing is for making choice. That is to say, to obey it or defy it, she would like to make her own decision. Just having tasted the flavour of freedom, Archer certainly pays little attention to conventions. So the traditional Gardencourt inevitably witnesses Archer’s departure and strengthens her further exploration of freedom.

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Archer’s next station is the Palazzo Crescentini which is Mrs. Touchett’s residence in Florence. It is an old palace full of stories, even deaths. Mrs. Touchett says there are at least three people who have been murdered there and there may be more besides. The mysterious palace arouses Archer’s curiosity when she is in Albany. Entering the Palazzo Crescentini as she wishes, Archer gets so excited for she is so close to the historical and cultural heritage. She senses no tragic or horror, on the contrary, she smells charming fragrance. Similarly, she does not sense the danger in her future life, for she is attracted by Osmond’s elegant manner whom she meets in that charming palace. The grandness of the Palazzo Crescentini has made Archer forget its tragic history, and the pretended elegance of Osmond has made her ignore his dark inside. The Palazzo Crescentini unveils Archer’s misfortune in love and marriage, and its tragic history predicts Archer’s tragic future.

Archer’s residence after marriage is the Palazzo Roccanera—a palace by Roman measure. Her husband and she choose this habitation for their love of local colour. It has local colour enough for the stern old Roman name and smelling of historic deeds. Its proportions of the windows and the details of the cornice have quite the grand air. The Palazzo Roccanera is mentioned in Murray’s guidebook and visited by tourists. However, according to a vague survey, the tourists are disappointed at it. Mr. Rosier, the suitor of Archer’s step-daughter Pansy, also thinks its rooms are cold and ugly. Pansy explains that it is her father’s taste. Actually, Osmond has made a large collection of art pieces in this house. He holds the view that one should make one’s life a piece of art. To the author of this paper, the most important collected art pieces in this palace are Pansy and Archer. Pansy is kept away from her true lover Rosier and has been forced into the snobbish marriage with Lord Warburton. It’s a dungeon not only to Pansy, but also to Archer. In this palace, Archer changed a lot. She used to be curious, independent, and willing to express herself, but now, she becomes depressive and obedient. In order for pleasing her husband, she tries to make Lord Warburton accept Pansy as his wife. Nevertheless, Osmond still blames Archer for having too many ideas and asks her to get rid of those ideas. Then, when she is asked about her own taste by Lord Warburton, she expresses her willingness to accept what others propose. Archer mistakenly believes that her marriage is out of free choice and she is independent, self-governing individual, in fact, her independence is illusory. She is the hostess of the Palazzo Roccanera, but she has never had the spatial dominance in this house. The house is the manifestation of Osmond’s taste, not at all of hers. The free, keen Archer remains the beautiful art piece collected by Osmond. Consequently, the Palazzo Roccanera proves to be the cage that Osmond sets for Archer, preventing her from pursuing individual development. It reveals the evil essence of Osmond, symbolizes the male authority. Enlightened Archer is destined to break through the restriction and get out of the siege.

The above physical surroundings serve not only the background setting of the plot, but also the important part of narration. They are intermingled with the development of the story. With the aspiration for knowledge and experience which are endowed by the old house in Albany, Archer commits her exploration in Europe. She moves from one place to another, and gets renewed knowledge here and there. Driven by these new recognition, she achieves cognitive progress.

III. Social Space: Cultural Integration in Archer’s Marriage Choice

Henri Lefebvre states that social space is the materialization of social beings. It incorporates social actions, and it provides a platform for social beings to continuously communicate. All subjects either recognize themselves or lose themselves in that situated space. (Lefebvre, 1991) Thereupon social space reflects social life and interpersonal relationships by exposing people’s social action. In Henry James’ works, Europe and America are usually set up as two kinds of society and cultural forces, and they interact with each other. Archer’s suitors stand for different culture, and her view on these suitors indicates her attitude towards the corresponding culture, her choice of the American expatriate Osmond demonstrates her inner wish of cultural integration.

The young, innocent and imaginative freedom-searcher Archer has been the focus of attention since she got Europe. Casper Goodwood, Lord Warburton and Osmond fall in love with her and propose to her respectively. Casper Goodwood, head of a large cotton-factory in Massachusetts, is tall, masculine, strong, industrious, and energetic. He falls deeply in love with Archer and follows her to Europe. However, Archer cares nothing of his successful career. She is unsatisfied with his out appearance. She thinks his jaw is too square. His figure is too straight and stiff. His dressing is always in the same manner, and his garments have a way of looking rather too new. His appetites and designs are too simply and artlessly. When he stays with someone he talks too much about the same subject, but when other people are present, he talks too little about anything. The most terrible thing is that Goodwood has never corresponded to Archer’s idea properly. So she is reluctant to correspond with him, not to mention reacting to his love. Apparently, Casper Goodwood is the symbol of American culture. Americans advocate materialism and pragmatism. As a well-known young country of immigrants, the US is dwelt by people of different nations, classes, religions and languages. But the American share the same character—pursuing liberty and equality and seeking adventures. In order to realize their American dream, they have to work hard; in order to survive, they adhere to pragmatism and self-reliance. America, accordingly, develops into a society running after material wealth. The money-oriented value results the lack of spiritual pursuits. Thus Americans fail to develop as good artistic sensibility as the Europeans do and are relatively ignorant of the complex social forms. That may explain Goodwood’s lack of elegant manners. Having tasted the apple of knowledge, experienced the charm of European culture, Archer definitely rejects Goodwood’s proposal. In doing so, she rejects the stiffness and aggressiveness of American culture.
Lord Warburton, being different from Casper Goodwood, is an English gentleman of charming taste and rich experience. He occupies a position that appeals to imagination, enjoys great opportunities, great wealth, great power, and a natural share in the public affairs of a great country. He seems to have everything, to know everything, and to be everything. Archer likes this specimen English gentleman. Moreover, she is quite interested in Warburton’s house, family and English aristocracy. But when she gets the proposal from Warburton, she is not ready to accept it. “I am not, I am really and truly not able to regard you in the light of a companion in life... I shall never be able to see mine in the manner you proposed.” (James, 1999, p.110) Archer is still intimidated by Warburton’s social status. Warburton’s title and parliament membership make him associated with and also dependent on the social system. Being his wife would be inevitably labeled with those title and social position. Although she admires European culture, she is afraid of being drawn by the territorial, political and social magnate into a conventional system where she would go farther away from her free will. She is unwilling to lose her own orbit in freedom seeking. Therefore, American ideas of independence, liberty and equality impel Archer to give up the proposal from the pure European origin gentleman.

The above two objections reveal that Isabel is not satisfied with European or American culture respectively. She admires the elegance and nobility of European culture and also advocates the independence and liberty of American culture. Americans adhere to democracy, liberty and independence, while Europeans are proud of their long-last history, and they attach great importance to etiquette and convention. Therefore, Americans tend to be more sincere while Europeans usually wear hypocritical garments in communication. Archer gradually realizes this diversity between honesty and craftiness. She is in searching for the combination of this two national traits. Unfortunately, she is too inexperienced to judge the true successful integration among the American expatriates, she mistakenly takes Gilbert Osmond as the perfect representative and accept his proposal disregarding the disapproval form all her relatives. Besides, Osmond is a poor artist. He has no career, no name, no position, no fortune... except for a daughter Pansy. Osmond will threaten Isabel neither in social status nor in financial condition. Archer even feels fortunate to be able to support him with her dowry. She is deeply in love, not in love with Osmond the man, but in love with her own illusion she invents about Osmond.

The social space is “created by the relations of people to one another, the structure of those relations, and the laws and mores that regulate them” (Kort, 2004, p.20). Laws and mores that regulate the relations between Archer and her suitors are manifestation of culture. Culture is displayed in her social space. She deals with the cultural conflicts in making the choice of a life companion. Her selection in marriage implies her view on culture and her aspiration for cultural integration. Which echoes with the author Henry James. James was born into a rich American family of transcendentalist. He grew up in the world of Emerson, Fuller, and Thoreau who are insistently American in their commitments. But James travelled a lot with his family. He took residence in many European cities during his youth and adolescence. In 1875, he became permanent resident of Europe. During James’ long life from 1843 to1916, the world pattern had changed dramatically. In the first half of 19th century, Europe boasted richest culture and well-reserved traditions. The newly established America still remained a land of poverty and wilderness. And Americans were considered inferior to their European counterparts. So the European got absolute upper hand over the American. Then in the middle of 19th century, the situation changed due to the American Civil War which brought commerce and industry flourishing in America. The Gilded Age came accordingly, and the unparalleled industrialization had changed America from an old agricultural country into an industrial one. As the new leading power in the world, Americans began to reconsider its relationship with Europe. They poured into Europe, touring Europe with great pride, even arrogance. They were so indulged in their own self-conceit that they merely regarded Europe as a holiday toy, ignoring its rich and colorful cultures. Inevitably, they turned into the laughing stock of many polished Europeans for their cultural ignorance and social roughness. The sharp conflicts between them were keenly perceived by Henry James, and were unfolded thoroughly in his literary output. At the end of 19th century, the major countries of Europe fulfilled industrialization. The process of modernization transformed European society greatly. The Europeans gradually abandoned some obsolete notions and tend to be open-minded and tolerant to new things and new comers. Meanwhile, the frustrated Americans kept reflecting and realized their own vulgarness. They learned from the Europeans to make up for their own deficiency. Both of the Europeans and Americans stretched out tentative hands for closer contact. This trend of cultural fusion made its appearance in 1880s which witnessed the rapid development of mass culture, and it developed increasingly strikingly as their frequent contacts. James expressed this anticipation of a global village in a letter to his elder brother William James saying “This big Anglo-Saxon total is destined to such an amount of melting together” (Bellringer, 1988, p.16-7). James’ perspective on European and American culture was indebted to Matthew Arnold (1822-1888), the British critic of literature, culture and society in the Victorian period, who proposed two famous symbolic terms— “Hebraism” and “Hellenism” to indicate the Hebraic and Greek culture source, which respectively call for duty and beauty. Inspired by Arnold, James realized that the American was Hebraic and the European was Hellenic. He claimed that the ideal civilization lied in “the dichotomy of American-Hebraic and European-Hellenic” (Berland, 1981, p.35). He tried every effort to combine them together as two indispensable parts of an entirety. Then his literary works are characterized by indications of cultural integration in the new phase of global modernization. Archer’s choosing Osmond in The Portrait of a Lady constitutes such an exemplification. However, James didn’t carry on with culture just for the sake of study, but emphasized its significance in reshaping and reforming human nature, and in enhancing and perfecting human life. That also explained why he placed the center of the subject
The focus on Archer’s consciousness makes this representative innocent abroad story nationalized. It can be better understood as a dazed and confused American searching for a purchase on her own identity in a foreign clime. It constitutes one of the remaking of cultural power at the moment when capital, communications, and culture began to circulate more freely across geographical borders and boundaries. It is only when Archer gets Europe that she is able to define her own national identity. Meanwhile, it is only by the same process that the Europeans are forced to recognize their own transformation into objects of exotic touristical interest, and into stereotypes. Thus the fate of being American abroad is the major concern of James, and the American identification is the core of Archer’s consciousness.

Archer has experienced great cultural shock in aristocratic Europe. First, she is from the country without long history of brilliant civilization and sophisticated social conventions, so she appears simple, innocent, and inexperienced. Although she reads a lot and boasts rich imagination, she has little real world experience. She has never seen the outside world before she comes to Europe with her aunt. She asks her cousin Ralph whether there is a ghost in Gardencourt when she gets there. Ralph says that the ghost can never be seen by such a young, happy, innocent girl like her. Ralph claims that she must have suffered first and then the miserable knowledge of suffering would make her minds open to Europe. Which implies her hardship in achieving spiritual maturity. Her idea is dogmatic, and her confidence is inflated. She is determined to see, to try and to know; she is thirsty for knowledge and experience; she is eager to live her own lives in her own way. However, her Puritan tradition which is characterized by moral earnestness and suspicion of pleasure endows her with sense of obligation and integrity and then prevents her from enjoying the life.

Secondly, influenced by Ralph Waldo Emerson (1803-1882) who advocates to maintain the valuable American trait of being innocent and divine, she has no sense of evil. She keeps an optimistic attitude towards life. The world seems to her the best of everything. Its evil appears to be absent from her knowledge. Besides, Archer believes that her pure and noble nature would keep the undesirable things away from her. She thinks her life should always be in harmony with the most pleasing impression she should produce. However, the world is not what she expected to be. She fails to recognize and falls into the trap of Osmond and Madame Merle ultimately.

After marriage, Archer gradually realizes the malicious nature of Osmond, discovers the intimacy between Osmond and Madame Merle, and clarifies their motivation of this conspiracy. She gets shocked, just like a struck by a sudden flicker of light. Her dreams, her freedom, her independence, all come to be disillusioned. But after deep reflection, she decides to face the challenging marriage rather than get rid of it. The opening end of this novel—Archer’s starting for Rome, going back to her marriage, attracts large scale of attention. Many are confused about her return. The author of this paper intends to explain it from two aspects of American tradition, so as to reveal its significance in Archer’s construction of self-identity.

The first aspect of American tradition should be the idea of self-reliance from Ralph Waldo Emerson. Emerson is the leading figure of the New England Transcendentalists. He held a distinct view that the human instinct was good and should be followed rather than restrained. He appealed the American people to trust in their own thoughts, respect their own mind and cherish their own ideas rather than rely on others, claiming: “To believe your own thought, to believe that what is true for you in your private heart is true for all men,—that is genius ...A man should learn to detect and watch that gleam of light which flashes across his mind from within, more than the luster of firmament of bards and sages.”(Emerson, 2012, p. 257-8) Emerson encouraged the Americans to rely on themselves, to see and think independently instead of following the conventions. Thus, self-reliance of an individual is superior to the conformity of the society and institutions. Emerson was among the lists of writers who influenced James greatly. His thought on self-reliance was deeply rooted in the minds of James’ American characters and became a key element of the development of the plot. Archer is characterized by the Emersonian self-reliance. She is of independent thinking and always follows her own heart and instinct rather than submitting to the authority. She has her own ideas, and keeps her act in accordance with those ideas. She thinks highly of her own opinion. When Ralph mentions unwittingly that his mother adopts her, Archer got unpleasant and shows her disapproval of being adopted. She wants to be independent individual rather than the helpless, obedient adopted daughter. She depends on no one but herself in doing things and making choices. Archer values the right of choice very much. To her, choice means liberty, and liberty is based on independent judgment. “I try to judge things for myself; to judge wrong, I think, is more honorable than not to judge at all...I wish to choose my fate and know something of human affairs beyond what other people think it compatible with propriety to tell me.”(James, 1999, p.146) She makes her own decision to marry Osmond. Though that choice turns to be a tragic, she insists on keeping it and facing the life she chooses. After all, to judge wrong, is more honorable than not to judge at all. With the reflection of her early life, Archer gradually comprehends that only love in life will remain forever while pain will be gone in the end. She is confident that she can live a life that she wants by going back to Rome. Therefore, to return to Rome is the reflection of her optimism towards life as Americans always hold. And it is the best way to show her acceptance of her own will, to manifest her free choice, independent judgment and self-reliance.
The second aspect is the Puritan tradition. Compared with the sophisticated Europeans, the American people had stronger moral conscience. For which American Puritanism put great emphasis on man's obligation and responsibility. Believing in predestination, original sin and limited atonement, the American Puritan ancestors were very cautious about their own behaviors. In devoting themselves to the construction of a new community in the harsh physical environment, they regarded life as a serious and difficult business, and thus worked very hard and lived in an extremely self-disciplined lifestyle. They also despised trivial, playful or merely entertaining art forms. Although being criticized for its moral restrictiveness and killjoy way of life, American Puritanism played significant role in forming the moral outlook of America. Thus, the strong sense of morality became one of the representative American traits. Archer's moral conscience makes its appearance in her selection of husband. She chooses the impoverished Osmond rather than the wealthy men like Caspar Goodwood and Lord Warburton. She even claims that she loves Mr. Osmond for his poverty, because she regards Osmond as a distressed Prince and wants to help him out with her large sum of money, which is offered by her uncle. Her moral conscience also falls on Osmond's innocent daughter Pansy. She regards Pansy as “part of the responsibility she could face” (James, 1999, p.382). She thinks that life without duty would be meaningless and she would like to shoulder her share of responsibility with poor Osmond. Actually, she surrenders to Osmond with a kind of humility, and she marries him with a kind of pride as she is not taking, but giving. Though she is driven heartbroken by the marriage trap, she sticks to her promise to Pansy and takes her own responsibility bravely. By which, her moral coherence is achieved, and her identification with American culture is realized. As a confident American, Archer has been tried hard to adjusting herself to European culture, to seek for a new, ideal cultural self. She has the great confidence that she should be one of the best, should move in a realm of light, of natural wisdom, of high impulse, of inspiration gracefully chronic. And she has made it. It is through her misfortune in marriage that she learns the dark side of human nature and the sophistication of European society. It is by drawing nourishment from European culture, by preserving her national traits—strong moral conscience and self-reliance throughout the European journey that she has established her own cultural identity regardless of the cultural conflicts.

V. Conclusion

The family background and life experience allowed sensitive Henry James to cast a skeptical eye on culture conflicts, and made him a shrewd observer of human relation. He focused his attention on the protagonist Archer in *The Portrait of a Lady* and made Archer’s consciousness the key point of the novel. James even intentionally weakens the sense of time through ambiguous time markers and time span, offering no exact age or date, for highlighting Archer’s thoughts and feelings. From the consciousness flow, we comprehend her growth in knowledge and experience, her maturity in dealing with the conflicts between European and American culture, between the outside world and her inner aspiration, and her success in self-identification. It also reflects James deep thinking on those issues. Reconsidering James’ responding to social and political transformations, his struggling with his time, his way of dealing with cultural conflicts from the perspective of our new century, we can develop a better understanding on our own confusing circumstances at the beginning of the 21st century, especially with regard to the global power—US, for James has offered us great inspiration through his literary endeavors.

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Is the Spreading of Internet Neologisms Netizen-Driven or Meme-driven? Diachronic and Synchronic Study of Chinese Internet Neologism

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Abstract—With the development of internet corpus and sophisticated searching engines, it is possible and convenient to apply the linguistic big data to quantitatively conduct research to Chinese internet neologism tuyang tusen po. Based on linguistic big data from the Web Corp Live and Baidu Index, the author has conducted the diachronic and synchronic research to the Chinese internet neologism tuyang tusen po. It is found that: (1) tuyang tusen po is used as noun, adjective and exclamation by Chinese netizens; (2) during using tuyang tusen po, there exist several spreading centres in the macro, middle and micro scope; (3) the spreading of Chinese internet neologism tuyang tusen po is netizen-driven, not the so called meme-driven. The primary conclusion is that there are several spreading centers during the spreading of the Chinese internet neologisms, which is caused by netizen-driven. The findings can not be quantitatively revealed without linguistic big data from the internet.

Index Terms—internet neologism; corpus, quantitative research, spreading features

I. INTRODUCTION

The term neologism is defined as: ‘a new word, usage or expression’ in the Webster’s Third New International Dictionary (Gove et al. 1993: 1516). With the fast development of internet and the popularization of mobile communication tools, there are a great number of internet neologisms produced by netizens every year. The emerging internet neologisms are used to name new things, express new ideas, construct new identities, and describe new phenomena in the internet world by creative ways. The neologisms somewhat reflect the cultural development, social changes, personal emotions, and netizens’ attitudes. There are a host of Chinese internet neologisms emerging in the past decade that embody the conspicuous novelty characteristic of internet language. Consequently, Chinese internet neologisms have attracted the attention of Chinese government, linguists and lexicographers: the book-length ‘word lists’ of internet neologisms was annually published over the past decades, documenting and reporting the latest coinages; Zhou (2007) viewed the Chinese internet language that is full of neologisms as ‘a totally different language’; Chinese internet neologisms are considered to occupy a unique place in Chinese lexicography (Zhuo Jing-Schmidt and Shu-Kai Hsieh, 2018).

