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Dialogic vs. Formalist Teaching in Developing Argumentative Writing Discourse and Reducing Speaking Apprehension among EFL Majors

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Abstract—**The current study, sought to investigate the influence of both formalist and dialogic teaching on EFL majors' argumentative writing and speaking apprehension. By using a positivistic experiment research design, and on analysing students' argumentative writing essays, it has been proved that both teaching approaches developed students' argumentative writing. However, statistical analysis showed that the dialogic teaching group students surpassed those of the formalist teaching. In addition, results revealed that speaking apprehension levels of the dialogic teaching students have significantly been reduced rather than those of the formalist teaching. The study ended with some conclusion and recommendations for further research.**

Index Terms—**dialogic teaching, argumentative writing, speaking apprehension, EFL students**

I. Introduction

This study was derived by a basic ontological belief that language has an intersubjective nature as a social system through which we organise and produce social reality (language products) via speaking and writing. It is a process of dialogism which conceptualises knowledge as a multivoiced conversational turn in which people produce it together rather than an individual possession or monologism. The presenter of such knowledge responds to previous utterances and presents future ones. This ontological assumption corresponds with a constructivist epistemological view about learning that people learn by using what they know to construct new understandings and that teachers can apply and enhance such constructive beliefs by offering “instructional designs and practices that provide students with frequent and sustained opportunities to engage in dialogic learning” (Juzwik, Borsheim-Black, Caughlan, & Heintz, 2013, p. 5). With this in mind and drawing on other prior research, the aim of the study has been to see how the concept of dialogic teaching, comparing the formalist conventional teaching, relates to the actual interaction of students in the argumentative writing classroom.

Dialogic teaching: A theoretical basis

The concept of dialogic enquiry and teaching owes much to the work of Vygotsky, and Bruner (DATE) whose work and ideas have stimulated a research paradigm that highlights the social construction of the individual and his interaction with others as a key issue for learning. Their work was revisited in the 1970s and 1980s, by Bakhtin who conceptualised the idea of dialogic pedagogy. His constructs such as ‘dialogicality’, ‘social language’, ‘speech genre’ and dialogic meaning-making provide concrete mechanisms for extending Vygotsky’s claims about the social origins and social nature of human mental functioning. This was a new era which suggested the learner to "play an active role in developing a personally constructed understanding of the curriculum through a process of dialogic interchange" (Lyle, 2008, pp.224-225).

Bakhtin made a distinction between dialogic and monologic discourse. Monologic discourse is an instrumental approach to communication geared towards achieving the teacher’s goals and remains firmly in control of the goals of talk. Controversially, dialogic talk is concerned about encouraging communication through authentic exchanges where there is genuine concern for the views of the talk partners and effort is made to help participants share and build meaning collaboratively. Baktinian concepts of dialogic meaning encompass the view that dialogue is not simply between people but between the frames people use to categorise experiences (Gurevitch , 2000; Skidmore, 2006).

Dialogic teaching, then, is a general pedagogical approach that capitalizes on the power of talk to promote students’ thinking, learning, and problem solving (Alexander, 2006). The growing body of literature on dialogic teaching (Alexander 2006) ascribes varied labels: dialogic instruction (Nystrand et al. 1997), dialogic learning (Hawkins, 2004), dialogic pedagogy (Skidmore 2006) and dialogic inquiry (Watkins, 2005), but the steady message is for supportive and substantive opportunities for involved talk with content – to explore, challenge, reconsider, and extend ideas in ways that enhance student learning. It needs learners to extend the world of the text through inferring the possibilities and arguing for more aspects and solutions. Dialogic teaching allows for a dialogic space between the reader and the text through synthesizing stories outside the text (Wikinson, et al, 2017). It requires teachers to allow for a broad repertoire of discourse practices and to be able to professionally use different types of discourse to address the specified instructional goals assigned for students. Although these discourse practices include traditional kinds of talk, such as recitation and exposition, dialogic teaching privileges discussion and dialogue because they have the greatest cognitive potential and are 'the forms of talk which are most in line with prevailing thinking on children's learning' (Alexander, 2006, p.103).