With the sharp increase of netizens, Chinese internet neologisms are mushrooming. The internet users in China are surging in recent years, and according the statistics of Internet World Stats 2017, the penetration of population is up to 53.2%. It is surprised that there are 0.75 billion netizens until August, 2017 in China (China Internet Information Centre, 2007). The increasing trend of netizens in China will continue. The top five Chinese internet neologisms appearing in 2017 are: 点赞之交 (pinyin: dianzan zhijiao, ‘being friends by ‘give a like’ in cyberspace’), ‘劫’后余生 (pinyin: jiehou yusheng, ‘lack of money after the double-11 shopping frenzy alike’), 无期徒刑 (pinyin: wuqi tuxing, ‘without wife, being single for long time’), 友荒 (pinyin: youhuang, ‘lack of friends’), 揪妹 (pinyin: liuomei, ‘make a pass at’). The numerous Chinese netizens who are energetic, learned and active in mind are creating and using a large number of Chinese neologisms in the internet. The Chinese internet neologisms are a crystallization of the wisdom of Chinese netizens, which are humorous, vivid, easily recognizable and high frequent use in the China internet community. With the popularization of mobile phones in China, another feature of Chinese internet neologisms is the instant and wide spreading in cyberspace, which are initially used by netizens of high schools or universities, and then are quickly spreading among the other netizens.

However, not all the Chinese internet neologisms are always welcome and popular in the China cyberspace. For most of the Chinese internet neologisms, the time of popularization is limited, from several months to one year, while the life span of some internet neologisms with cultural characterization or Zeitgeist is long, which can even be conventionalized or lexicalized. The conventionalized Chinese internet neologisms are part of linguistic system of Mandarin. The diachronic researches on the conventionalized neologisms can reveal the evolution processes, usage patterns, and distribution features. Hence, the long-life-span neologisms are worth researching. Some Chinese internet neologisms...
are quickly spreading in the Chinese internet world, especially in youth netizens, and after several years some of them might be accepted by much more formal media, with the increase of usage frequency. With the development of web corpora and searching engines, the detailed spreading processes of internet neologisms can be observed and trailed, which is helpful for understanding the laws of spreading and the usage features of internet neologisms. Consequently, it is possible and necessary to quantitatively study the spreading features, and the grammatical and semantic features of Chinese internet neologisms based on internet linguistic big data.

The internet neologism ‘图样图森破’ (pinyin: tuyang tusen po, ‘too young’, ‘too simple’, ‘too naive’) is a typical Chinese internet neologism and takes on the typical diachronic and synchronic spreading and usage features. It has lasted seven years, initially appearing in the internet in 2011, which still shows the tendency of continuing to be popular in the Chinese cyberspace. Based on the data from Web Corp Live and Baidu Index, the detailed spreading processes and usage features of Chinese internet neologisms can be observed and revealed through tuyang tusen po.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

With the emergence of vast majority of Chinese internet neologisms, Scholars have extensively conducted researches on them. The researches can be classified into three categories. The first category is the linguistic studies on the Chinese internet neologisms: some scholars concentrated on the unprecedented lexical production revolution driven by internet (Wang & Zhong, 2008); some viewed them, from the variationist sociolinguistic perspective, as elements of a unique sociolect of the internet community (Kuang & Jin, 2008). The second category is CMC (computer mediated communication) studies on Chinese internet neologisms, focusing on the mechanism of production. While theoretical validity of memetics has been questioned in the Chinese scholarly community, memetics-based research on Chinese internet neologisms was fashionable (Wu, 2009; Cao, 2012; He, 2014, 2016). The third category is computational studies on the Chinese internet neologisms: researching neologisms based on internet corpus (Zhang, 2017).

There are a lot of progress and advantages in the corpus-based research on internet neologisms. Corpus-based computational lexicology and lexicography have made progress in extracting new words, senses, and automatically parsing morphological patterns in recent years (Zhuo Jing-Schmidt & Shu-Kai Hsieh, 2018), which supplies the techniques to the internet neologism research. The neologisms studied on empirical basis shows the life cycle: birth, settling down, obsolescence, death, and re-birth (Schmid, 2008). Quantitative studies on the neologisms have made significant progress in the life-stage statistics (create, evolve, die out), assuming that word frequency plays the leading role on explaining life stages, the prediction force of whether a neologism might survive after being created (Altmann et al., 2011, 2013). Based on the context of Mandarin Chinese in Taiwan, Liu et al. (2013) think that the frequency is a determinant in lexical diffusion and changes of neologisms. Actually, there are a number of factors affecting the diffusion, the changes, the distribution, and the life-span of internet neologisms: the age and gender of the netizen, the media, the event, the values (carried by neologisms), economic condition of netizens, and so on. The volume of corpus or data will also affect the results of the research on the internet neologisms. Generally speaking, the larger the corpus or data are, the more accurate the research results of neologisms are. There are substantial advantages of internet corpus or big data over the research on internet neologisms: (1) the larger volume: billions, trillions or even zillions words; (2) the dynamics and openness of words or language resources; (3) much more macro and powerful retrieval functions; (4) the multifarious origin of language resources, different ages, genders, education backgrounds, and so on; (5) netizen-driven perspective; (6) diachronic and synchronized description. These advantages of internet corpus or big data made the researches on the internet neologisms much more accurate, macro and much deeper, and make the research results be in line with the actual usage of the internet neologisms. In a word, the research on internet neologisms based on the internet corpus or big data can overcome the shortcomings based on the traditional corpus or small data, and can much more accurately depict the spreading state of internet neologisms in detail.

In order to thoroughly and quantitatively study the life span, and the diachronic and synchronic spreading features of a typical Chinese internet neologism, the paper conducts the research on the Chinese internet neologism tuyang tusen po, based on the web corpus Web Corp Live and Baidu Index.

III. METHOD

A. Research Questions

The paper mainly focuses on answering the following four questions: (1) What are the semantic and grammatical features of the Chinese internet neologism tuyang tusen po? (2) What are the diachronic and synchronic spreading features of tuyang tusen po? (3) What are the causes of the spreading features? (4) Are the neologism tuyang tusen po affected by native English?

B. Research Tools

Kilgarriff and Grefenstette (2003) said ‘The web, teeming as it is with language data, of all manner of varieties and languages, in vast quantity and freely available, is a fabulous linguists’ playground.’ There are generally two approaches applying the web data to the corpus research: web as corpus and web based corpus. The former directly views web as a corpus and conducts linguistics research on it. The latter just crawls texts from the web, uses them to
construct corpus and then conducts research on the constructed corpus. There are several advantages for the web as corpus approach: data is much larger and more multifarious than web based approach, but there are also some unavoidable shortcomings such as the ‘raw’ or ‘unmarked’ linguistic materials, and much more ‘noise’ materials. The web based corpus approach can overcome the shortcomings of the web as corpus approach. Considering the advantages of web as corpus and web based corpus, this paper adopts the combination research tools of the web based corpus tool called Web Corp Live1 and web as corpus tool called Baidu Index2. Web Corp Live is a large-scale search engine with more search options, part-of-speech tags and quantitative analyses3. Web Corp Live can analyze authentic texts of billions of words (collected from the web) to identify not only instantly what is typical in language and what is rare, unusual or emerging usage, but also the grammatical and semantic features of words or phrases. Hence, the paper applies the Web Corp Live to explore the semantic and grammatical features of internet Chinese neologism tuyang tusen po.

Baidu Index is developed by Baidu, Inc., which is one of the largest internet search engine companies in the world. Baidu is the second largest search engine in the world, and holds 76.05% market share in China’s search engine market for 0.751 billions netizens4, in 2017. Baidu search engine deals with trillions of data produced by netizens everyday, which in fact is truly big data. Baidu Index allows users to look up the search volume and the trend for certain hot keywords and phrases. It is claimed by the Baidu, Inc. that Baidu Index is based on the Baidu big data to search and analyze the hot keywords, exploring the public sentiments, market needs or features of users5. The data of Baidu Index are updated very day, supplying the PC search data from June, from 2006 to the present, and supplying the mobile search data from January, from 2011 to present. Hence, Baidu Index is properly suitable for the research on the diachronic and synchronic spreading features of the internet Chinese neologism tuyang tusen po.

C. Research Procedures

1. Using Web Corp Live to analyze the grammatical and semantic features.
   After retrieving all the concordances containing the node word tuyang tusen po from the Web Corp Live, the author reads the concordances one by one and then generalizes the POS and meanings of tuyang tusen po.

2. Using Baidu Index to analyze the diachronic and synchronic changes, the spreading features.
   (1) Searching the diachronic spreading process of tuyang tusen po on PC end
   In order to observe the diachronic spreading process of tuyang tusen po on PC end, the author searches tuyang tusen po on Baidu Index PC end, see Fig. 1 for the result.

   (2) Searching the diachronic spreading process of tuyang tusen po on mobile end
   In China, there is an internet trend moving from the PC end to mobile end, which means the Chinese netizens use mobile net more frequently than PC net in passing several years. According to the CNNIC report, in December, 2016, there are 0.695 billion mobile netizens out of 0.731 billion netizens in China6. It can be said that most of the Chinese netizens are currently using the internet by mobile end. In order to more comprehensively observe the diachronic spreading process of tuyang tusen po on the mobile end, the author retrieves data of the diachronic process in Baidu Index mobile end, see Fig. 2 for retrieving result.

   (3) Searching the synchronic spreading state of tuyang tusen po on mobile end
   In order to observe the synchronic spreading state of tuyang tusen po on mobile end, the author retrieves the synchronic mobile end data (time span of a month: from November 26, 2017 to December 26, 2017) on the Baidu Index, see Fig. 3 for the retrieving result.

   (4) Macro-spreading of tuyang tusen po in China internet world
   In order to research the macro-spreading features, the author retrieves the macro-spreading state of tuyang tusen po in different provinces and larger districts in China Mainland, see Fig. 4 and Fig. 5 for the results. In order to observe the gender and age difference of the users of tuyang tusen po, the author uses the ‘portrait’ function of Baidu Index to retrieve it, see Fig. 6 for the result.

   (5) Middle-spreading of tuyang tusen po in Chinese internet world
   In order to observe the middle-spreading features of tuyang tusen po, the author retrieves the netizen distribution according to the cities in China, checking which cities are the spreading centers using tuyang tusen po, see Fig. 7 for the result.

   (6) Micro-spreading of tuyang tusen po in Chinese internet world
   In order to get the micro-spreading features of tuyang tusen po, the author retrieves the netizen distribution within the province called Guangdong, see Fig. 8 for the result.

   (7) Verifying the statement: netizen-driven-internet-neologism
   In order to verify the statement that The spreading of internet neologism is netizen-driven, but not so-called meme-driven, the author conducts the retrievals based on Baidu Index ‘portrait’ function: retrieve three different Chinese internet neologisms /jia call (pinyin: da call, ‘cheer for’), hold /f (pinyin: hold zhu, ‘control’), tuyang tusen po. The three Chinese internet neologisms appeared in different periods in the internet: /jia call (in 2017), hold /f (in 2014), tuyang tusen po (in 2011), see Fig. 9-10 for the result.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

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A. Grammatical and Semantic Features of Tuyang Tusen Po

There are 250 concordances in the retrieval based on Web Corp Live, see Table 1. After carefully reading the concordances, the author finds that the neologism of tuyang tusen po can be used as:

1. adjective, such as: 图样图森破的想法, ’naive ideas’
2. nouns, such as: 每天想中五百万, 真是图样图森破, ‘Winning 5 million RMB in a lottery every day is a stupid’
3. exclamation, such as: 自动驾驶是为了安全吗? 图样图森破! ‘auto-driving is for safety? Naive!’

After reading the concordances, it is found that the semantic meaning of tuyang tusen po is ‘naive’, ‘simple’, ‘stupid’ and ‘foolish’, which is used to disparage someone or others, expressing the negative attitude to the actions or matters. The semantic meaning of tuyang tusen po is gradually emerging during its high frequent use in the China internet world. Generally speaking, this neologism constructs and transmits a kind of negative semantic prosody and also expresses somewhat a jocosity in the cyber communications between Chinese netizens.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE 1. PARTIAL CONCORDANCES OF TUYANG TUSEN PO</th>
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<tr>
<td><img src="image1.png" alt="Image" /></td>
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</table>

B. The Diachronic Spreading Process of Tuyang Tusen Po on the Pc End and the Mobile End

![Image](image2.png) Figure 4.1 The diachronic spreading state of tuyang tusen po, on PC end, from 2011-2017

![Image](image3.png) Figure 4.2 The diachronic spreading state of tuyang tusen po, on mobile end, from 2011-2017

The above Fig. 1 and Fig. 2 show that the Chinese internet neologism tuyang tusen po is initially used by a small quantity of netizens: in 2011, on PC end, there were a few netizens using this neologism; on mobile end, in 2012, there were also a few netizens using this neologism. As time went by, the frequency of tuyang tusen po was increasing, and attracted the attentions of different circles, such as calligraphy artists, journalists, linguistic scholars, etc. And then it reached the high peak in September, 2013, with a particular event related this neologism, that is, the calligraphy work with the content tuyang tusen po (see the Picture 1) was removed from the wall of classroom in Peking University because the official considered the content of the calligraphy work ‘too negative’ or ‘lack of cultural meanings’. The frequency of tuyang tusen po was dramatically decreasing after the event, and kept stable from 2014 to 2015, and then gradually decreased. The above Fig. 1 and Fig. 2 also show that the users of this neologism on mobile end are larger than those on PC end: the average value for PC end is 400, but the average value for mobile end is 655. That means in China the netizens are more frequently using mobile net to search keywords or information, rather than use PC end to search information, which conform to the Chinese internet using trend: moving from the PC end to mobile end.
C. The Synchronic Spreading State of Tuyang Tusen Po on Mobile, Within Recent 30 Days, from November 26, 2017 to December 26, 2017

Figure 3 show that, from the synchronic perspective, the fluctuation range is not sharply like the diachronic process with a peak value 16000 (see Fig. 2). The average value in Fig. 3 is just 373 on the Mobile, which is smaller than that (value 655, in Fig. 2) of diachronic process. The value of the synchronic spreading within 30 days also proves that the frequency of tuyang tusen po is continuing decreasing in recent years, but there are still relatively stable netizens who daily use this neologism to express their ideas and attitudes in the China internet.

D. The Macro-scope Spreading Features of Tuyang Tusen Po in China

The internet, especially, the mobile net, connects the 0.751 billion Chinese netizens together, who distribute over the land of the 9,600,000 square kilometre. Though there is no ‘district’ boundary in the internet world in China, the neologism of tuyang tusen po is not equally used in the different provinces of China. That’s to say, the use of this neologism shows ‘several spreading centers’ in China internet world where the netizens in the areas such as Guangdong province, Jiangsu province are most frequently using tuyang tusen po, but netizens in some provinces such as Tibet, Sinkiang, hardly use this neologism. More details of macro-scope spreading centre of tuyang tusen po can be seen from the following Fig. 4.

To be more macro, the author can also find the larger using spreading centers of this neologism. China is geographically divided into seven larger districts: Huadong, Huannan, Huabei, Huazhong, Xinan, Xibei, and Dongbei. Based on the data of Baidu Index, Huadong is the largest using spreading center of tuyang tusen po, and Huanan is the second one, see Fig. 5. To be more macro, netizens in Xibei, Xinan, and Dongbei hardly use the neologism of tuyang tusen po so that there are no spreading centers of this neologism in the above three larger districts.
E. The Gender and Age Features of Using Tuyang Tusen Po

From September 2013 to December 2017, gender and age difference in the using of tuyang tusen po is significant. From Fig. 6, it can be seen that male Chinese netizens account for 79%, and female Chinese netizens account for 21%. In terms of age, netizens aged 20 to 29 account for the highest proportion (43%) in using the neologism of tuyang tusen po. The second highest proportion is 28% with the age from 30 to 39. The author can make the statement that the Chinese netizens aged 20-39 are especially fond of using Chinese internet neologisms like tuyang tusen po, in the internet communication. The Chinese netizens under 19 or over 40 somewhat seldom use Chinese internet neologisms. The retrieving result that the netizens under 19 seldom use the neologism of tuyang tusen po a bit overpasses the author’s expectation: before retrieving this neologism on Baidu Index, the author hypothesizes the netizens under 19 is the highest proportion in using it because the netizens under 19 are usually viewed as being the most creative in mind and prone to welcoming and using new words or expressions in the internet communication. However, the result proves the author’s hypothesis is wrong. The big data of the neologism tuyang tusen po from Baidu Index reveal the truth: netizens aged 20-29 are the highest proportion of netizens to use tuyang tusen po in Chinese internet communication, see more details in Fig. 6.

F. Middle-and Micro-scope Spreading Features of Tuyang Tusen Po

In the middle-scope, the using frequency of tuyang tusen po still shows the feature that there are several spreading centers in using this neologism such as Beijing, Shanghai, Guangzhou, and so on, see more details in Fig. 7. Similarly, in the micro-perspective, limiting the area to the province called Guangdong, it can be found that there are still two spreading centers in using this neologism: Guangzhou, and Shenzhen, see more details in Fig. 8. Hence, the author may get a tentative conclusion: whether the area is larger or smaller, there is a spreading center with the highest frequency using the Chinese internet neologisms tuyang tusen po in the China internet world.
G. Reason for the Spreading Centers: Netizen-driven

The reason for forming the spreading centers of *tuyang tusen po* can be expounded by netizen-driven. In order to further validate the attentive statement that the Chinese netizens aged 20-39 are especially fond of using internet neologisms, the author retrieves the other two Chinese internet neologisms *打 call* (popular in 2017), *hold 住* (popular in 2014). It can be seen from the following Fig. 9: there are almost the same spreading centers for the three different internet neologisms, though the three neologisms are emerging and popular in different time. What is the reason resulting in the spreading centers in using the internet neologisms? Memetics can not explain this phenomenon. According to the memetics, Chinese netizens can copy or imitate the neologisms with ‘meme’, and in the China internet world, there is no ‘district’ boundary so that the netizens can equally (or have the same opportunities to) use Chinese internet neologisms to exchange ideas. Hence, spreading centres should not exist. However, the big data on the Chinese internet neologisms (*打 call, hold 住, and tuyang tusen po*) from Baidu Index reveal that the spreading centres do exist. Can the density of population in each province explain why there are spreading centres in using the internet neologisms? There is no direct relationship between the density of population and using frequency of neologism *tuyang tusen po*. According to the statistical results⁸, the top seven provinces or cities with the highest population density in China are: Hong Kong, Macao, Shanghai, Beijing, Tianjing, Jiangsu, and Shandong. However, the spreading centres of *tuyang tusen po* don’t lies in the above seven provinces or cities. If there is direct relationship between population density and using frequency of internet neologisms, the spreading centers of using *tuyang tusen po* should be Hong Kong, Macao, and Shanghai. Nevertheless, Fig. 4 reveals the three true spreading centres are Guangdong, Jiangsu, and Zhejiang. Similarly, Fig. 9 also reveals that the population density ranks and the using frequency ranks of the three neologisms (*打 call, hold 住, tuyang tusen po*) do not match! Actually, it is revealed by quantitative linguistics and corpus linguistics that language is a complex-dynamic adoptive system and human-driven system (Liu & Lin, 2018; Kretzschmar, 2015; Ellis & Larsen-Freeman, 2009). The change and development of language is caused by language users. The language is human-driven, and words consist of the language. Hence, the author argues the Chinese internet neologisms are also netizen-driven, which is verified and explained in the following.
The spreading centres of internet neologisms revealed by the big data from Baidu Index can be explained by the netizen-driven. General speaking, Chinese netizens are active, creative, and learned. Particularly, the Chinese netizens aged from 20 to 39 are rich, creative and prone to accepting new matters so that they are the main group to use Chinese internet neologisms (see Fig. 6). According to China Statistical Report on Internet Development (China Internet Information Centre, 2017), the internet penetration rate shows that the top three cities or provinces are Beijing (77.8%), Shanghai (74.1%) and Guangdong (74.0%). Surprisingly, the top three biggest spreading centres of using the three Chinese internet neologisms, 打卡, hold 住, tuyang tusen po, are exactly located in Beijing, Shanghai and Guangdong, which shows that the spreading centres are closely related to the internet penetration rate, see Fig. 10-12 for more details. The author may make the tentative statement that the use of Chinese internet neologisms is affected by internet penetration so that the spreading of Chinese internet neologisms is netizen-driven.

H. Is Tuyang Tusen Po Affected by Native English?

The Chinese internet neologism tuyang tusen po is not affected by the native English. According to the explanation of Baidu Baike9: tuyang tusen po is the result of the homo-phonetic translation of the China English ‘too young, too simple’, which means the neologism tuyang tusen po derives from ‘too young, too simple’. In order to check whether the English native speakers use the expression ‘too young, too simple’ or not, the author retrieved the English expression ‘too young, too simple’ in the Now Corpus10, whose volume is 5.5 billion words. The retrieval result is ‘no matching record’! It can be said that the expression ‘too young, too simple’ is not used by the native English speakers in the internet world, daily life or even academic texts. So it can be said that the expression ‘too young, too simple’ is Chinglish or China English, which reflects the Chinese thoughts and conceptions. The Chinese concepts or ideas of 非常年青 (pinyin: hennianqin, ‘very young’), 非常天真 (pinyin: hentianzhen, ‘naive’) are coded into the China English ‘too young, too simple’, and then be homophonically interpreted into tuyang tusen po by Chinese netizens, which are quickly spreading in the China internet world through netizen-driven. In essence, the neologism tuyang tusen po is Chinese-rooted neologism and it widely spreads through netizen-driven.

V. Conclusion

Quantitatively based on the linguistic big data from Web Corpus Live and Baidu Index, the most important findings of the research are: (1) tuyang tusen po is used as noun, adjective and exclamation by Chinese netizens; (2) there exist several spreading centres in the macro, middle or micro scopes when this neologism is used in the Chinese internet world; (3) the spreading of the Chinese internet neologism TuYang TuSen is netizen-driven, not the so called meme-driven. The findings can not be quantitatively revealed without linguistic big data from internet.

Quantitatively revealed by the linguistic big data, the spreading of the Chinese internet neologism tuyang tusen po is driven by Chinese netizens. All in all, Chinese netizens cause the diachronic and synchronic spreading and fluctuation of tuyang tusen po. The origin of neologism tuyang tusen po is from China English ‘too young, too simple’, which is coded by the Chinese concepts of ‘very young’, ‘naive’. Chinese netizens are the major forces to coin, use, and make
Chinese internet neologisms spread in the Chinese internet world.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Funding: This work was supported by A Project Supported by Center for Rural Childhood Education Research [Grant N0.: NYJ20150607] and by A Project Supported by Sichuan University of Arts and Science [Grant N0.: 2017JY18]

Note

7 All the example sentences are from the concordances collected by Web Corp Live
9.http://baike.baidu.com/item/%E5%9B%BE%E6%A0%B7%E5%9B%BE%E6%A3%AE%E7%A0%B4/983082?fr=aladdin
10.http://corpus.byu.edu/now/

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Recreating the Image of a “Chaste Wife”: Transitivity in Two Translations of Chinese Ancient Poem Jie Fu Yin

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Abstract—This article is a comparison on the recreating of the image of a “chaste wife” in two English translations of Chinese ancient poem Jie Fu Yin from the perspective of systemic functional linguistics (SFL). The linguistic choices of the poet and translators are measured from transitivity under experiential meaning of ideational metafunction. It has found that Hart tends to follow a creative and imaginative translation, thus creating a more enthusiastic even passionate image of a young “chaste wife” in a direct and explicit way, while Fletcher presents a clam and tender image of a mature “chaste wife” in a relatively implicit way. Besides, both translations reproduce the theme about love, but losing the political theme. It is argued that in translation, the lexico-grammatical choices will lead to variation in meanings and recreate different images of a same character, and the seemingly unconscious choices can be better understood based on the context of translation.

Index Terms—systemic functional linguistics, transitivity, chaste wife, Jie Fu Yin, context

I. INTRODUCTION

The aim of this study is to explore the transitivity on recreating the image of a “chaste wife” in Chinese ancient poem Jie Fu Yin and its two translations: W.J.B. Fletcher’s The Retort Courteous (1918), Henry H. Hart’s A LETTER (1933) based on systemic functional linguistics (SFL). Jie Fu Yin is a classical poem presenting the monologue of a married official’s wife refusing a pursuer, written by famous Chinese ancient poet Zhang Ji (766-830), who also served as an official for Tang dynasty all the time (Du, 2004). It is created in imitation of Chinese earlier folk songs (yuefu), which indicates it can be set to music for singing (Liu, 2010, p.162), and the last two lines (see Appendix) of this poem have been highly praised and spread by people from ancient to modern times with endless whispers about love (Li, 2004).

Jie Fu Yin is also called Ji Dong Ping Li Si Kong Shi Dao (a letter Zhang Ji wrote to Li Shidao, Si Kong is Li’s official position), which appears as a subtitle (like in Song Dynasty Yao Xuan’s Tang Wen Cui, Wang Zhi’s Si Liu Hua) and as an indicator to expose its political theme. In mid-Tang dynasty (766-835), with the further development of rival principalities separatism as the emperor assigned each or more provinces a governor to deal with both civil and military affairs, the central political power was gradually weakened and local military governor forces were strengthened; and some military governors like Li Shidao were trying to draw the literati and officials over to their side so as to consolidate their powers (Zhou, 1999, p.48). Zhang Ji, as an official of central government, resolutely defended national unity and opposed to national separation (Li, 2013, p.128), so he wrote this poem as a reply to refuse the invitation of Li Shidao.

SFL recognizes three functions of language: ideational (construing our experience of the outer and inner world), interpersonal (maintaining and establishing interpersonal relationship) and textual (organizing a linear and coherent text), each of which gives rise to a distinctive strand of meaning and interpretation in the text. Transitivity belongs to the ideational metafunction and is used to realize experiential meaning. The application of transitivity to literary study was initiated by Halliday (1971) and then carried on by Kennedy (1982), Simpson (1993) and others. Among the studies, those by Hasan (1985), Hubbard (1999), Ji & Shen (2004) and more recently Yu & Wu (2016) focused on the function of transitivity in constructing the image of a character. This paper again tries to investigate the organization of authorial creation in presenting the image of the character, especially in a narrative-oriented poem.

Due to cultural and linguistic differences, readers get to know a character through the translation, so the understanding and representing of the source text, including the image of a person established tend to pose challenges for translators (Carballeira, 2014), and it deserves to ask why “the translation has been shaped in such a way that it comes to mean what it does” (Malmkjær, 2003, p.39). Drawing on SFL, this paper seeks to demonstrate that transitivity approach to literary translations can make a significant contribution. There are three questions to be answered in this study:

1. What are the deviations of two translations from the original poem?
2. What are the differences between the two translations?
3. What are the contextual factors that might influence the translator’s options?
Systemic functional linguistics (SFL) approach to language analysis is a model of linguistics established and developed by M.A.K Halliday (1925-2018) in the 1960s. The terms “systemic” and “functional” indicate the approach is concerned with the language in actual use and the organization for specific purposes in relation to context. Halliday (2014, p.33) points out context has three parameters: field (what is going on in the situation of social activity and the domain of experience it relates to), tenor (who is taking part in and the relationship between people) and mode (how is the text made and what role is being played by language). These three dimensions influence our language choices precisely because they reflect three metafunctions of language: ideational (including experiential and logical), interpersonal and textual.

The transitivity theory plays an important part in the experiential meaning of ideational metafunction, which represents the happenings and events of the world and the relations among states or ideas and values in the language, like “who does what to whom under what circumstances?”. The system of transitivity provides the lexico-grammatical resources for construing a quantum of change in the flow of events as a figure—as a configuration of elements centered on a process (Halliday, 2014, p.213), and it has three components: participants (nominal groups about the doer or recipient of action), process (verbal groups about activities) and circumstances (adverbial or preposition groups about space, time, manner, etc.). While the combination of process and participants constitutes the nucleus of transitivity, the circumstances usually remain at the periphery of the configuration (Matthiessen, 1995, p.197-198).

There are mainly six process types (Halliday, 2014, p.214): material (process of doing and happening, both concrete and abstract), mental (process of sensing, about the inner experience of human beings, such as know, see and believe), relational (process of being and having, serving to characterize or identify an entity), behavioral (process of physiological and psychological behavior, like breathe, cough and laugh), verbal (process of saying, such as tell and say) and existential (process of existing, to represent that something exists or happens, like be, exist and arise). Each process involves one or more participants and sometimes also has some circumstances. Different options of participants and process types in language can reveal the certain worldview “framed by the authorial ideology” in a literary text (Fowler, 1986, p.138), and the participants of each type have different names as shown in Table 1 (cited from Halliday, 2014, p.311).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Process types</th>
<th>Participants, directly involved</th>
<th>Participants, obliquely involved</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Material</td>
<td>Actor, Goal</td>
<td>Recipient, Client; Scope; Initiator; Attribute</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behavioral</td>
<td>Behaver</td>
<td>Behavior</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mental</td>
<td>Senser, Phenomenon</td>
<td>Inducer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verbal</td>
<td>Sayer, Target</td>
<td>Receiver; Verbiage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relational</td>
<td>Attributing: Carrier, Attribute;</td>
<td>Attributor; Beneficiary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Identifying: Identified, identifier</td>
<td>Assigner</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Existential</td>
<td>Existent</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As noted by Munday (2008, p.89-90), when “discourse analysis came to prominence in translation studies”, it is particularly the SFL model that “had the greatest influence”. In the process of translation, the reproduction of meaning, instead of wording, should be put at the central place (Newmark, 1988; Nida & Taber, 2003). But because of various cultural traditions and linguistic habits, translation shifts seem to be inevitable in the recreating of meaning (Matthiessen, 2014, p.275), which may affect readers’ appreciation of the text and the image of the person depicted. Based on the analysis of linguistic choices in SFL, the following part aims to investigate how the transitivity in experiential metafunction contributes to the creation of the image of a “chaste wife” and how shifts in meaning lead to variations in the image.

III. ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION: JIE FU YIN AND TWO TRANSLATIONS

A. Initial Readings of Jie Fu Yin

Zhang Ji’s poem tells a story of a married woman refusing a third person’s love, thus creating an image of a “chaste wife”, at the same time serving as a metaphor to indicate Zhang Ji’s reply to Li Shidao’s appreciation and invitation (Li, 2013, p.128). It narrates from the third person jun (the pursuer) and qie (the married woman) with the absence of the woman’s husband, and links almost all the wife’s reactions and behaviors with the progression of receiving the gift “twin pearls” and giving it back so as to form a complete artistic whole. The poem, consisting of ten lines, can be classified into five parts (see Appendix). The first four lines are about the wife’s recalling of receiving “twin pearls” (Line 1-2) and tying it to show appreciation of being recognized (Line 3-4); while the rest are about the wife’s description of her family situation (Line 5-6), vow of her loyalty to husband (Line 7-8) implying the attitude, and her refusal and gratitude to the pursuer (Line 9-10) for cutting off the relation.

However, as a reply Zhang wrote to Li Shidao, this interpretation about the theme of love is from the very basic level. At a second level, it’s in fact a political-oriented one to express personal political position as Zhang served for the central government and Li Shidao was a local military governor (Zhou, 1999, p.47). The poem of this kind can be a
tradition in ancient China, for some male poets wrote in imitation of female tone to express their political aspirations and devotion to the emperor (Chen, 2008, p.146), like Li Po’s Chang Gan Xing. Zhang Ji uses the “Jie fu” (or qie, a chaste wife) as a metaphor of himself, and the pursuer “jun” as the Li Shidao, expressing his personal attitudes and choices, and stressing his loyalty to the absent husband (the emperor) because in Chinese traditional culture, Confucianism advocates a woman should “be faithful to one’s husband unto death”, or “be an absolutely one-man wife”, like a widow remarries a man also means being disloyal.

By briefly reading the two English versions, the wife’s loyalty can be noticed as some key words “swear”, “faithful” appear in translations. But about whether that political theme stands out and how the image of a “chaste wife” recreates, it still demands close reading and exploring. Here comes how Zhang Ji and the two translators organize their interpretation into writing and how their themes foreground. By analyzing the transitivity of Jie Fu Yin and its two translations, the next part seeks to account for these questions.

B. Transitivity Analysis of Jie Fu Yin and Two Translations

The experiential meaning is about the construal of experience of the world and is mainly realized through transitivity as it is concerned with “who does what in relation to whom/what, where, when, how and why” (Hasan, 1988, p.63). The unit of transitivity analysis is about the clause, and it is recognized by identifying process (in the form of a verbal group), which is “the one obligatory constituent of a clause” (Butt et al., 2012, p.35). Table 2 presents the transitivity of process types, participants and circumstances in Zhang Ji’s Jie Fu Yin based on Li’s (2007) SFL account of Chinese grammar.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Line</th>
<th>Participants</th>
<th>Process</th>
<th>Circumstance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1-2</td>
<td>君-senser, 妾有夫-phenomenon, 妾-carrier, 夫-attribute; 双明珠-goal, 妾-recipient</td>
<td>知-mental, 有-relational, 赠-material</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-4</td>
<td>君-phenomenon</td>
<td>感-mental, 系-behavioral</td>
<td>红罗裙-space</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-6</td>
<td>高楼-carrier; 任-attribute; 君-actor, 执-goal</td>
<td>逐-relational, 起, 执-material (2), 妾家, 明光里-space (2)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7-8</td>
<td>君用心-phenomenon; 君-actor, 心-goal (2); 同生死-verbiage</td>
<td>知-mental, 用, 事-material (2), 誓-verbal</td>
<td>如日月-manner</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9-10</td>
<td>明床-goal, 君-recipient, 泪-actor; 不相干-phenomenon</td>
<td>恨-mental</td>
<td>未嫁时-time</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As can be seen, there are all together 9 material, 4 mental and 1 verbal processes; while 2 relational, 1 behavioral, and no existential processes. Halliday (2014, p.215) notes that material, mental and relational are the main types of process in the English transitivity system (the most frequent type is material process). So, except for material process, the more of using other process types deserves attention. As material process is concerned with our experience of the material world, the mental process is related to the world of our own consciousness, and relational process, description and identification. The transitivity selections in Zhang’s Jie Fu Yin suggest the poet’s emphasis on the wife’s mental thoughts in the flow of events taking place, and the description of current relations between her and her pursuer, her and her husband (or the emperor). In addition, verbal process also exerts an important effect on showing her appreciation of being recognized and highlight her proclamation of love: being loyal to her husband (or the emperor).

In detail, the above foregrounding verbs in Table 2, in Line 1-4 “知” (zhi) illustrates the pursuer’s mental cognition of observing the fact or phenomena that the wife has a husband (or the emperor, a master to serve as “有” (you) indicates their relation), but he still sends her a gift “twin pearls”; and “感” (gan) shows the wife’s gratitude as she hangs it within her red silk. Here, the image of a seemingly disloyal wife stands out in the lines: a wife accepts the courtship of a third person, against or in regardless of social ethics and the etiquette. In Line 5-8, “怜” (lian) implies the wife’s good family background (or the high official position of Zhang Ji) and again emphasizes the close relation between the wife and husband (or the emperor); and “誓” (shi), being as a consolation to the pursuer, indicates the wife’s cognition of the pursuer’s action and intention that are open and aboveboard, while verbal process of “誓” (shi) demonstrates her devoted attitude and unserving determination to live with or work together with her husband (or the emperor) forever. Here, the image of a “chaste wife” foregrounds: refusing the pursuer and being loyalty to husband (or the emperor). In addition, the mental process of “恨” (hen, not “hate”, but being sorry) in last lines again presents the appreciation of being recognized in a humorous way as 4 material processes appear to show her sadness or depression in a frank or honest way. However, there are some differences in Fletcher’s and Hart’s translations. Table 3 and Table 4 present respectively the transitivity selections in two translations.
C. Participant Roles in Jie Fu Yin and Two Translations

For convenient discussion, the translation lines are measured one-to-one corresponding to the original poem and then looked into their process types because in Hart’s translation, the original lines of the poem (Line 1-8) are adjusted. From above, it’s obvious that the process types in Hart’s translation (total 24, especially mental process) are more than Zhang’s poem (total 17) and Fletcher’s translation (total 16), which may imply the richer emotion or more complex flow of the wife’s consciousness as it stands out distinctly and explicitly. Besides, both translations have more relational processes than the original poem, as Fletcher’s 4, Hart’s 5, while the poem 2. It indicates the relations between the wife and the pursuer, and the wife and husband are made more specific in both translations. For example, “be” in Fletcher’s and “have” and “be” in Hart’s highlight the close relationship between the wife and husband, and underline the distant relationship between the wife and a third person. Thus, the image of a “chaste wife” who abides by ethics and morality is revealed.

Look separately, in Fletcher’s translation, the process types are roughly the same as the original poem with less material and mental verbs, only to lay stress on relational processes to tell the relations between each other, between the woman and her husband, and emphasize the verbal process to make her loyalty to husband clearly. In a result, with all relational verbs only concerned with the woman, like “I am duly married”, “my dwelling is a lofty one”, “my heart must be grateful” and “my husband is a soldier”, then combined with a verbal process “swear to serve my husband” to express her devoted attitude and unservering determination, it may create an alienating effect when refusing the pursuer, at the same time demonstrating the woman’s dealing of this affair in a relatively mature and sober manner. As for mental processes, “I recognize” and “regretting that” contribute to the gratitude of being recognized and the refusal of being sorry “we had not met ere” owing to the arrangement of fate. Therefore, the image of a “chaste wife” is completed: a tender “chaste wife” with calm consideration of current situation and mature thoughts about love.

Different from Fletcher, in Hart’s translation, it can be noticed that there are much more other types of verbs excluding the material, as 6 mental, 5 relational, together more than the material processes. Among them, in Line 1-4 two mental verbs “know” and “prompted” are about the pursuer while the “cherish” is about the wife, which writes more about the imagination of the wife to the pursuer, to his feelings or emotions, and it may go away a “chaste wife”, but expressing the joy and excitement when receiving the gift as she “cherish in my bosom with the jewels”. However, being a married woman, she “ever shall be faithful”, so she just puts the gift “twin pearls” hidden in the silk. The other two mental verbs “know” and “will’d” are to show that the wife understand the pursuer’s true and pure heart, but “that perverse life” doesn’t allow her to be with him as she has already belonged to her husband on that fateful wedding day, so she cannot help but send back the gift with complaints and in deep sorrow. This complicated consciousness flows and emotional changes can be found in Hart’s translation of the original poem Line 9-10. There are totally 10 process types, nearly half of the whole translation, while in Fletcher’s translation, it’s only 4, and the original poem, only 5.