In addition to the strategic use of talk, Alexander identified five principles of dialogic teaching in the classroom:

- *Collective*: teachers and students address learning tasks together, whether as a group or a class, rather than in isolation;
- *Reciprocal*: teachers and students listen to each other, share ideas and consider alternative viewpoints;
- *Supportive*: students articulate their ideas freely, without fear of embarrassment over 'wrong' answers, and they help each other to reach common understandings;
- *Cumulative*: teachers and students build on their own and each other's' ideas and chain them into coherent lines of thinking and enquiry;
- *Purposeful*: teachers plan and facilitate dialogic teaching with particular educational goals in view. (Alexander, 2006)

Higham, Brindley and Van de Pol (2014) added two other propositions that are at the heart of dialogic education. The first is that dialogue is pivotal to student learning and understanding across all stages and courses because it underpins the process of learning to think. This is truly aligned with Vygotsky who argued that the true direction of thinking is not from the individual to the group, but from the social to the individual. The second proposition is that meanings and understandings are co-constructed within dialogue rather than transmitted from one person to another (Wegerif 2011). As a result of participants in dialogue attempting to fill in the gap between divergence and convergence in talk when two or more differing perspectives come into contact, new meanings emerge, and participants, then, realise the value of understanding these ideas and appropriating them as part of their world views.

Dialogic teaching then, is not just using language to exchange ideas in an educational context. "When students are working collaboratively in groups, they co-construct meaning over successive utterances in order to get things done together" (Haneda & Wells, 2008, 117). The expectation of reciprocity between students and teachers as listeners and speakers are true but teachers typically make both the first and the last move in a triadic dialogue form of exchange; teacher initiates; student responds and then teacher follows up.

Dialogic teaching and EFL students

Participating in in the range of discourse genres across the curriculum necessitates the use of dialogue to develop students' discursive competences. Such participation in dialogic interaction in the classroom is particularly beneficial for a number of reasons. First, dialogic interaction provides not only 'comprehensible input of Krashen, but also opportunities to learn how to engage in the genres of the different academic disciplines, for example literature or issues of interest, so that they may become academically competent participants. When they are called on to play a role in the co-construction of curriculum knowledge, they are likely to have opportunities to produce longer and complex contribution as they assume the role of active participants in discussions, leading to the production of comprehensible output.

Second, while students are using their language resources to contribute to the ongoing classroom talk, they simultaneously learn the social and communicative strategies needed to access the academic content (e.g. when to contribute, how to express their ideas clearly using appropriate discourse strategies, etc.). Curriculum has a tripartite nature which poses academic, social and communicative demands, and thus, students need to learn how to communicate with others in an interpersonally appropriate manner in a particular situation and how to express social relationships, while at the same time learning the academic content.

Third, as students contribute to the ongoing construction of knowledge, they are likely to encounter alternative perspectives on the topic under discussion, expressed by students as well as the teacher, like those in argumentative discourse. Such opportunities to listen to and express differing perspectives expose them to diverse language models and henceforth developing their language competences (e.g. different ways of expressing ideas and the language of negotiation, such as agreeing/disagreeing with someone). (Echevarria & Powers, 2006 ; Haneda & Wells, 2008).

Dialogic teaching and argumentative writing

Argumentation in general has been theorised as "dialogic" or "conversational entry" (Juzwik, Borsheim-Black, Caughlan, & Heintz, 2013, p. 34) and as a "social practice" (Newell et al., 2014, p. 112). It is a form of participating in dialogue in the world in which someone takes a stance within an ongoing conversation and defending and supporting its logics. The ability to build arguments is a crucial lifelong skill for all individuals and a central educational goal in all school subjects. This empowers students to formulate reasoned opinions and thus to cope with the increasing complexity of knowledge. Accordingly, it can be considered as a challenging topic for EFL majors due to the different and difficult aspects embedded within.