Additionally, there are 2 relational, 2 verbal and 1 behavioral processes not concerned with the woman, but the pursuer and his gift, like “you need not tell me” and “if you look closely”, which also suggests that the woman blends her own emotional consciousness into that man, with illusion and desire and against the image of a traditional “chaste wife”, but instead, creating a young or inexperienced wife who has great enthusiasm but doesn’t know how to deal with such affairs; and “they’ve laid hidden” and “telling of a breaking heart”, these two are about the gift, indicating the woman’s love of it and the great sadness to return it. Anyway, eventually the woman sends the gift back, keeping the image of a “chaste wife”. Therefore, it can be concluded that Hart recreates a young “chaste wife” with complicated emotions from receiving to returning the gift, being more enthusiastic, even passionate, and her emotions (joy, excitement and sorrow) are displayed in a direct and explicit way.

C. Participant Roles in Jie Fu Yin and Two Translations
Transitivity is recognized by identifying process in a clause, but the two functional constituents—participants and circumstances are also of vital importance in transitivity system. According to Halliday, our most powerful impression of experience is that it consists of a flow of events, or happenings of the world, focusing on “who does what to whom under what circumstances?”, and this flow of events is related to quanta of change by the grammar of the clause modeled as a figure of happening, doing, sensing, saying, being or having (Halliday, 2014, p.213), which means an action or interaction cannot be separated from the doer and the recipient in various situations. Since the process types have been analyzed before, this part will draw attention on the use of participants and circumstances in order to explore their functions and deviations created in translations. Table 5 presents the different participants in *Jie Fu Yin* and its two translations.

| TABLE V. PARTICIPANTS IN ZHANG’S POEM AND EACH TRANSLATION |
|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|
|                | Actor/Goal     | Senser/Phenomenon | Behavior/Behavior | Carrier/Attribute | Sayer/Receiver |
| Zhang          | 10             | 5               | 0               | 4               | 1              | 0              | 20 |
| Fletcher       | 12             | 5               | 1               | 8               | 1              | 0              | 27 |
| Hart           | 13             | 10              | 1               | 10              | 4              | 2              | 40 |

For convenient discussion, participants like recipient, verbiage as shown in Table 2 are classified into actor/goal, sayer/receiver category in terms of their original process types, others in the translations are the same. As illustrated Table 5, obviously, the participants in two translations are more than Zhang Ji’s poem. That’s possibly because the tendency to omit personal nouns in Chinese wherever possibly (Lü, 1999, p.8). “妾” (*qie*) and “君” (*jun*) are two important pronouns functioning in original poem as actor who performs the action and goal that is affected by the action, as senser to express inner world feelings and emotions, and as carrier related to the identification of relation. What’s more, *qie* and *jun* themselves contain abundant social ethical implications. In ancient China, *jun* generally refers to the rulers (the husband, the emperor or others), while *qie* means a sinful or slave woman (Chen, 2008, p.144), which suggests that the *jun* is superior and powerful and the *qie* is inferior and obedient.

Zhang Ji uses *qie* and *jun* to imply an unequal status of relationship between a married woman and a third person, corresponding to the unequal position between the poet and the military governor. Nevertheless, due to different cultural and linguistic differences, *qie* and *jun* in original poem are replaced as “I” and “you”, or “my”, “we” and “your” in both translations, showing equal position or equivalent status and promoting to create a one-to-one relationship (Smith, 2004), which possibly leads to the loss of China’s ancient ethical values, but creating a new one and meeting western readers’ expectations and traditional egalitarianism. Consequently, this difference and deviation in the choices of personal pronouns as actor/goal or other participants bring about the deficiency of interpreting the political theme in translations.

Moreover, in Table 2, we can see the “双明珠” (*shuang ming zhu*, twin pearls) plays as goal both in the beginning and the ending, echoing the events of “receiving and “returning” (or “accepting” and “refusing”) as the word “twin” (or *shuang*) has the meaning of “two things or people that are connected”, or “to make a close relationship between each other”, thus the coherence and unity of event flows are ensured. But this is not completely reflected in both translations. Additionally, in Hart’s translation, *ming zhu* is translated as “pearls” in the beginning and “gems” in the ending, respectively serving as goal and existent, which may be an indicator to show the wife’s self-cognition of the gift since “pearls” mean pure and noble, not related to much about interest, while “gems” are apt to arouse the desire and attract attention. Hence, a young wife’s emotion of being unwilling to send the gift back again stands out.

Taken together in Table 5, we can find in original poem, except for the actor/goal, the senser/phenomenon and carrier/attribute also play an important role, mainly showing the gratitude and emphasizing the relation between each other. Fletcher’s translation is similar to the poem, but the number of participants of actor/goal in his translation is much more, shedding lights on that the participants are able to affect or bring changes to the surrounding environment, which contributes to recreating the image of a “chaste wife” with action motivated when “I” plays as the actor. As for Hart, from the data, it displays a high amount of senser/phenomenon, carrier/attribute and sayer/receiver, which demonstrates the married woman’s complex consciousness flows combined with all emotions foregrounding, and with more considerations about the relation and current situation. Thus, a more passionate image of “chaste wife” occurs.

As for circumstantial elements, Halliday (2014, p.213) argues that “all figures consist of a process unfolding through time and of participants being directly involved in this process in some way; and in addition, there may be circumstances of time, space, cause, manner or one of a few other types”. But these circumstances are not directly involved in the process, rather they are attendant on it. Circumstances take part in the mode of action or interaction to giving or demanding goods, services and information, thus imposing linguistic order on our experience of the endless variation and flow of events. The grammatical system by which this is achieved is that of transitivity. Table 6 presents the circumstance divisions in the poem and two translations.
Considering the amount, both translations have more circumstances than the original poem, especially in Hart’s translation. Excluding the most common space, time, both translations also have more other types like manner, cause and comparison. For example, in Fletcher’s translation, circumstances play as manner like “I am duly married” to emphasize the appropriateness or correctness in her choice of marriage, and as cause “for this your kind devotion” or as comparison “as bright as shining sun or moon” to foreground the gratitude with an implicit refusal; while in Hart’s translation, not similarly, manners like “if you look closely” indicates the woman’s desire to make a connection to or built a relationship with the pursuer, and “in sadness / with a sigh” highlights the grief and depression; other circumstances like “with the jewels” and “with...twin gems lying” again make the gift “pearls” with some more imagination of being pleasing, good, or helpful unlike Fletcher’s. With these adding elements of prepositions, conjunctions or adjuncts, the flow of events and the change of the woman’s emotions are made specific, meanwhile keeping the readers well informed.

However, in original poem, the total circumstances appear only 5 times, while Fletcher’s 10, Hart’s 20. This in fact also demonstrates the big difference of language-using habits of various countries and cultural traditions. Chinese language tends to give prominence to parataxis, while English hypotaxis (Nida, 1982). By nature, it results from the different ways of thinking between Chinese and western people. Chinese are influenced by the philosophy of “the unity of Heaven and Man” in traditional culture, thus laying emphasis on integration and pursuing harmony through the semantic association between words and sentences; while western people, affected by the idea of “separation of Heaven and Man” in ancient Greece, focus on the use of logical grammar to express the logical relationship between sentences and within sentences (Yang, 2011). Therefore, with more circumstances, both translations try to make it more clearly in the poem, especially Hart’s translation, about what is connected to the character and what he or she wants to express for implied readers.

IV. CONTEXTUAL CONSIDERATION

From above analysis and discussion, it can be seen that different translator favors different using of transitivity, thus creating different images of the same “chaste wife”. It should be admitted that variations in meaning are inevitable in translating a certain poem. But a text cannot be separated from its context, it is of interest to consider the motivation behind the occurring linguistic choices that make up a certain style of a translation. Thus, to account for the deviations and differences of translations, it is necessary to take the context (field, tenor and mode) into consideration as “no translations should ever be studied outside of the context in which it came into being” (Toury, 2012, p.22).

W. J. B. Fletcher was a celebrated British diplomat and translator in the 20th century, who published the earliest English-translated collections of Tang poetry (Wang, 2013, p.100). After his retirement, he once taught English at Sun Yat-sen University in China. In his two collections, Gems of Chinese Verse (1918) and More Gems of Chinese Poetry (1919), Fletcher translated 286 poems in total and first displayed Tang poetry, the greatest “gems” of Chinese literature to western readers, which profoundly helps to spread classical Chinese poetry into English world. It can be noticed that in Fletcher’s collections, Fletcher favors a formation of intertextuality of classic English poems and Tang poetry with many notes about where the translation is from and what a special term means in China, especially the words about Chinese culture (Wang, 2013, p.107), like “Chingmen is at Wuchang”. Besides, Fletcher often tries to maintain the original rhyme style, as he writes “I have usually followed closely the original form of the poems, frequently keeping their meter, but fear that I have lost much of their nuances and fragile delicacy” (Fletcher, 1918). For example, Fletcher has retained and represented the original rhymes in Line 1-2 and Line 5-6 of Jie Fu Yin in his translation.

As a diplomat with relatively enough knowledge of Chinese, Fletcher translated the poem with less mental verbs and other types of verbs, instead, giving some words like “married” and “kind devotion” in an implicit way to show the refusal. Meanwhile he titled it as “The Retort Courteous” in a British gentleman style with a mild and clam, but distant tone, not representing the “chaste” wife directly. Furthermore, the era when Fletcher translated Tang poetry was the early years of the Republic of China. At that time China’s economy and international status were far behind many western countries. With the barrier of understanding different culture, the classical Chinese literature was much more difficult to attract attention and go aboard. Considering about the western readers, Fletcher translated Tang poetry in an English-poem style. For instance, he translated the husband’s position as “soldier who guards the Emperor’s home”, which may go far against the husband’s exalted social status in original poem, thus cutting off the imagination and interpretation of “loyalty to husband” as a metaphor of “loyalty to the emperor”. However, this kind of translation exactly fits western readers’ favors, which also benefits the spreading of Chinese culture.

Unlike Fletcher, Henry H. Hart was a renowned American sinologist and translator in 20th century, who was devoted
into the study of Chinese culture. His most famous Chinese literary translation works are The West Chamber—A Medieval Drama (1936), and The Hundred Names: A Short Introduction to the Study of Chinese Poetry with Illustrative Translations (1933). According to the forward that British sinologist E.T.C. Werner wrote for Hart in A Chinese Market: Lyrics from the Chinese in English Verse (1931), Hart was especially proficient in Chinese poetry as he once studied Chinese language and culture in China and the United States for a long time. Besides, in the book of A Garden of Peonies: Translations of Chinese Poems into English Verse (1938), Hart himself names China as “Mother China” and shows his sincere love for Chinese poetry as he thinks Chinese poetry is written on the thinnest paper with the softest pen, and as a record of the Han people’s life and culture, it is more immortal than poems carved on stone.

Hart deems that many beautiful poems in China are still unknown to western readers, with only one thousand being translated into foreign languages and most of them are repetitive translations (Hart, 1933, p.1), so it demands a great deal for translating and spreading. With the increasing exchange between China and America that time, Hart hopes that the translation of these poems being neglected can help young western people to understand the culture and customs of ancient China and appreciate its charm and elegance (Hart, 1933, p.3). Therefore, with sufficient knowledge of Chinese, Hart chose to reduce the difficulty of western readers’ aesthetic reading of Chinese classical poetry and improve their reception and interpretation of Chinese culture. For example, he translated the title directly as “A LETTER”, adjusted the structure of some lines for better understanding and used many straightforward words like “Pearls!”, “So!” “Alas” and “with a sign” so as to unfold the implicit expression in the original poem and describe a married woman with much more colorful inner activities under his own imagination and creative translation, thus a passionate “chaste wife” image comes into being. But with the influence of western cultural traditions, even though there is one mental process “may he live ten thousand years” presented to show the good wishes or as an indicator of loyalty, many participants like “I” and “you” other conjunctive elements are added, so the political theme is apt to be ignored.

V. CONCLUSION

This study is the application of transitivity in SFL to two English translations of Zhang Ji’s Jie Fu Yin. It has found that in different options of transitivity (process types, participants and circumstances), Fletcher, as a British diplomat, favors an implicit way to express the wife’s refusal to the pursuer in an English-poem style with less material and mental verbs, only to lay stress on relational and verbal processes to emphasize their relations and her loyalty to husband, thus recreating a clam and tender image of a mature “chaste wife”; differently, Hart, as an American sinologist, focuses on the expression of emotions and the reader’s receiving, with much more mental processes and sensers, relational processes and carriers to show the complicated consciousness flows and emotional changes of a married woman, even including her illusion and desire on the pursuer, thus representing a more enthusiastic even passionate image of a young or inexperienced “chaste wife” in a relatively direct and explicit way. Moreover, both translations reveal the theme about love of the original poem, but failing to present the political theme (Zhang’s refusal to Li Shidaos, and his loyalty to the emperor) because of the misunderstanding of the most important participants qie and jin, the different language-using habits in constructing circumstances, and the careful considerations for implied western readers.

It should be noted that the focus of this comparative study is on the images of a “chaste wife” projected through the linguistic choices and clues in translations, not equivalent to the images actually formulated in the mind of the implied readers, which may be of interest for further studies. Since translating is a process of making choices, and the translator needs to select “among a certain (and very often exactly definable) number of alternatives” (Levý, 2012, p.72), this study not only investigates the different linguistic choices of translators under the basis of transitivity in SFL, but also explores their consequences and contextual considerations. At the same time, it demonstrates that a text can be better understood in terms of its context. Although there are some deviations and differences between the translations and the original poem, in a certain field, tenor or mode, each of the translations can be one kind of classic poem going beyond nations and times.

APPENDIX. JIE FU YIN AND TWO TRANSLATIONS

節婦吟·寄東平李司空師道——(唐) 張籍

君知妾有夫， /贈妾双明珠。 /感君绸繢意， /系在红罗襦。 /妾家高楼连苑起， /良人执戟明光里。 /知君用心如日月， /事夫誓死同生死。 /还君明珠双泪垂， /恨不相逢未嫁时。

The Retort Courteous——W. J. B. Fletcher

That I am duly married, assuredly you know, /And yet to you I send as gift twin pearls of mystic glow. /For this your kind devotion my heart must grateful be. /I hung within my red silk vest those pearls I might not show. /My dwelling is a lofty one within a stately dome. /My husband is a soldier who guards the Emperor’s home. /I recognize your love as bright as shining sun or moon. /Yet swear to serve my husband, and never from him roam. /With your bright pearls I send again twin tears as crystal clear, /Regretting that we had not met ere Fortune placed me here.

A LETTER——Henry H. Hart

Pearls! /Twins pearls, /Bright gems of ocean, /To me, a married woman /You have sent! //Yet you know I have a husband /In attendance, in the palace, /On the Lord of Light, the Emperor-- /May he live ten thousand years! //But the
thought that prompted you / I cherish / In my bosom with the jewels. / There they've lain hidden till this hour, / In the soft, enfolded silk. / // I know--you need not tell me--/ That your thoughts are pure as moonlight, // Or as the glowing sun at midday / Overhead. // My home lies noble on its gardens. // There the marriage oath I've taken, // And I ever shall be faithful, // Even past the gates of death. // So!--/ The twin pearls are in this letter. // I send them back to you in sadness / With a sigh. // If you look closely, you'll find with them / Two other twin gems lying, // Twin enfolding silk. // I know--you need not tell me--/ That your thoughts are pure as moonlight, // Or as the glowing sun at midday. // The Translator, 9(1), 101-124. doi:10.1080/13556509.2003.10799147.

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Evokers of the Divine Message: Mysticism of American Transcendentalism in Emerson’s “Nature” and the Mystic Thought in Rumi’s *Masnavi*

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Abstract—Mysticism, religion and mankind’s relationship with an all-absolute deity has been a prominent part of the human experience throughout history. Poets such as Emerson and Rumi were similarly concerned with this question in creating their works. Although Rumi’s thought stems from the Quran and Emerson’s manifestation of Nature takes roots in the ancient eastern philosophies such as Buddhism, their works seem to share some explicit characteristics. Rumi (1207-1273) lived most of his life in Konya and Kh orasan and Emerson (1803-1882) lived in America, but their immense geographic and temporal distances did not surpass their analogous attitudes as mystics. The biggest and the most obvious affinity between these mystic thoughts is believing in Monism as a spiritual practice. Although Emerson read and was influenced by classical Persian poetry of Hafiz and Sa’di, there is no evidence suggesting that he was familiar with Rumi’s poetry. Moreover, thematic analogies between Rumi’s *Masnavi* and Emerson’s essay on Nature result in a shared ideology which includes themes varying from monism, kashf or unveiling, attitudes towards language and the uninitiated. These concepts, observed in both works, point us toward the realization of universal features of mysticism.

Index Terms—comparative literature, Emerson, *Masnavi*, mysticism, nature, Rumi, transcendentalism

I. INTRODUCTION

Through the ages, there have always been visionary individuals who have pointed out some folly of the human experience, those who have showed themselves oftentimes as poets, prophets, painters, humanists, philosophers and so on. As Eric Fromm mentions in the preface of his book entitled *Rumi: The Persian, The Mystic*: “the human race is threatened by… spiritual decay through an ever-increasing alienation of man from himself, his fellow man, from nature and from the products of his own work. Is it surprising that many men in all countries have reacted to these dangers by a new affirmation?” (Arasteh, 2008, p. 10). The new affirmations that will be discussed here are spirituality and mysticism. They serve as an attempt to look within, search the capability of our race as humans and taking possibilities to the edge.

Human being’s relationship with God has emerged in different ways around the globe. Whether they be Sufists in Iran, Buddhists in India or Transcendentalists in America, they are all based on the same ground: mankind’s hidden desire to reach out to God. Wherever the mystic thoughts stem from, whether from the prophets of Abrahamic religions or even poets like Rumi and Emerson, they all share very distinct characteristics and ways of thought. While they have been shaped and elevated in immense geographical and temporal distances from each other, probably without having any contact with the others whatsoever, they all tend to be the same, not just in the basics, but even in the smallest details. The biggest and the most obvious similarity among these mystic thoughts is believing in the “One-ness” of the universe, that all the particles making up our bodies and all the objects in nature and cosmos are all part of The One, The All, named by some people as God. This thought stages itself through the concept of “Tawhid” in Islamic mysticism, “Mandala” in Buddhism, and “Nature” in Emerson’s essay: “I am part or particle of God” (Emerson, 2004, p. 4) and in Rumi it shows itself in the following verse: “infinity everywhere, yet contained under a single tent” (Barks, 2010, p. 136).

The mystic thought of Rumi is deeply rooted in the Quran; his *Masnavi* is famously known as a newly written Quran. It is safe to say that his thought is indebted to Islamic teachings but he has his own exclusive voice. His works are by themselves distinctly profound books on morality, God, poetry, love, wisdom, religion, and truth. But, when talking about mysticism, we are looking beyond the concept of theology and religious doctrines. Mysticism is “the inner experience of oneness with the world, liberation from irrational passions, from the delusion of an indestructible, separate ego, and from the prison that this very delusion creates” (Arasteh, 2008, p. 12). A mystic’s goal is to reach
union with God and immerse himself within Him. George Santayana writes about the ideal mystic: “Instead of perfecting human nature, it seeks to abolish it, instead of building a better world, it would undermine the foundations of the world we have built already” (1990, p. 15). So, whatever theology and ideology the mystic relies upon, in the end, his voice comes from within himself and there he has discovered something profound and eternal, his soul, his essence, God.

The poets in question are shaping their thoughts and philosophical statements, as a reaction to the outside world, to the way humanity is leading the course of history, and to guide the ones who feel lost and broken. Emerson's essay, "Nature," is considered as the foundation of transcendentalism, which challenges any traditional belief about the appreciation of nature in America. It is safe to say that this school of thought was also indebted to other philosophies and religions. Emerson himself was deeply influenced by the mysticism of the east, i.e. Buddhism and classical Persian poetry of Sa’di and Hafiz.

Emerson, in his manifestation, describes a new God for Americans, one who is ever-encompassing, reachable and visible through nature. He calls nature “The Universal Being” (Emerson, 2014, p. 4). This is an idea that might feel familiar to someone who has read works of eastern mysticism or has practiced the doctrine himself, but for American literature, this is quite new. Hence, transcendentalism can be considered an avant-garde school of thought and the specific spirituality rooted within it, is quite shocking in a society governed by the Puritan religious institutions.

However, Emerson’s manifestation is unique in itself. It must be mentioned that every array of mysticism is particular in itself and is shaped by taking influence from the place and time of its birth. But, it cannot be ignored that at its core, and oftentimes, in the details, mystic thoughts tend to have a specific quality which transcends all the differences, arriving at a joined destination. In other words, if the differences are set aside, every school of mysticism is apprehended and accepted by most people regardless of its place and time of birth. The reason could be that mysticism appeals to the soul rather than the mind. Since the beginning of the 20th century, Buddhism has become quite popular in America and the number of people practicing the doctrine is growing each year. Also, Rumi’s collections of poetry have made their way among the best-sellers in the west. These specific mystic philosophies have proved to be timeless and borderless, to the point that people of different times, cultures and beliefs could comprehend and absorb what they have to offer. In the case of Emerson and transcendentalism, in the words of Charles H. Lippy: “The seeker[s] fascination with things Eastern, especially meditation, sustained both a conviction that there is a universality to the spiritual quest and a commitment to [the] quiet transformation of society” (2006, p. 524). Also, in the book entitled Emerson and Mysticism, Patrick F. Quinn mentions this universality of mysticism when he says: “Perhaps the most striking thing about mysticism is the similarity of its essential feature, which recurs in spite of such differences in place or time” (1950, p. 398).

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

There are several comparative studies conducted on Emerson and the influence of Persian masters of poetry such as Hafiz and Sa’di on him. Among the most important of such studies are: Sufism and American Literary Masters (2015) which discusses the influence of Sufism on poets of the Transcendentalist school and Emerson in Iran (2019) by Roger Sedarat which exclusively discusses Emerson and his Persian idols. While most of the comparative researches on Emerson have zoomed in on the influences of Hafiz and Sa’di on him, there has never been any study conducted on a comparison between him and Rumi.

Paul Kane in his article entitled: “Emerson and Hafiz: The Figure of the Religious Poet” (2009) focuses on the influence of Hafiz’s poetry on Emerson and states that his prose works cannot be fully appreciated until his poetry and the source of his inspiration is closely examined. He also pays attention to the specific terminology that Emerson borrows from Hafiz such as: ‘cup-bearer’ and ‘wine’ relating to its divine collocations specific to Persian mystic tradition.

Moreover, J. D. Yohannan in “The Influence of Persian Poetry upon Emerson’s Work” (1943) discusses both Sa’di and Hafiz’s influence by zooming on Emerson’s translations of their poems. He carries out his argument by putting Emerson’s poems on a par with Sa’di and Hafiz’s translations and discusses their overlaps in terms of terminology, language, tone and objective.

In another study entitled: “A Poet Builds a Nation: Hafez as a Catalyst in Emerson’s Process of Developing American Literature” B. M. Fomeshi and A. Khojastehpour (2014) discuss the reasons why Emerson was so receptive of Persian literature and mysticism and how these factors went hand in hand with his resolution to establish an American literary tradition. The reasons behind Emerson’s reception of Hafiz include: the correspondence between transcendentalism and Persian mysticism and Emerson’s nonconformity in religion. But, as mentioned earlier, the affinity between Emerson and Rumi has been neglected in the academy and the present study takes it upon itself to fill the gap in the literature.

III. METHODOLOGY

Since there is no evidence that suggests Emerson read or was familiar with Rumi’s poetry, the approach, here, will automatically be that of the American school of comparative literature. This school was founded in the second half of the twentieth century by Henry Remak and René Wellek, reacting to the French school and emphasizing parallel
relations between works of art without necessarily having a causal relation. Remak defines the field as follows: “comparative literature is the comparative study of literature of one country with that of another country or other countries, and the comparison between literature and other expression fields” (Stallknecht & Frenz, 2012, p. 30). With this shift in methodology, the emphasis was lifted from influence to the act of comparison, “expanding the field from the interliterary to the interartistic and the interdiscursive” (Domínguez, Saussy, & Villanueva, 2015, p. 12).

Comparative literature emphasizes a methodology which refuses nationalism and tries to zoom on an area of literature which cannot be confined to specific borders, cultures, languages and religions. Since the aim of this paper is to arrive at a universal feature among mystic thoughts, this approach is the most appropriate one.

IV. DISCUSSION

Among the diverse mystic thoughts which have emerged around the globe, there are certain qualities that connect and merge them as one. Since the seeker belonging to this specific array of worldview always seeks the same entity, the path or creed that he needs to follow stems from the same core. As a result, his beliefs and convictions shape according to the same source.

What follows is the discussion of the mentioned qualities and beliefs which will be conducted through thematic analogies and comparison of the poets’ attitudes towards matters related to mysticism.

A. Monism

The belief that there is only one creator has circulated through monotheistic religions since 35000 years ago with the birth of Judaism. This concept possesses different terms in every Abrahamic religion: “Shituf” in Judaism, “Trinity” in Christianity and “Tawhid” in Islam. All of these religions believe in the singularity of the divine deity or creator. Christians believe that the notion of Trinity entails only different manifestations of the one true God. Jews have developed a distinct form of prayer to praise one deity and the first proclamation of faith that Muslims must chant is “There is no God except He.”

However, the concept discussed here is a bit different from what these religions practice as their belief. At the same time, it must be mentioned that it definitely took influence from the holy books. The Mystic viewpoint of monotheism is a bit different and more complicated than the sheer belief in one God. While the mystic believes in the concept, he experiences it on another level. Caroline F. E. Spurgeon widely defines mysticism as: “an attitude of mind founded upon an intuitive or experienced conviction of unity, of oneness, of likeness in all things” (2017, p. 5). From this source springs all mystical thought. This concept of unity is deeply rooted in Rumi’s Masnavi to the extent that he calls his work the unity shop: “Our Masnavi is the shop for Unity: anything that you see (there) except The One is (only) an idol” (Verse 1528)\(^1\).

Rumi, as a mystic poet and dancer of love and life, employs a type of monism in his poetry which Islamic thinkers such as Ibn Arabi call “Unity of Existence” or “Unity of Being.” The notion revolves around the omnipresence of God in every particle of the cosmos. In Ibn Arabi’s own words: “Glory to Him who created all things, being Himself their very essence” (Sharif, 1966, p. 409). A mystic’s eternal goal is not only the realization of this notion, but stepping onto the spiritual journey which is reaching God in his essence, becoming one with him, reaching union with him.

In one of his ghazals (sonnets) in Divan-e Shams, Rumi shouts out to those who go on an immensely difficult pilgrimage through the desert to reach the Muslim’s house of God, Kaaba, to come back and find their spiritual beloved in their own house: “If you'd see the Beloved's form without any form - You are the house, the master, You are the Kaaba, you!” (1695). Through this conceit, Rumi declares that every individual is himself/herself the house of God. The purest and closest one can get to God is by looking within himself where He is, rather than traveling huge distances to look for something so abstract and ungraspable: “Where, one soul's pearly essence, when you're the Sea of God” (1698). However, it is only the mystic's soul that experiences this all-absolute presence not only wherever he looks but in the deepest particles of his being. This notion of God is frequently called upon in Classical Persian Poetry as a secret that when it is revealed, a veil of ignorance or blindness is lifted: “How sad that you yourself veil the treasure that is yours!” (1672). Enlightenment is achieved through this experience, whereby one becomes a mystic, a lover whose only aspiration is reaching the sea of God, where he truly belongs. As Ghadir Golkarian mentions, Rumi’s final desire is to reach a meaningful coherence with all the aspects of God: “man tries to prevail within the entity world that surrounds him, and finally in a meaningful coherence to the existential, epistemological, aesthetic and ethical aspects of God” (2019, p. 5).

Moreover, in the Romanticism of the late 18th century England and later in 19th century American transcendentalism, this mystical appearance of God is observed more closely through a reevaluation of nature. Emerson experiences this spiritual presence in the woods and away from man-built structures. In his essay, he tries to explain these unique mystical emotions and he describes them as a feature related to man rather than nature. As if being in nature stimulates the spiritual aspect of mankind which already resides in his own nature. He clearly states that “it is certain that the power to produce this delight, does not reside in nature, but in man, or in a harmony of both” (Emerson, 2004, p. 4). He feels an exceptional feeling of enlightenment in nature as if he is closer to the spirit of God and truth. Rumi in his poetry

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\(^1\) Rumi’s lines are extracted from Reynold A. Nicholson’s translations available at [http://www.masnavi.net](http://www.masnavi.net).
expresses exactly the same philosophy as the Islamic thinker Ibn Arabi who observes a unity in existence, and it is strange but true that Emerson mentions a similar philosophy by coining “The Universal Being.” When in nature, he loses himself completely and forgets every structure or identity which was formed while living in society and man-made civilization: “I am nothing. I see all. The currents of the Universal Being circulate through me; I am part or particle of God. The name of the nearest friend sounds then foreign and accidental” (p. 4). Emerson believes that in order to be able to experience this union in nature, one must put behind all of the distractions and transient efforts imposed on him by society. Despite this fact, he declares that human beings are fully suited for the mystic experience and reaching the state of union since: “Nature always wears the colors of the spirit” (p. 4).

In the chapter discussing about beauty, Emerson defines nature as: “a sea of forms radically alike and even unique” (p. 10). He describes all the objects and properties of this world as forms which are floating in the sea of being, they belong to the water and they are part or particle of it, they are one with this sea: “A leaf, a sun-beam, a landscape, the ocean, make an analogous impression on the mind” (p. 11).

Rumi describes this very notion through using many examples with his playful language. In one instance he portrays the beam of light as singular as it is radiated from its source, which later on divides into several rays and shadows hitting the walls and houses. While if we remove the walls (metaphorically the veil which covers the secret) what remains is only one in essence: “Just as the single light of the sun in heaven is a hundred in relation to the house-courts (on which it shines), but when you remove the wall, all the lights (falling) on them are one” (416).

In another instance, he mentions what it would be like if we became a mystic like him: “You will see neither the sky nor the stars nor (any) existence but God, the One, the Living, the Loving” (1045). Another example indicating the same issue is: “Lovers have pitched their tents in non-existence: they are of one colour (quality) and one essence, like non-existence” (3024). In the world that the mystic sees, there is no plurality, rather, the union and wholeness of the one, which for Emerson, embodies itself best through nature: “A single object is only so far beautiful as it suggests this universal grace… God is the all-fair. Truth, and goodness, and beauty are but different faces of the same All” (p. 10).

B. Kashf or Unveiling

The mystic has discovered something that most people are blind to. He has discovered God in His purest and most elegant form. Unveiling deals directly with intuition and the knowledge received comes from the heart and the soul rather than reason or intellect. This knowledge is usually gained through meditations, what the Sufists call Mukashafa which is defined as: “disclosure or divine irradiation of the essence” (Gardet, 2013, p. 83). The mystic uncovers his soul and heart and allows the divine truth to pour into him. This divine delight is what makes him fall deeply in love with his creator and longs to reach his essence eternally.

The mystic's unveilings have given him an insight and vision which has changed his experience of the world forever. The mystic's eye sees nothing but the beloved, his ear hears no sound other than his creator calling to him, he notices jollity in every particle of the cosmos which is a reflection of the beloved's presence. This line from Emerson's poem called "Nature" touches upon this concept: "The eye reads omens where it goes, and speaks all languages the rose" (2006, p. 1530).

The most famous line in Emerson's essay appears when he is walking through the woods and the divine delight touches upon his soul: “Standing on the bare ground… my head bathed by the blythe air, and uplifted into infinite space…. all mean egotism vanishes. I become a transparent eye-ball” (p. 4). A transparent eye-ball is not just a careless observer and it does not simply see objects, it draws and apprehends profoundly the essence of creation. It unveils the universe’s core secret wherever it rolls. The five senses of the body are meaningless compared to this experience. Just as Mehdi Aminrazavi mentions in his book entitled Sufism and American Literary Masters (2015), the mystic is one who could use and unveil the language of nature, where divinity is the all-present entity: “the whole nature evidences divinity, absolute beauty is reflected in all natural objects and thus in every self-reliant man who could use nature as his language” (p. 98).

Rumi’s “Mukashafa” has rendered him frantically possessed by this divine spirit. In one of his narrative poems in Masnavi, Rumi writes a line in which the speaker is a Sufi: “We have hearing and sight and are happy, (although) with you, the uninitiated, we are mute” (1019). To evaluate closely the implications of the words and the mystical interpretation of this line, the original line in Persian is rendered below:

با شما نامحرمان ما خاتمش
ما سمعیم و بصیریم و خوشش

The literal translation of this line is: “We are all ears and eyes and are happy, but when it comes to sharing the secret with you uninitiated ones, we are mute.” The word he uses for eyes is “بصیر” which is somewhat different from sight. In the Islamic thought, there is a mystical term for some individuals whom God has granted an insight with which they see and comprehend the unseen divine. This quality of the eye which corresponds with the spirit is called “An eye of Clairvoyance or Vision” (چشم بصیرت). The same is true about the term "سمعیم" which refers to the ear which hears otherworldly sounds from behind the veil. The mystical apprehension of the term “Transparent eye-ball” coincides explicitly with Rumi’s choice of words and both of them convey an equivalent concept. It could be inferred that these mystics have unveiled the secret with the same tools, that they have had the same guides; the universal guide for the mystic, i.e. his soul.

The attitude of these poets towards the uninitiated ones, i.e. those who are alien to the secret is also worth mentioning. In order to criticize the move towards industrialization and the ensuing lifestyle and its impacts on individuals, Emerson
mentions lack of certain qualities in the senses and consciousness. He believes that: “Few adult persons can see nature. Most persons do not see the sun. At least they have a very superficial seeing” (p. 3). For Emerson, it is only the mystic and also the child whose senses are perceptible to the divine qualities of nature, since the mystic has purified his soul and the child has not been corrupted yet. He believes that men need solitude to rediscover their capacities and they need both isolations from their chambers and society to realize the “Perpetual presence of the sublime” (p. 2). He states that: “all natural objects make a kindred impression when the mind is open to their influence” (p. 3). The truth is that most people blindly follow what they have been taught and they are distanced from themselves, their divine and pure selves. However, Emerson believes that every individual is capable of becoming a divine entity himself. Since the spirit of the Supreme Being “does not build up nature around us, but puts it forth through us” and the tiniest specs of the universe are part of the whole and so are human beings. He states that: “Every rational creature has all nature for his dowry and estate. It is his, if he will” (p. 8).

On the other hand, Rumi has a more serious tone when it comes to dealing with those who are deluded by transient pleasures and the villainy of this world. He calls them uninhibited, and just like Emerson, he scolds them because of their superficial attitude. In Masnavi he employs a metaphor in which he describes a clay pot filled with divine wine. He declares that only the ones whose spirits are awakened can see past through the veil and drink the divine essence: “The wine belongs to the Unseen, the pot to this world: the pot is apparent, the wine in it is very hidden” (3305). The stranger only sees the pot since he belongs to this world, but the Sufi sees past the clay and into the wine: “Very hidden from the eyes of the uninitiated, but manifest and evident to the adept” (3306). This type of physical-spiritual contradiction is copiously used in Rumi’s poetry: “The unfamiliar (uninitiated) spirit does not see the face of the Beloved: (none sees it) except that spirit whose origin is from His dwelling-place” (4680).

Nonetheless, just as Emerson believes that every man has the capacity to purify his soul and unveil the secret, Rumi glorifies human soul and attributes the characteristics of a savior to it. His first Rubā’i in Divan-e Shams is: “whichever heart (who) becomes deserving of God’s light, the secret will pour into him” (Rumi, 1996, p. 1265).

C. Language

Mystics have usually had a skeptical tendency towards language and its uses. The main reason behind this cynical standpoint is that the mystic believes his otherworldly experiences of discovery and mukashafa to be incommunicable. Even when he tries to explain his inward spiritual journey and mystical insights, others just do not understand him and he might often become the subject of ridicule and even excluded from society. Plotinus states that: “insight blocks the pathway of speech” (2000, p. 84). Alfred Lord Tennyson, after drifting into a transcendental state, tries to describe his experience but afterward, he writes: "I am ashamed of my feeble description. Have I not said the state is utterly beyond words?" (James, 2002, p. 297). Sa’di at the beginning of his Gulistan writes: “if someone asks me for His description, what shall I despairingly say of One who has no form?” (Whinfield, 1883, p. 6).

This inclination to degrade language and deem it incapable entails another viewpoint as well. Emerson states that throughout the ages, mankind’s language has distanced itself from its pure form: “As we go back in history, language becomes more picturesque, until its infancy, when it is all poetry; or, all spiritual facts are represented by natural symbols” (2004, p. 12). He believes that language must be simple and picturesque and that every word must correspond with its spiritual symbol in nature. Since nature is the manifestation of God’s essence, words should be as close to their signs of natural facts as possible. He declares the language of savages and children to be the simplest, who “only have what is necessary and converse in figures” (p. 12).

In Emerson’s view, the corruption of man is followed by his corruption of language. This happens when “simplicity of character and the sovereignty of ideas is broken up by the prevalence of secondary desires, the desire of riches, pleasure, power, praise … and duplicity and falsehood take place of simplicity and truth” (p. 12). He believes that language must be in direct correspondence with visible nature and since we would like to communicate our thoughts to each other without loss, there is nothing as whole and perfect as nature.

Moreover, Emerson discloses the view that thoughts move the experience of man in nature towards impurity. He declares that he has his best appreciation of nature when he is not overcome by thoughts. He defines man in alliance with truth and God as one who employs simple and picturesque language: “The moment our discourse rises above the ground line of familiar facts, and is inflamed with passion or exalted by thought, it clothes itself in images” (p. 13). And it is in this line of his essay where he acknowledges language as insufficient: “We know more from nature than we can at will communicate” (p. 13).

Mystics believe that their experience is one which transcends all meaning and therefore is ineffable. The experience deals with non-duality and blurs the lines of separation if not eliminate it. Since language creates distinctions, and mystical experience overpowers every existence with the One, it is natural for the mystic to develop an attitude of animosity when dealing with language: “Language either cannot apply to or falls short of unitary states of consciousness” (Hatab, 2015, p. 3). The indescribable nature of the experience brings about a mystery which is characterized by a presence without form that language cannot possibly grasp.

Lawrence J. Hatab argues in his paper entitled "Mysticism and Language" (2015) that if the mystic wants to use language to describe his experience, he must transcend the use of objective or ordinary language and appeal to an
extraordinary and mystical dimension of language (p. 3). Rumi is a prime example of this notion. His elegant and celestial poetry has been a source of inspiration for ages. He uses poetry, the most sublime form of language, to render glimpses of his spiritual journey and the irony is that even such a gifted poet like Rumi finds himself unable to communicate his experience: “Whosoever I say in exposition and explanation of Love, when I come to Love (itself) I am ashamed of that (explanation)” (pp. 112-161). In another poem he emphasizes the same issue: “Now my state is beyond telling; this which I am telling is not my (real) state” (1791-1840), and in yet another poem he uses the same logic to describe the mutability of language: “From this mirror (appear) at every moment fifty (spiritual) wedding-feasts: hearken to the mirror, but do not ask (Me) to describe it” (3077-3126).