Despite this complexity in nature, the formalist approach is the one dominating in most writing argumentation classrooms. In this approach, teachers emphasise form over content by asking students to fit content to the traditional five paragraph theme, often identified as thesis, claims, evidence, counter-argument and conclusion (VanDerHeide, Juzwik and Dunn, 2016)). While this type of writing does not typically require students to consider nuanced arguments or to think about how form might influence the articulation of an argument, it is not applied this way in the EFL classroom in the college. It is taught as a genre of writing with little emphasis on form rather than on meaning. The efficacy of such approach is supported by some intervention studies (e.g., Nussbaum & Schraw, 2007; Yeh, 1998) that have shown that with more instruction in form, such as structure-specific graphic organizers, students' argument writing does improve, as measured by holistic or analytic measures similar to those used in standardized testing environments.

Dialogic teaching and speaking

Students learning English as a foreign language have difficulty expressing their opinions orally. As such, avoiding to express opinions in an argumentative discourse context which depends mainly on ongoing argumentation and negotiation is problematic. Following Alexander, dialogic teaching addresses this problem. It is a general pedagogical approach that capitalises on the power of talk to foster students' thinking, learning, and problem solving; features that argumentative writing is mainly based on. Consequently, it requires teachers to have a broad repertoire of discourse practices and to be able to strategically use different types of discourse to address specific instructional goals for their students. Such discourse practices might include traditional kinds of talk, such as recitation and exposition, however, dialogic teaching privileges discussion and dialogue and hence reduces speaking apprehension that most EFL students face (Haneda & Wells, 2008). As such, discussion and dialogue, then, have the greatest cognitive potential and are 'the forms of talk which are most in line with prevailing thinking on students' learning' Alexander (2006, 103).

The purpose of the study

Despite different strategies to promote more interactive approaches to teaching and learning, traditional monologic teacher-centered practices predominate in teaching argumentative writing. Such formal lecture model of instruction fails to acknowledge the socially constructed nature of writing. This research study attempted to contribute to the line of research concerning with dialogic education by investigating the process of applying the two teaching models; dialogic vs formalist, in an EFL educational environment in enhancing the learners' argumentative writing and reducing their level of speaking apprehension. It tried to have an answer to the following main question:

What is the effect of dialogic vs. formalist teaching in developing argumentative writing discourse among the 3rd year EFL majors and reducing their level of speaking apprehension?

Research Questions

The above main research question can be sub-divided into the following ones:

1. What is the effect of the formalist teaching on enhancing the argumentative discourse of 3rd year EFL students?
2. What are the influences of the formalist teaching on reducing the level of speaking apprehension of 3rd year EFL students?
3. What is the impact of the dialogic teaching approach on enhancing the argumentative discourse of 3rd year EFL students?
4. What is the effect of the dialogic teaching on reducing the level of speaking apprehension of 3rd year EFL students?
5. Is there a difference between formalist teaching and dialogic teaching in developing the argumentative discourse of 3rd year EFL students?
6. Is there a difference between formalist teaching and dialogic teaching in reducing the level of apprehension of 3rd year EFL students?

II. Methodology

Design and procedures

A positivistic experimental research design was selected to examine the effects of dialogic vs formalist approach on developing 3rd year EFL students argumentative writing skills and reducing their level of speaking apprehension. For this purpose, the present study included two groups; One is experimental group in which the dialogic teaching (DT) was implemented and second is the control group in whish formalist teaching (FT) was administered. All students in the two groups were gathered together in three collective sessions to be admitted to the programme and the distribution on the two groups. They decided about the topics to be covered during the whole programme and the final decision was to be trained on the following ideas:

1. Internet is a mixed blessing
2. Social network media is a waste of time
3. Co-education: what is for and what is against?
4. Genetically modified food
5. Private and state university education
6. International and national education

The programme lasted for 11 weeks and the pre-administration of the instruments were administered before implementing DT and FT activities in the lecture room. The post-tests were administered at the end of the 11th week.