Rumi also employs a specific skepticism towards language. He is one among the “Many mystics who prefer silence, or at best negative language” (Hatab, 2015, p. 4). He advises others to be silent and declares language to be a layer of dust which covers up the truth. There are numerous examples in his works in which he orders the tongue to be silent and let the veil be lifted. The following extracts from *Masnavi* all point out the same belief:

> “Outward speech and talk is as dust: do thou for a time make a habit of silence. Take heed!” (577-626).
> “By reason of (inward) sweetness I sit with sour face: from fullness of speech I am silent” (1760-1809).
> “Although the commentary of the tongue makes (all) clear, yet tongueless love is clearer” (113-162).
> “O tongue, thou art a great damage (very injurious) to mankind, (but) since thou art speaking, what should I say to thee?” (1699-1748).

For Rumi, language is a vehicle that directs one to the outside and it is inside him where the secret lies. So language is a sort of distraction, talking and speech distance us from the true face of the Beloved. Rumi’s emphasis is on the power of the soul and intuition rather than logic. Language, being a conventional form which possesses a specific structure and its own certain rules, cannot help the mystic discover something which is formless, mysterious and beyond the comprehension of the mind.

V. CONCLUSION

Mysticism has possessed various names, methodologies and belief systems throughout human history. While mystics have emerged in different cultures, countries or even continents, they tend to have specifically similar attitudes towards God and the human condition. We can apply the mystic’s belief in non-duality to all plural schools of mysticism to conclude their own singularity. Although they seem different at first, they all stem from the same singularity. No matter what the name or language of practice, every mystic has the desire to reach God and unveil his true capacity. Emerson finds his way in nature and in isolation, while Rumi dances and sings God’s divine verses in a drunken state.

While these poets walked in the same path towards enlightenment and union, they developed analogous attitudes towards the concepts, ideas, and tools which human beings use on their journey. Language is one of those tools which could prove to be deluding and impede the mystic’s consciousness. They also seemed to see certain qualities in themselves which others apparently lack. Emerson and Rumi tend to have parallel attitudes towards the strangers to the secret and how to deal with them. It is safe to say that while these poets may have had different methods of finding the truth, they reached the same place of union. After all, every specific kind of mysticism is particular in itself and is shaped by taking influence from the time and place of its birth. But as was observed above, Rumi’s selected poems and Emerson’s mystic thought tend to share very basic and specific features. Through speculations, they even seem to have peculiar qualities which transcend all the differences and make their thought not only universal but favorable among mystics.

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The Application of Iconicity in Teaching Vocabulary in College English*

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Abstract—Vocabulary is the cornerstone of language teaching and learning. At present, a majority of college English teachers invest a lot of time in vocabulary teaching; however, they haven’t achieved the goal of college English vocabulary teaching as they desired. Iconicity is an important notion in semiotics, which mainly refers to the resemblance between the form of a sign and what it refers to, namely, the object or concept. Consequently, to some extent, the form of vocabulary is closely connected with what it refers to. Based on the relations between the form of vocabulary and what it refers to, this paper mainly explores the application of lexical iconicity in teaching vocabulary in college English with the purpose of formulating more effective vocabulary teaching approaches.

Index Terms—Morpheme Iconicity, Metaphor Iconicity, Etymology Iconicity, Vocabulary Teaching

I. INTRODUCTION

In English learning, nothing is more important than vocabulary acquisition. Vocabulary acquisition is the precondition of the basic language skills, such as listening, speaking, reading, writing and translation or interpretation. Wilkins (1978) argued without grammar very little can be conveyed and without vocabulary noting can be conveyed. The size of vocabulary determines the degree of foreign language comprehension. There is no exaggeration to say that vocabulary is the most important factor that restricts the efficiency of foreign language learning, and at the same time, vocabulary is the basic material of any given language. Consequently, vocabulary acquisition runs through the whole process of English learning. In college English teaching, effective vocabulary teaching approaches are in need, considering the present efficiency in vocabulary acquisition, for the reason that the teachers have not correlated the form of vocabulary with what it refers to in college English vocabulary teaching. Iconicity as a semiotic notion refers to a natural resemblance or analogy between the form of a sign (“the signifier” be it a letter or sound, a word, a structure of words, or even the absence of a sign) and the object or concept (“the signified”) it refers to in the world or rather in our perception of the world. Zhou Xiang & Shen Qian (2015) analyzed the dialectical complementation between arbitrariness and iconicity in language. Contrary to arbitrariness, in terms of iconicity, the exploration of the application of iconicity, namely, the similarity between sign and object in vocabulary teaching facilitates vocabulary teaching. Jacobson (1965) believed that there is a relationship between the form and the content. Pierce (1931-1958) maintained “the sign stands for something, its object...” Newmeyer, Frederick J. (1992) held the view that most functionalist literary theme contains iconicity. Rosenstock, Rachel (2008) conducted a study of the four characteristics of iconicity in the process of learning.

II. METHODOLOGY

This paper mainly utilizes the methodology of theory construction with an attempt to find or describe principles that explain how Iconicity functions in teaching English Vocabulary.

A. The Application of Morpheme Iconicity in Teaching English Vocabulary

The word morpheme derived from Morpheus, which is the name for the god of dreams with the meaning of “form, shape, or figure”. According to the definition in the merriam-webster dictionary online, morphemes are the indivisible basic units of language, much like the atoms which physicists once assumed were the indivisible units of matter and English speakers borrowed morpheme from French morphème, which was itself created from the Greek root morphē, meaning “form”, and at the same time the French borrowed -ème from their word phonème, which, like English phoneme, means “the smallest unit of speech that can be used to make one word different from another word.” Liu Yang argued (2018) that morpheme iconicity refers to the relationship between the internal structure of words and their meanings and morpheme is the smallest and meaningful unit in the form of the language. Now that there exist relationship between the internal structure of words and their meanings, that is to say, to some degree, the English word has its own definite meaning by the combination of morphemes, prefixes or suffixes. For instance, the English morpheme “port” means “take”, or “carry” so these words, portable, import, reimport, importation, export, reexport,

* This paper is the research result of the project “The Problems and Solutions of MTI Thesis in Ethnic Minority Regions”(NO. NGHWZ201729).
exportation, transport, transportation, porter, portage, report, reporter, support, supporter, deport, portfolio, and so on, have the common morpheme “port” meaning “take”. At the same time, the meanings of these words are self-evident. “Portable” means “port(take)” plus “able” meaning the quality of something which can be carried from one place to another, while “import” means “port(take)” plus “in” with the meaning of bring something into another country. For another example, these words, pressing, pressure, compress, compressible, compression, depress, depressed, depression, express, expression, impress, impression, impressive, oppress, oppression, repress, suppress, suppression and so on, have the common morpheme “press”. Compress means “press” plus “com(together)” and therefore the meaning of “compress” is obvious with the meaning of “pressing something together”. Accordingly, teachers should put emphasis on the common morpheme of some English words with the same morpheme. On the one hand, the common morpheme facilitates the memorizing of English words for the students, and on the other hand, putting emphasis on the common morpheme of some English words with the same morpheme can grasp the meanings of them.

The core meaning of a word is its root, a component of the morpheme. Accordingly, if an English learner know the meaning of a root, he or she can grasp a group of words. The root is the fundamental part and the core of a word. It represents the basic meaning of a word. The meaning of a word is produced by the meaning of the root. According to the meaning of the root, the meaning of a given word can be deduced and understood. The meaning of the root represents the central meaning of a word, and it plays a dominant role in the meaning of the given word, the meaning of the root combines the meaning of the affix (including prefix and suffix), the other kind of the morpheme, which produces the meaning of a word. Therefore, as long as we remember the meaning of the root, and as long as we can identify the form of the root from the word, we can understand and remember the meaning of the word. And if we can remember the meaning of the words in the way of combining the roots and the affixes of morphemes, we can not easily forget them. In this way, once the English learners are acquainted with the morpheme iconicity, that is to say, the relationship between the internal structure of words and their meanings, he can take advantage of the morphemes in English vocabulary to understand how words are formed and how meanings are produced. Consequently, once the reader has mastered the ability to analyze words, he can have a good mastery of a large number of words.

B. The Application of Metaphor Iconicity in Teaching English Vocabulary

To some extent, a metaphor is a kind of comparison without using the word “like” or “as” to evidently express the similarity of two objects. Accordingly, with the development of society, a growing number of words used as metaphor have become the daily-used words we take for granted today. Lackoff & Johnson (1980) maintained language abounds with metaphors. According to merriam-webster dictionary online, a metaphor is a figure of speech in which a word or phrase denoting one kind of object or action is used in place of another to suggest a likeness or analogy between them: the person being addressed in “you’re a peach” is being equated with a peach, with the suggestion being that the person is pleasing or delightful in the way that a peach is pleasing and delightful. For example, the professor delivered a crystal speech, in which “crystal” means “as transparent as crystal” but here is also metaphorical, with the meaning of “clear and understandable” being identified with “crystal”.

With the development of society and languages, the words with common meaning have gradually become metaphorical, with common meaning being identified with metaphorical meaning used in the form of metaphors, as shown in Table 1 below. For examples, “abroad” initially refers to “in a foreign country”; however, there is often a long distance between countries, so “abroad” is used metaphorically to refer to “spreading far and wide”. “Bread” initially refers to “food made from flour dough” with the meaning of things used to keep a living, and gradually it is used to money metaphorically and becomes the informal terms for money, for the reason that “bread” and “money” have the resemblance in the aspect of keeping a living, and a case in point is the word “breadwinner”. “Avenue” originally means “a wide street to some place”. It is used metaphorically to refer to “a line of approach”. We all know that “bread” originally refers to the food that we depend upon, but, with the development of society, it possesses the meaning of “money” metaphorically.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>words</th>
<th>common meaning</th>
<th>metaphorical meaning</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>abroad</td>
<td>in a foreign country</td>
<td>spread far and wide</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>avenue</td>
<td>a wide street</td>
<td>a line of approach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>invade</td>
<td>march into another territory</td>
<td>penetrate in a harmful way</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>backward</td>
<td>directed toward the back</td>
<td>retarded in intellectual development</td>
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<td>balance</td>
<td>a state of equilibrium</td>
<td>weigh against</td>
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<tr>
<td>branch</td>
<td>a division of a stem</td>
<td>an administrative division</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bread</td>
<td>food made from flour dough</td>
<td>informal terms for money</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>chapter</td>
<td>a subdivision of a written work</td>
<td>a period in a person’s life</td>
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<td>coin</td>
<td>strike coins</td>
<td>make up words</td>
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<td>conceive</td>
<td>become pregnant</td>
<td>have the idea for</td>
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<td>discount</td>
<td>give a reduction in price</td>
<td>disregard</td>
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<tr>
<td>old</td>
<td>not young</td>
<td>skilled through long experience</td>
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</table>
C. The Application of Etymology Iconicity in Teaching English Vocabulary

Broadly speaking, culture has both material connotation and spiritual aspects, and strictly speaking, it is the unity of matter and spirit. We humans know the world and communicate with each other by using languages. Vocabulary is the core of language, and in turn, culture also exerts great influence on vocabulary. Ancient Greek mythology came from the spiritual product of the primitive clan society. It was created collectively by the ancient Greeks and was also the earliest literary form in the Western world, and was fully reflected in the works of Homer, Hesiod and others. Its unique geographical location in the Greek Peninsula is responsible for the polytheism popular among the ancient Greeks. Greek mythology is a vast and complicated system with complex branches numerous legends. However, it was exhibited in a systematic way of God’s story and hero’s legend.

To some extent, ancient Greek mythology derived from ancient Greek imagination of the prehistoric culture and, at the same time, this kind of imagination gave rise to their belief. The ancient Greek mythology mainly relates the life of the gods they created in their legend, consisting mainly of many stories and legends about God. Partly because of the ancient Greek separated geographic locations, they believed in polytheism and centered on nature. Roman mythology comes from ancient Greek mythology, but it also has its own story and tradition. The ancient Greek mythology is full of the issues which explore the human beings’ nature and destiny. The ancient Greek and Roman myths and legends have brought tremendous treasures for the western societies for all ages, and English vocabulary or idioms are on exception. Therefore, ancient Greek mythology is closely connected with English vocabulary. The morpheme of English vocabulary mostly has a connection with ancient Greek and Roman myths. Ancient Greek mythology provides a great number of prototypes of God and rich English vocabulary related to them. The content of ancient Greek mythology and various mythological figures have a profound influence on the creation of English vocabulary. It is an important source of ancient literary materials and English vocabulary. Yan Dawei (2005) discussed the carriers used in memorizing vocabulary of classical literature. To some extent, the themes of ancient Greek poetry, tragedy, and comedy are all based on myths and legends. The Romans inherited almost all Greek myths and legends. On the whole, the ancient Greek mythology has exerted influence on the creation of literary creation, and the development of western culture and civilization and the vocabulary is no exception. To be more specific, there is etymological iconicity between the name of god or goddess and the meaning which bears. For instance, allegedly, in the ancient Greek mythology, Psyche was one of a matchless beauty, a princess of God. Consequently, at that time, a huge number of young people fell in love with her. This phenomenon aroused the jealousy of Aphrodite, the goddess of love and beauty, at the time. She ordered her son, Eros, to punish Psyche by letting her fall in love with the ugliest man in the world. However, Eros fell in love with Psyche at first sight. In the end, Eros and Psyche became inseparable. Out of jealousy, Aphrodite made Psyche suffer a lot to prevent them from loving each other, but she was unable to separate them. From then on, Psyche became the root of the word with the meaning of “soul”, “spirit” or “mind”. Accordingly, psychic, psychology, psychologist, psychopath, psychopathic, psychopathology, psychobiology, psychotherapy, psychotic, psychometrics, psychoneurosis, psychoneurotic, psychophysics, psychophysiology, zoopsychology, panpsychism all derived from the name of princess of God “Psyche” with the meaning of “psych” “spirit” or “mind”. Based on the legend above, in college English vocabulary teaching, teacher should attach the importance of iconicity between psyche and “soul”, “spirit” or “mind”, so these meanings of these words, psychic, psychology, psychologist, psychopath, psychopathic, psychopathology, psychobiology, psychotherapy, psychotic, psychometrics, psychoneurosis, psychoneurotic, psychophysics, psychophysiology, zoopsychology, panpsychism can be easily associated with the root meaning of psyche with the meaning of “spirit” or “mind”.

Another case in point is that Gaia is the name of the Earth Goddess in ancient Greece. According to ancient Greek legends, Gaea, the incarnation of the earth, was separated from the god of chaos. As soon as she was born, she fell into a deep sleep on a large bare rock on Olympus. A comfortable wind lingered beside her for a moment, and Gaea became pregnant and slept like mud. Later, Gaea gave birth to three children, including Pontus and Ourea. From them on, in Greek, there exist etymological iconicity between the name of Gaea and the meaning of “earth” or “ground” with the form of “ge-” or “geo-” standing for “earth” or “ground” and a large number of English words with the form of “ge-” or “geo-”, such as, geography, geographer, geology, geometry, geologist, geophysics, geoscience, geopolitics, geomagnetic, geospace geopolitics, geocentric, and so on, come into being, and all of these words are closely connected with the meaning of “earth” or “ground”. Accordingly, in the process of teaching college English vocabulary, teachers should pay much attention to etymological iconicity to improve the efficiency of vocabulary teaching and vocabulary learning. Muse, the total name of the nine ancient goddesses of art, is the god who is responsible for music and art, including, history, lyrics, comedy, tragedy, song and dance, love poems, carols, astronomy and Epic, in Greek mythology. Therefore, the word “music” derives from Muse, and consequently museum refer to the place where all kinds of art is collected. It is said that Muse often takes an active part in the assembly of the gods or heroes, and carries forward her talent to sing and dance for them, in order to bring a lot of joy and happiness to the party.

In ancient Greece, Greeks mainly worshiped a great number of gods. At the same time, the gods in the Greek mythology can be classified into several major groups. The earliest group was Titans, led by Cronus, including Rhea, Oceanus, Tethys, Crius, Lapetus, Phoebe, Coeus, Themis, Mnemosyne, Hyperion, and Thea. It was said that another group which has the strongest power was the Olympians. The Olympians are also a group consisting of 12 gods who came to power after the Titans’ ruling was over. To some extent, the 12 gods have connections with each other and
their names derived from their living place which are called Mount Olympus. Accordingly, Titan has the meaning of
greatness in English, and the words, such as Titan, Titaness, titanic and titanism, are all from the ancient Greek Titans.
Meanwhile, in Greek mythology, the Olympians’ third generation God Zeus and his brothers and sisters lived on
Olympus, the highest mountain in Greece, so they were called “Olympus Protoss”. There’s a place at the foot of the
mountain Olympus called Olympia. Ancient Greeks held a sports meeting here every four years to commemorate the
Olympian gods. Later, this sport, called the Olympic Games is passed down from one generation to another until today.
In the meantime, the words Olympus, Olympia, Olympian, and Olympic all come from the Olympian gods. Ancient
Greek mythology is the source of the western culture, so there is no denying the fact that it is closely connected with
English vocabulary. Language is an important form and carrier of culture, and accordingly, vocabulary is strongly
influenced by all kinds of cultures which is closely connected with it. Caesar invaded Britain twice in 55 B.C. and 54
B.C., and Claudius I launched an invasion into Britain in AD 43. After the conquest of Britain, it became the territory of
the Roman Empire. The Romans built avenues in all directions to connect them with other cities around London at the
mouth of the Thames, making London the center of Roman ruling and external relations with other regions. Therefore,
the Romans bring their ancient culture to Britain, and form then on the ancient Greek and Roman cultures have directly
influenced Britain. In the process of the development of English language, ancient Greek and Roman culture has been
constantly integrated into the English language, forming some unique vocabulary and idioms in the English language.
This section mainly makes a study of etymology iconicity from ancient Greek and Roman myths and the vocabulary
appears in English. These words originated from ancient Greek and Roman myths and later gradually became a word
family with the common morpheme.

III. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

In the process of English learning, vocabulary is the basis of learning English. The larger the number of words, the
faster the learner’s various skills improve. The comprehension of words is directly related to the improvement of other
abilities. Without a certain vocabulary, one cannot perform reading, writing, and other activities. Connection is the
bridge of memory; accordingly, isolated things are hard to remember. Iconicity bridges the connection between
vocabulary and the meaning it renders, and also the relations of a word family. Based on these words, we can judge the
meaning of the unknown words deriving from iconicity, and find out the intrinsic connection with the unknown words.
Accordingly, we should put much emphasis on the application of morpheme iconicity, metaphor iconicity and
etymology iconicity in teaching English vocabulary, for the three kind of iconicity bridges the connection between the
English vocabulary and it refers to.

IV. DISCUSSIONS

From what has been discussed above, this paper maintains that the application of lexical iconicity in teaching
vocabulary in college English can be conducted from three aspects below.

Firstly, morpheme is the smallest unit with the definite meaning in term of expression and content. Consequently,
morpheme is can not be further divided into smaller unit without destroying its meaning or dramatically altering the
meaning. But it has its own inherent laws. No matter how complex a word is, it is composed of morphemes including
roots and affixes, and each morpheme has a definite meaning. Although the number of words is very large, the number
of morphemes is very limited. If an English learner has a good command of morphemes and understand the basic
method of word formation, he or she can easily break through the difficulty of memorizing and guessing words in the
process of acquiring English.

Secondly, in English, metaphor is a rhetoric device which is different from simile and does not use “like” or “as” to
express, but makes hidden comparisons. The expression of metaphor is: A is B, which implies a word or phrase literally
denoting one kind of object or idea is used in place of another to suggest a likeness or analogy between them. Metaphor
refers to the use of a word or phrase to indicate something different from the literal meaning, which is the psychological,
linguistic and cultural behavior of perceiving, experiencing, imagining, understanding and talking about such things
under the implication of the other kind of things. Poetry, especially modern poetry, has important features in collocation
of words and sentences. It tends to break through the habitual relationship between words and sentences and connect
some seemingly unrelated things together. Critics generally call it metaphor when they combine words and sentences
that seem to be unrelated to each other.

Thirdly, the relationship between language and culture in a language is basically stable. This stable relationship
reflects the close relationship between language and culture, and makes language the key to understanding culture.
Language is the carrier of culture. At the same time, culture has greatly influenced language. Accordingly, to some
extent, language and culture are closely interconnected. Under the influence of ancient Greek mythology on English
language, a large number of ancient Greek and Roman cultural elements have been incorporated into the English
language, forming some unique word family with the common sources. And it is of great theoretical and practical
significance to understand and analyze vocabulary from the perspective of etymology iconicity.

V. CONCLUSION
In any given language, although there exists arbitrariness between the form of a sign (the signifier) and the object or concept (the signified), yet iconicity, namely, resemblance between the signifier and the signified is also obvious in the aspects of morpheme, metaphor and etymology. Understanding iconicity helps to strengthen the students’ memorizing vocabulary in the teaching process. It is necessary to reasonably analyze iconicity the form of a word and the meaning it refer to in order to achieve good teaching and learning results, for the key to memory is to transform the abstract and disordered object or concept into an orderly, regular and systematical one. Iconicity bridges the relation between the signifier and the signified of a word. On the whole, vocabulary teaching is of great significance in college English teaching. In the process of English vocabulary teaching, teachers should make every effort to use the iconicity in the aspect of morpheme, metaphor and etymology effectively to explain and analyze vocabulary, and in doing so, the students can memorize the new words efficiently. Hopefully, iconicity can play an important role in teaching college English vocabulary. Attaching the importance of iconicity in teaching vocabulary in college English can enrich the knowledge of vocabulary formation and broaden the vision of vocabulary acquisition.

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Analysis on Linguistic Art of Broadcasting in the New Media Era

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Abstract—As the information and communication technology increasingly grows, it is very vital that the new media featuring the internet has blazed a new path for the reform of communication and even the evolution of the whole society. This new era brings opportunities and challenges to traditional media work while facilitating this industry. Efforts should be made to upgrade the broadcasting major in order to meet the requirements of society and the public. This paper aims to explore some problems and difficulties of linguistic art of broadcasting in the new era by analyzing its characters and development trend, so as to ensure the quality of broadcasting programs, and even make sound progress in this era.

Index Terms—the new media era, broadcasting, linguistic art, the path of improvement

The new media sees an extremely unprecedented improvement as the society continuously develops and the internet era increasingly progresses, and the new media also brings a huge impact on the traditional media industry while having a continuous development against the backdrop of the transformation of the public’s acceptance mode and their demand. It is the very time that changes should be made to the subjective concept, information sources and presentation mode of the traditional media so as to adapt to the development of the new media era. Meanwhile, broadcast hosts, ones who are responsible for producing and delivering information to the public, play a very essential role in the whole society. Thereby, it needs us to ponder how to improve the linguistic art of broadcasting to cope with the demand for the new media era.

I. A BRIEF INTRODUCTION OF NEW MEDIA AND ART OF BROADCASTING AND HOSTING

A. Characteristics of the New Media Era

The characteristics of the new media era mentioned in this paper are mainly different ones comparing with the traditional media industry. Nowadays, the most salient features in this era include instantaneity, convenience, shareability, magnanimity, individuality and grouping, transience, and etc. Instantaneity—receiving and producing information in a real-time, convenience—obtaining information from various ways, shareability—always sharing information with others in some social media, like WeChat moments, vblog, and etc., magnanimity—having information in all aspects from different industries, individuality and grouping—different people holding different opinions in this society, transience—the previous information being replaced by the newly one at a very fast speed, the details shall be showed as follows:

1. It is a kind of instant and two-way process for the public to get as well as to even deliver information. The most tremendous hit taken by new media to the traditional media industry is the break of time and space limitation. Newspaper, paper are the main ways to spread information with the relatively slow speed in the past, resulting in matters to be known only after several hours or even one day. With mobile media, various live broadcasting Apps among others, the public can get the news when it happened just now or is being on in this era. The real-time two-way communication is that publishers of the information can receive feedback directly through WeChat message, bullet screen and other real-time comments from the public, while the public also can search for what they are really interested in on the website. So the public can enjoy the benefits of this two-way communication. This, to a large extent, is an instant and two-way communication of information.

2. Various information can be received in a very convenient way. The news runs from mouth to mouth is the only way for people to get a message in the past. This is a very single method to get information. However, as the appearance of symbols and characters has laid a solid foundation for the preservation and dissemination of information, the public starts to gather more and more information like political events, latest notification, and others through newspapers. One thing is that the public can only read the information passively without extracting the content they really want to focus on. At present, current politics, entertainment, sports, constellation and all aspects of messages are coming to you like all rivers running into the sea as the development of the new media goes deeper. The channels of obtaining information are getting diversified and it becomes more convenient for the public to gather and receive information so that people can choose what they want to know and look for some specific information they really need.

3. Everyone here can provide personalized and various information for others in this era. The public could be receivers of information as well as publishers, and even become the role of the event without knowing. The original publishers including experts, journalists and authorities change to every person in the society, which allows presenting more personalized media information. Meanwhile, media information becomes more diversified and grouping for its producing, publishing and releasing by everyone here.
4. This massive information with high mobility could be received by a widely-ranged public. It is very convenient for the public to obtain information on the new media era, and the public from the aged to children could search for and collect information by social media, so this is a diversified, rich group. Thereby, the information on social life, military science and technology, entertainment animation and even current political reports has become more colloquial and popular in this condition. Also, life is enriched by this information, sometimes, one piece of news could be replaced very quickly by a piece of another explosive one, which makes the information more mobile. This is transience, the characteristic of the new media era we mentioned above.

B. Linguistic Art of Broadcasting

In China, a country with a history and civilization of 5,000 years, also has a time-honored long-standing history of language and characters. Although the time of the origin remains unknown, it is confirmable that language has developed maturely early in Yin and Shang Dynasties. By the time “Towards One Chinese Character” in the Qin Dynasty, the characters of the whole nation have reached perfect unity. Promoted by Mandarin Chinese which emerged in the Spring and Autumn Period, language and pronunciation became more unified. After the founding of New China in 1949, China carried out the popularization of Mandarin in the whole country. With the establishment of China National Radio about 60 years ago, requirements for language and pronunciation standards have been proposed and studies on the language of broadcast anchors have been listed on agenda since then.

In real work, particularly in the era of new media, broadcast anchors’ verbal language proficiency plays a crucial role in the program broadcasting effect. The work of broadcast anchor, as verbal language artist has the following characteristics:

The broadcast anchor’s language must be normative, which requires clear pronunciation, smooth speech, normative language usage, and appropriate verbal expression according to different semantic contexts, relative stressing, slow or fast pronunciation, tone, pause, phonetic changes, etc. while speaking Mandarin very well.

The broadcast anchor’s language should have a promoting effect. Not a machine conveying texts with language and voice, broadcast anchor with their own standpoint and attitude should express with sincere emotions and clear position, and play a role of educating, leading and mobilizing the audience. Broadcast language without emotion and incitation only make broadcast work indifferent and ordinary without any vitality. Only after incorporating their own emotions into the broadcasting content can emotional resonance with the content and audience be achieved, thus guiding the audience to judge the right and wrong.

The broadcast anchor’s language should be solemn. The broadcast anchor as a public figure under the spotlight of the masses represents the position and image of the program, which requires for their positive energy, reasonable and evidence-based language expression, sincere and plain statement of objective facts, and expression of logical ideas, rather than fluency, false and empty language.

The broadcast anchor’s language should be artistic. The reason why we would like to treat broadcasting as a kind of art is that language used in the broadcasting itself is a kind of artistry, and broadcasting is a unique, distinct and personalized way used by its hosts to disseminate various information to the public so as to give the public a deeper impression and understanding on the information. [1] Broadcasting language in the new media era, with its authentic, creative, standardized, serious, motivated characters, shall be elaborated in the following paper. And how to use these language features in the new media era shall be shown also.

II. LINGUISTIC FEATURES AND DEVELOPING TREND OF BROADCASTING IN THE NEW MEDIA ERA

A. Natural Language State

People are yearning for comfort, free and real-life with the lifestyle-changing fast against the backdrop of the new media era. Announcers and hosts, adhering to the principle of media being the speaker of the Party, are inclined to convey information to the public with their serious expression state and strict, official language state, which means that the public is forced to accept the information to some extent. However, this kind of one-way dissemination has gone away in the new media era as it is more convenient for the public to obtain and express information through various ways and there are various channels for the audience to express their ideas, and they are increasingly selective and critical of the media. So the time in which announcers and hosts delivered information and the public received it unilaterally has passed away. They change their original rigid expression state to a more natural, amiable language expression so as to meet the public needs, improve the program rating, enhance the emotional resonance by narrowing their mental distance, and then facilitate the trust in the program.

B. Personalized Language Style

Nowadays, the monopoly in the traditional industry is not welcomed in this new era. Various social media produce impressive, eye-catching information by using all kinds of methods in order to receive the public’s clicks. The host, which is the soul and best example of a personalized program, could have a definite impact on how much the audiences can accept the information, program, and even the channel through the language expression art.

As it demonstrated in a Ph.D. dissertation Research on Transformation and Upgrading of Master of Ceremonies under All Media Era in China written by Chen Siyang, from Tianjin Normal University, announcers and hosts stand for the art of communication, the art of language, and also the art of programs integration and public opinion guiding, so it calls for
clear, effective dissemination from one to the public. The hosts with only imitation of other styles in their hosting work and lacking their own individuality and characters are destined to fade away in the era of Omnimedia, where the public has numerous choices. So these announcers and hosts with these old-fashioned, routine language expression styles cannot satisfy the public’s tastes and would be forgotten in this new era. Only keeping in learning, innovating to become more thoughtful and personalized, they could not be missed by the public with digging out the preference of the public and showing the language charm.

C. Fashionable Language Performance

It is no desire for some audience to watch traditional, dull broadcasting with some drafts amid the development of information, fragmentation, and entertainment. Broadcast hosts need to learn how to use some new fashionable words to make an adaptation of the whole society and gain more attraction from the targeted audience. Certainly, instead of adopting all, they should sort out the most popular words which conform to the core values of this time and the social mainstream. Furthermore, they can also create new popular words to gain recognition from the public during the process of language expression. This is what the announcers and hosts can do to improve their personal charms as well as facilitating the novelty of the program.

III. PROBLEMS OF THE LINGUISTIC ART OF BROADCASTING IN THE NEW MEDIA ERA

As modern society continuously grows, people now enjoy a diversified, fast-paced and informationized lifestyle. The news delivered by some of these broadcast announcers and hosts is just for catching the attention of the public. Without adhering to the principle of language expression art, some hosts may have some vulgar language expression and non-mainstream values to satisfy the curiosity of the targeted audience, and even to addict to the reckless pursuit of program ratings only. What kind of poor actions they may do are as follows:

A. Non-standard Language Expression

The broadcast announcers and hosts shall adhere to the basic occupational principle of the standard language expression in their daily creation work and performance. As everyone becomes the producer of events, the publisher of information in this new media and self-media era, the public has more and more choices. Some announcers and hosts start to host entertainment programs with vulgar, uncouth language, broadcast sports events with the coarse, violent ones and even use entertaining words in normal new reports so as to cater to the public’s taste and pursue the program ratings. All the above results in the lack of standard language expression of broadcast hosts, effecting the program quality directly.

Some efforts should be made by some other broadcast hosts to improve their own professional literacy as some basic mistakes are made in their daily work. Firstly, some may not have a comprehensive understanding of the meaning of the word. Here is an example, “shenshenxuezi” in Chinese is a group unit noun, representing a great number of students, but some hosts may use it with a quantifier. Secondly, some idioms are misused in some places. For example, “Xianduweikuai” in Chinese means that someone hurries to have a glimpse of the book before publishing or the TV show before broadcasting. Super Variety Show produced by CCTV had a program introducing Tibet in June 19, 1999. The program was well-received by the audience, so some parts of this program would be showed again in this show. Because of the content being arranged for the very beginning of this show, the host told the audience that let’s have a glimpse into it before the program starting. This is the misuse of this idiom.

Actually, no matter how the world changes, it is very essential for these broadcast announcers and hosts to insist on language regulation, showing a direct landscape of a whole group, program and even the whole country. Therefore, the group needs to focus on the regulation of language in the new media era, not just seeing the woods for the trees.

B. Unreal Language Content

The reality is the very core for news reports and all information. The public are not just fond of the novel, interesting information, but also their authenticity. However, nowadays some media and broadcast hosts start to miss the quality in order to achieve higher ratings.

Some publishers are more likely to produce the event and even makeup it according to subjective assumptions without having a better understanding of the whole thing in this fast-paced information processing world. Broadcast announcers and hosts cannot learn whether the information is accurate, authentic or not, sometimes they even deliver the false one in order to attract the public’s attention. Especially, headlines, such as celebrity extramarital affair, two famous stars falling in love, are made to attract the public in some entertaining reports. And even some hosts would like to report some fake news to gain in popularity. It is a vicious cycle for this industry, at last, the truth is not of the significance, instead, eye-catching news prevails. So there is not true, timely news any more finally. What’s worse, what these broadcast hosts report influences not only the public’s cognition but also their daily production, leading them to distrust the reporting information. This is one of the shortcomings of the new media era. It has an extreme impact on the audience to accept such unreal, fast-paced language content, so they are more likely to just listen for fun and even start to have a question on the objectivity and impartiality of the media.

C. Lack of Initiative in Fashioning Language

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The requirements for the linguistic art of broadcast announcers and hosts in the new media era are new, curious and unique, which means they need to foster their own language style. Many hosts are unable to catch up with steps with this fast-changing world and make proper adjustments. They always prefer to choose the same, invariable working modes, stereotyped, routine language style, and even boring expression pattern without any changing. However, as the world and people’s self-consciousness improves, a growing vast of people begin to wish for hosts reporting the news with their own personal charming, instead of this traditional way of infusing information. It is a question for every broadcast announcers and hosts to ponder how to establish a unique language style and improve their personal charm against the backdrop of this extremely complex and changing environment. Recently, it can be found in the latest program news anchors talking about hot news in which some hosts from CCTV’s national news program “Xinwen Lianbo” or News Broadcast, advocate positive energy through a more personalized, emotional basis which never happened before. It is a vivid trial to explore how to fashion language in this modern society.

IV. STEPS MADE TO FURTHER THE LINGUISTIC ART OF BROADCASTING IN THE NEW MEDIA ERA

A. Moving forward with the Positive Energy of the Society by Improving Self-cultivation

Language plays the most influential role in the development of the new media era and even the whole world. As we all know that all kinds of information nowadays has rushed into the public in the world of internet and digitalization. It is one of the most important responsibilities for broadcast announcers and hosts to deliver the social mainstream culture and show positive energy by sorting out meaningful information for the public with their cognition. So they should catch up steps with the world to get their self-cultivation improved, which includes political and moral cultivation, ideological and cultural improvement, professional knowledge education and other aspects to learn how to advocate the social mainstream culture and make innovation for the program. At the same time, it also needs these excellent talents to establish a sound language style. Rather than trying new things in form only, more importantly, the core values of morality should be introduced to the language of broadcasting, giving emphasis on the content quality of the broadcasting and hosting language, and even digging out the truth, kindness, and beauty from their inner hearts. [3]It is the incumbent responsibility of the contemporary broadcasting announcers and hosts to promote the ideological, moral taste of the public through their own value tastes and language styles, and even to advocate the socialist core values and positive energy. What makes us delighted is that some broadcast hosts already have a better understanding of this point in this new era. The model of the times, a new program produced by CCTV, select and report some typical exemplars of the advanced figures, and invite them to the prize presentation. These impressive stories are presented by these hosts with standardized language, emotional words, and patriotism from the inner heart to the audience, leading to a strong admiration of the models while listening to the stories. All the above are the charm of language, as well as a new exploration of the themes, subjects, reporting modes and language expression by media and broadcast hosts in this new era.

B. Working Hard to Form a Better Broadcasting Style with a Sound Language Consciousness

A popular saying goes “a good look is all alike, while an interesting soul is one in a million”, comparing to the traditional broadcasting with scripts in the traditional media industry, the public call for excellent hosts who always hold their own points towards what they report and who always have their true disposition, not just the basic requirements of sound pronunciation and full tone in the new media era. So as broadcast announcers and hosts, what they really need to do is to establish a better language consciousness and to form their own unique broadcasting style. There are two targets they should pursue in their work. In the first place, efforts should be made for these announcers and hosts to learn healthy language content, expression, and art, combine with their own experience and understanding and then innovatively apply to own programs against the backdrop of market information and diversification. It should be noted that some hosts want to meet the requirements of the public by imitating the language style of some non-mainstream internet celebrities. This may work in the short term for improving the program ratings, but not a long-term solution. This is what we called taking the essence while discarding the dregs. Then, they should insist on a firm principle of responsibility, which means announcers and hosts should be encouraged to make emotional communication with the targeted group through words and deeds and the charm of language, as they are responsible for producing the right program content, showing the correct social morality and practicing the social harmony. As a result, new ideas and positive energy could be brought to the targeted audience. Efforts are made to enrich their cultural knowledge, ideological realm and other continuous accumulation, these hosts can convey their own points and voices with unique, sound language style to the public while delivering information. This would be welcomed by the public.

C. Pressing Ahead with a Stronger Interaction by Improving the Affinity of Linguistic Art of Broadcasting

Affinity has the power to draw people close and further establish emotions. In the era of new media, in front of intricate and complex social information, the audiences can choose the information they want more independently. A broadcast anchor with amiable language can attract the attention of the audience, and make the audience have the intention of “follow and keep watching”, thus improving the audience rating of the program. Therefore, under the premise of catching the mainstream ideology, more attention shall be paid by the announcers and hosts to the cognition and psychological process of the audience in the new media ear, which means that hosts need to
learn how the audience thinks, what they are really worried about, and especially make emotional communication with them.

Announcers and hosts should frequently use respectful words, honorific titles and sincere tone to show your respect for the public. When the public feel the respect from hosts, gain goodwill would be given to announcers and hosts. 

Only in this way can they just put down their psychological resistance and even accept what these hosts deliver from the bottom of their heart. Meanwhile, with the perspective of the audience to think about the problem, hosts can learn their reaction after hearing the information, make adjustments of the content, speed and tone, as well as integrate their deep emotions into the language, so as to make the program more appealing.

V. CONCLUSION

The new era calls for new requirements for the language expression of broadcasting. Broadcasting hosts should play a very vital role in how to ensure that the information provided is accurate, how to disseminate valuable information to the public, how to advocate positive energy and right social values, how to set up sound social morality and even to guide public opinion. Above these, they, as qualified announcers and hosts, also need work to facilitate language expression to show its charm and further a sound, healthy broadcasting art in the new media era. Meanwhile, some relevant adjustment, regulation, and improvement should be made to make a vivid, healthy linguistic art in the new media era. All this means that it is still a long way to go. Also, it is believed that more impressive programs shall be made for the public in the future with the support and promotion of all social communities as well as the hard work of these hosts.

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A Critical Evaluation of Krashen’s Monitor Model

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Abstract—This paper provides a critical evaluation of Krashen’s Monitor Model, the influential theory in second language acquisition. On the basis of providing a detailed explanation of all the five hypotheses in the model and the Krashen’s evidence to support them, the paper evaluates the contributions of the theory, and discusses the criticisms to the theory based on relevant empirical studies.

Index Terms—Krashen, monitor model, critical evaluation

I. INTRODUCTION

In the past three decades many scholars have conducted studies in the area of second language acquisition and different theories have been proposed. Among these various theories, the Monitor Model proposed by S. Krashen in the 1980s has enjoyed widespread popularity and influence in the field of second language acquisition teaching as well as research, and this theory has been enriched and refined over years in a series of his works (Krashen, 1981; 1982; 1985; Krashen & Terrell, 1988). The core parts of Krashen’s Monitor Model are composed of five interrelated hypotheses: the acquisition-Learning Hypothesis, the Monitor Hypothesis, the Natural Order Hypothesis, the Input Hypothesis and the Affective Filter Hypothesis, which we will look at in detail. Despite its popularity and influence, it also encounters many controversies as well as criticisms. In this paper we will carry out a critical evaluation of Krashen’s Monitor Model, and discuss both its contribution and limitation to second language acquisition. We will describe Krashen’s Monitor Model first, and then carry out a critical evaluation of several crucial and controversial claims in this theory.

II. KRASHER’S MONITOR MODEL

In this part we will introduce each hypothesis in Krashen’s Monitor Model. We will also have a look at some evidences that Krashen used to support his statements as well.

A. The Acquisition-learning Hypothesis

In this hypothesis Krashen maintains that there are “two distinct and independent ways of developing competence in a second language” (Krashen, 1982, p.10) for the adults. The former one, acquisition, is a sub-conscious and implicit process to develop a feeling towards the language use by focusing on the “real communication” of meanings, which is similar to the acquisition of mother tongue for the children. He believes that adults, as children, still can get access to the “language acquisition device”.

Ellis (1994) has stated that Krashen’s Monitor Model is influenced by Chomsky’s Universal Grammar. We can see that the premise of Krashen’s five hypotheses is that second language acquisition is similar to first language acquisition. He opposes others’ opinions especially the critical period hypothesis that children acquire language while adults learn language, and holds that adults can still “pick up” languages even after the critical period of adolescence for language acquisition, while this claim has encountered many criticisms later on, and we will touch upon these criticisms in the next part of evaluation.

The latter one, learning, which is opposite to acquisition, is a “conscious and explicit” process (Krashen and Terrel, 1988, p. 26-27), and refers to the “knowing about language”, “rules” or “grammar” (Krashen& Terrell 1988) with conscious practice and memory. Krashen maintains that acquisition and learning are totally separate systems, and learning cannot become acquisition, and there is “no interface”.

B. The Monitor Hypothesis

The Monitor Hypothesis is closely related to the “Acquisition- Learning” hypothesis, and tries to reveal how learning and acquisition are used, and embodies the innate relationship between the two. Monitoring will “give awareness of what has been created, making it possible to check, either before or after articulation, for the frequent slips of the tongue, grammatical errors, social infelicities and other deviations from the intention that characterize normal speech” (Morrison & Low, 1983, p. 228, cited in Ellis, 1994).
According to the Monitor Hypothesis, the acquisition system and learning system have different roles. Krashen points out that only “acquisition system” can directly promote the development of second language competence and can be used as the production mechanism for language use, while “learning system”, as the result of conscious knowing of the language structure, can only be used as monitor roles in language use but not as part of language competence. There are three necessary, but not sufficient, conditions for the activation of the monitor roles:

1) Sufficient time: that is, language users have to have sufficient time to effectively select and use grammar rules;
2) Focus on form: that is, language users have to focus on the form of the languages by considering the appropriateness of the language;
3) Know the rules: that is, language users have to possess the grammar concepts and language rules of the language learned.

According to Krashen, the monitor system may be overused or underused, while the users of optimal monitor adopt the Monitor system “when it is appropriate and when it does not interfere with communication” (Krashen, 1982, p. 20).

C. The Natural Order Hypothesis

This hypothesis believes that the acquisition of language structures is conducted in “a certain predictable order” (Krashen & Terrell, 1983); that is, certain structures will be learned earlier than others. For instance, it has been proved that in learning English as a second language, some children or adults would learn the present tense earlier than past tense, learn nouns earlier that the possessives of nouns, etc.

Krashen has also used evidences of other researchers’ findings to illustrate this natural order hypothesis in second language acquisition. He mentions that Brown has investigated the first language acquisition of children and found that they acquired a series of morphemes in a predictable order. Krashen also cites the study of Dulay & Burt that as children acquire their first language in a specific order in picking up certain grammatical morphemes before others, this also holds true for the second language learning. This hypothesis is not free from criticisms later on, and we will discuss it in the next part.

D. The Input Hypothesis

The Input Hypothesis occupies a particular place in Krashen’s Monitor Model, for it tries to solve the problem of how language is acquired”. Krashen has pointed that “humans acquire language in only one way---by understanding messages or by receiving ‘comprehensible input’”, that is, by receiving input slightly higher than the current language skills of the learner, and meanwhile the learner can focus on the comprehension of the meaning or information instead of the forms, can the learner achieve acquisition. This is his famous formula of “i+1”, where “i” stands for the current level of the learner and “1” refers to the language materials that are slightly higher than the current level of the learners. The part of “1” will be understood by taking context and knowledge of the world as well as the current competence into consideration. In addition, this kind of “i+1” input do not need to be consciously provided; if the learners can understand the input and if he has got the sufficient amount, this kind of input has been automatically provided (Krashen, 1985, p. 2). Therefore, “comprehensible input” is the core of the hypothesis.

Krashen has mentioned that the ideal input is composed of the following characteristics:

1) comprehensibility
   The comprehensible input of language materials is the necessary condition for language acquisition, while incomprehensible input is only a kind of noise to the learners.
2) interesting and relevant
   The input materials shall be more interesting and more relevant. In order to facilitate language acquisition and then language learners can acquire language in an unconscious way.
3) not grammatically sequenced
   The key point of language acquisition is comprehensible input. If the goal is “acquisition” not “learning”, the teaching arranged in accordance with grammar procedures is not necessary.
4) sufficient input
   In order to acquire language structure, a few exercises or passages are far from enough; the acquisition needs constant reading interesting articles and large amount of conversation and communication.

Krashen (1982) has supported his idea of “comprehensible input” in second language acquisition by drawing upon the following evidences:

1) the caretaker speech. People are usually likely to talk in simple words to children, which are roughly at the level of the children and are familiar to the children, in order to get understood by the children. These speeches also focus on the current place and time, which makes the caretaker speech more like comprehensible input in helping children successfully acquire first language.
2) Simple talk. He draws on foreign talk and teacher talk in which modified utterances (such as lower speed, shorter sentences, simple syntactic structure, etc.) are used for facilitating comprehension in communication, and these modified simple speech is close to the current level of the learners, which also forms comprehensible input for the learners in the process of their acquisition of second language.
3) The silent period. Usually children who go to a new country and acquire a totally new language may go through an initial period of not talking, and Krashen (1982, p. 27) believes that “the children are building up competence in the second language via listening, by understanding the language around him”.

4) The limited contribution of the first language. Before learning the correct second language rule, the learners may resort to their first language rules, and this may result in error if their first language and second language rules differ.

5) Method comparison research. He finds that methods concerning emphasis on input and immersion and sheltered language teaching are more successful because that they have provided with a lot of comprehensible input.

E. The Affective Filter Hypothesis

The Affective Hypothesis holds that the sufficient comprehensible input is not the sufficient condition for learning a target language, while in the process of second language acquisition various affective factors shall influence the result of learning. These affective factors play the role of filters as “a mental block” (Krashen, 1985, p. 100) in determining the amount of input that the learners receive. According to this hypothesis, the language input may be converted into intake only after affective filter. Krashen believes that the affective factors which may influence language acquisition include the following:

1) motivation: whether the learners have clear goals shall directly determine the learning outcomes;
2) characters: the more self-confident, outgoing learners shall make greater progress in learning;
3) emotion: which mainly refers to the degree of anxiety, etc. Strong anxiety will block input and block language acquisition.

In sum, the five hypotheses described above can be generalized as follows:

“Acquisition is more important than learning. People acquire second languages only if they obtain comprehensible input (i +1) and if their affective filters are low enough to allow the input “in” (Wilson, 2000).

III. EVALUATION OF KRASHEN’S MONITOR MODEL

The above-mentioned five hypotheses of Krashen’s Monitor Model have great impact on and made great contribution to the second language acquisition and function as a “catalyst to the current SLA research” (De Bot, Lowie &Verspoor, 2005). It is one of the first comprehensive theories for the explanation of second language acquisition, and the popularity of this theory has also encountered controversies, which has in turn promoted the development of related research in second language acquisition. Despite its popularity and influence, there are also criticisms towards this theory, and actually these criticisms in turn make great contribution to the development of the field of second language acquisition.

The criticisms of theory mainly orient around the content and the methodological issues as well as the testability of this theory. Some scholars (e.g. Gregg, 1984) criticize this model by claiming that it is not coherent or lacks credible evidence to support it. McLaughlin (1978) has pointed out that though Krashen tries to develop a detailed and comprehensive second language acquisition theory, some of the core assumptions and various hypotheses have not been defined clearly, which leads to the problem that they are not easily testable. We will evaluate this model from aspects such as the distinction between acquisition and learning, monitoring role of learning system, natural order in second language acquisition, input in second language acquisition and the affective factors in second language acquisition.

A. The Distinction between Acquisition and Learning

The greatest contribution of this hypothesis is that “it posits a distinction between acquisition and learning” (Horner, 1987, p. 339), and is central to Krashen’s theory, which is considered as a “cornerstone” by himself (Krashen, 1989). However, Cook (1993, p. 63) has pointed out that there is little evidence to support this distinction; so in a sense, the distinction between acquisition-learning sounds like an assumption instead of a hypothesis.

Ellis (1994) has also stated that the distinction between implicit and explicit knowledge is supported by most scholars, while the distinction between acquisition and learning system has encountered controversies, especially the non-convertibility from the learned knowledge into the acquired knowledge has been criticized a lot.

Zafar (2009, p. 141) has also criticised “the vagueness of the terminology” by pointing out that there is no accurate definitions for the terms including “acquisition/learning, subconscious/conscious, implicit/explicit”, which makes practical implementation in second language acquisition difficult.

Another controversial issue is that Krashen believes that acquisition and learning are two independent systems and learning cannot be turned into acquisition. Actually, we think that the distinction between the two is not that clear-cut in second language acquisition; this has also been discussed by Zafar (2009), who believes that “acquisition could be better understood when described as a process enriched by the learned system”. Furthermore, as to the LAD in Krashen’s theory, Gregg (1984, p. 80-81) have stated that this term is used much wider than that in Chomsky’s theory.

B. Monitoring Role of Learning System

Krashen holds that the learning system can only be used as monitoring role. Zafar (2009) has stated that the three necessary but not sufficient conditions for monitoring system (i.e. sufficient time, focus on form, knowing the rules) proposed by Krashen “makes it all the more difficult either to implement or to test the hypothesis in real-life situations”,

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and this lack of empirical evidence is one of the criticisms, as indicated by McLaughlin (1987, p. 30): “People have rules for language use in their heads, but these rules are not those of the grammarian. People operate on the basis of informal rules of limited scope and validity. These rules are sometimes conscious and sometimes not, but in any given utterance it is impossible to determine what the knowledge source is”. The role of the three conditions is also questioned by some scholars (e.g. Gregg, 1984).

In addition, the acquisition system and learning system have also aroused criticisms (Gregg, 1984; McLaughlin, 1987). Gregg (1984) has pointed out that the role of learning system in the comprehension shall not be ignored, and this has also been confirmed by McLaughlin (1987), who has argued that if only the acquired system is responsible for the language production, it would be impossible for the second language learners to generate language appropriately.

C. The Natural Order in Acquisition

The claim of natural order in second language acquisition is mainly based on the study of English grammatical morphemes in the 1970s. However, the claim that some things are learnt before other things lacks an explanation of why this is the case, and whether it applies to all situations for all people, so the natural order in acquisition might be an overgeneralization for the second language learners. It is apparent that not all of the second language learners shall use the same route to achieve language proficiency due to individual variations. The evidence Krashen uses to support his claim is also questionable. It is hard to tell how to decide the statement that whether a morpheme has been acquired successfully or not, for the use of a certain morpheme by learners does not necessarily mean that the learners have acquired the rules of the use. This is also confirmed in his own study: the learners may not use the morpheme all the time but in some context instead of another.

What is most important is that this hypothesis has “overlooked the considerable influence of L1 on L2 and the role of positive and negative transfers” (Zafar, 2009, p. 142). For instance, a second language learner of English whose mother tongue is Chinese and one with French as mother tongue might not adopt the same route in the acquisition of the English language structures. Therefore, it seems that this hypothesis ignores various factors in individual differences of second language learners by simplifying the process.

D. The Input in Second Language Acquisition

The input hypothesis has great significance for second language acquisition. Especially the comprehensible input is the pre-condition for language acquisition. If the materials for language teaching are far beyond the comprehensibility of the learners, or the materials are not interesting or irrelevant, there would be little value in the input for the acquisition. Therefore, in classroom teaching, it would be better for the teachers to provide comprehensible input to the learners, and ensure that the input to the students is comprehensible according to the feedback from students. In addition, it would be better if the teachers can provide interesting and relevant topics to the students, and guide the students to comprehend the new knowledge on the basis of the current level of knowledge, which may facilitate the acquisition of the target language. Besides classroom learning, learners shall take initiatives by themselves to expose to as much compressible input as possible as well as the materials interesting and relevant to themselves.

However, the input hypothesis has also encountered criticisms from different scholars. The term of “comprehensible input” is not specifically defined, and it is difficult to define the current level “i” of the learners. The formula of “i+1” may mean differently to different learners because of the individual differences, which makes it difficult to apply this hypothesis in classroom teaching, and Krashen does not provide any reasonable and appropriate solutions for this tricky problem.

McLaughlin (1987, p. 36) has criticised Krashen’s evidences for the Input Hypothesis by pointing out that “What Krashen does is not provide ‘evidence’ in any real sense of the term, but simply argue that certain phenomenon can be viewed from the perspective of his theory”, so there might be alternative explanations for the cases.

In addition, it seems that Krashen focuses more on the comprehensible input while not touching upon the output, which is also an important part for the second language acquisition of language learners. Krashen believes that speaking (output) can only help language acquisition in an indirect way, and the fluency in speaking is manly acquired through comprehensible language input such as reading and listening rather than practice in speaking by claiming that the fluency in speaking and writing for second language learners “will come on its own with time” (Krashen & Terrell, 1988, p. 32). This claim has further been criticized in the “Output Hypothesis” proposed by Swain (1995) on the basis of her study of immersion programme, who points out that language output (including speaking and writing) can help learners to notice their problems and the gap between their language knowledge and target language, and this kind of awareness can facilitate the learning process in helping learners learn new knowledge or strengthen what they have already learned. Additionally, by observing the language output of the students, the teachers can also know the weakness of students, which is helpful for appropriate guidance.

The evidence of the comprehensible input resulting acquisition has also been challenged by Ellis (1994), who maintains that the relationship of acquisition and caretaker talk is a co-occurrence. He has also put forward that the process of comprehension is far from detailed or specific enough.

E. The Affective Filters in Second Language Acquisition
The affective filters hypothesis “captures the relationship between affective variables and the process of second language acquisition” (Krashen, 1982, p. 31) and thus it plays a significant role in the second language acquisition, and the affective factors such as self-confidence, motivation as well as anxiety, which are crucial in second language acquisition process, may accelerate or block the learners’ progress in second language acquisition. According to Krashen, the Affective Filter Hypothesis also provides theoretical justification in explaining why some learners of second language may not achieve language competence even they have received much comprehensible input. Therefore, in order to facilitate the learners’ acquisition, teachers and learners shall work together to reach a high a high level of motivation, high self-esteem and low level of anxiety for second language learners.

Though most scholars believe that affective factors do play a significant role in second language acquisition, some poses questions on this hypothesis as well. McLaughlin (1987, p. 52-53) has argued that whether it is necessary to devise affective filters to explain the findings are problematic. It is not clearly stated by Krashen that whether and how single factor or combined factors are functioned as filters for second language acquisition. Gregg (1984, p. 92) has also argued that if it is the case that affective filters do influence the second language acquisition, it would become necessary to explain why these affective filters do not work for children in their acquisition of first language, for Krashen claims that the LAD in the adults and children are similar. Therefore there remain a lot of unanswered questions concerning this problem.

In sum, Krashen’s Monitor Model has limitations in the application or testability in second language acquisition due to unclear definitions of assumptions as well as hypotheses. Just as Gregg (1984, p. 94) has pointed out that “each of Krashen’s five hypotheses is marked by serious flaws: undefined or ill-defined terms, unmotivated constructs, lack of empirical content and thus of falsifiability, lack of explanatory power”. However, just these criticisms of Krashen’s theory have driven more researchers in second language acquisition discover the mystery of second language acquisition.

IV. Conclusion

In all, based on what we have discussed above of the contributions as well as criticisms of Krashen’s Monitor Model in the field of second language acquisition, we can conclude that Krashen’s Monitor Model is a very systematic and comprehensive theory on the basis of his years of observation, research and teaching. As one of the most popular theory in second language acquisition, he almost encompasses every aspect of second language acquisition in this Monitor Model. It seems that he attempts to explain too much in this single model, which also one of the sources of the flaws in the theory, for we know that it is really difficult to take all kinds of variables into account in second language acquisition at a time. Though the lack of empirical evidence or unclear definition of terms makes some hypotheses in his theory unable to be tested in some sense, these flaws have challenged other researchers in the field of second language acquisition come up with better solutions to the problems found, which is also a drive for the acceleration of theories in second language acquisition. Anyway, we could not ignore the value of his theory just because of these imperfections.

Additionally, this theory has played a crucial role in facilitating the teaching of second language all over the world, and some effective teaching methods have been based on his main claims in the theory for facilitating the learners to better acquire the second language. Despite various criticisms from all perspectives, Krashen’s Monitor Model has played a significant role in the field of second language acquisition and second language teaching.

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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.

A special issue can also be proposed for selected top papers of a conference/workshop. In this case, the special issue is usually released in association with the committee members of the conference/workshop like general chairs and/or program chairs who are appointed as the Guest Editors of the Special Issue.

The following information should be included as part of the proposal:

- Proposed title for the Special Issue
- Description of the topic area to be focused upon and justification
- Review process for the selection and rejection of papers
- Name, contact, position, affiliation, and biography of the Guest Editor(s)
- List of potential reviewers if available
- Potential authors to the issue if available
- Estimated number of papers to accept to the special issue
- Tentative time-table for the call for papers and reviews, including
  - Submission of extended version
  - Notification of acceptance
  - Final submission due
  - Time to deliver final package to the publisher

If the proposal is for selected papers of a conference/workshop, the following information should be included as part of the proposal as well:

- The name of the conference/workshop, and the URL of the event.
- A brief description of the technical issues that the conference/workshop addresses, highlighting the relevance for the journal.
- A brief description of the event, including: number of submitted and accepted papers, and number of attendees. If these numbers are not yet available, please refer to previous events. First time conference/workshops, please report the estimated figures.
- Publisher and indexing of the conference proceedings.

If a proposal is accepted, the guest editor will be responsible for:

- Preparing the “Call for Papers” to be included on the Journal’s Web site.
- Distribution of the Call for Papers broadly to various mailing lists and sites.
- Getting submissions, arranging review process, making decisions, and carrying out all correspondence with the authors. Authors should be informed the Author Guide.
- Providing us the completed and approved final versions of the papers formatted in the Journal’s style, together with all authors’ contact information.
- Writing a one- or two-page introductory editorial to be published in the Special Issue.

More information is available on the web site at http://www.academypublication.com/tpls/
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