Either adopting a formalist or dialogic approach in enhancing argumentative discourse among students, the following procedures, taken from Ferretti et al. (2009), were used to graphically represent the structure of the arguments presented in the writing samples: 1) the student offered one standpoint on social networks, 2) students provide four reasons for this standpoint; these reasons are presented as two multiple arguments with two supporting details, 3) the reasons are directly supported by subordinating reasons, 4) students provide a counterargument for the reasons, as well as a rebuttal (a statement that refutes or undermines an alternative standpoint) for the counterargument in order to strengthen the writer's stance, 5) and lastly, they include one rhetorically functional repetition in the essay; a statement that restates previously expressed reasons, arguments, or standpoints.. The essay, then, contains 14 elements: one standpoint, four reasons, six subordinating reasons, one counterargument, one rebuttal, and one rhetorically functional repetition. Finally, cohesive and coherent feature of writings were also highlighted and analysed to measure the extent the elements of argumentative discourse are presented logically by the writer and contribute in support of the writer's premise; and the extent the writer either over-or under-used cohesive markers to signal relationships between parts of his or her text.

Participants

The participants of the study were 74 students enrolled randomly in the two groups where the DT group had 38 and FT group had 36 ones. Attempts were made to ensure homogeneity among the participants. Specifically, the variables that might influence the results, such as age, educational background, socio-economic demography and their aim to attend an EFL program were tightly controlled before the research.

On the other hand, the study has various limitations. The sample of 74 students may not represent the whole population. The number of participants was limited due to the nature of the study in the College of Education of Al-Azhar University. Also possible idiosyncratic differences among participants cannot be controlled in any way. Taking these limitations into account, the results should be interpreted with caution.

Instruments

To collect the data concerning students' writing, an Argumentative Writing Test (AWT) and a scoring rubric were developed by the researcher. In the writing test, students were asked to write an argumentative writing about "private and state university education". The essays were analysed and scored for elements of the argumentative writing discourse explained earlier using the scoring rubric. To reach the score, the contents of each essay were graphed in a diagram. This process is referred to as "graphing" (Ferretti et al., 2009). The purpose of this graphing was to: (a) identify the student's standpoint(s), and to (b) recognize the student's reasons to support for the standpoint. Furthermore, it was important to (c) identify alternative standpoint(s), which are standpoints of other people that the student disagrees with, (d) identify reasons for the alternative standpoint, (e) identify counterarguments that could be used to object to or undermine the student's standpoint, which are potential criticisms of either the student's standpoint or reasons for the student's standpoint that could be used to enhance the alternative standpoint, (f) identify rebuttals of the alternative standpoint, which are propositions that either attack an alternative standpoint or undermine counterarguments and thereby strengthen the student's standpoint, (g) identify an introduction that foreshadows what is to follow in the student's presentation of the argument, (h) identify a conclusion that brings together what the student has written, (i) identify functional and nonfunctional statements that include information that is irrelevant to the topic.

After each element was graphed, the elements were tallied by counting the number of elements present in the graphing structure for each element of argumentative discourse. Then a s score for coherence and cohesion was also added to the other ones to give a total score for each paper.

As noted, the researcher scored all the 74 essays written by students using the holistic measures previously described. In order to determine inter-rater reliability a second rater, who was unfamiliar with the design and purpose of the study analysed and scored 16 essays independently (approximately 40%). The analysis of Cohen's Kappa for the quality, coherence, and cohesion measure revealed that inter-rater reliability for these scales all fell within the "very good" range: the kappa value was 0.86. An indicator that the holistic scoring of the test is reliable.

In addition, A five-point Likert speaking apprehension inventory (SAI) consisted of 10 items, was developed and utlilised by the researcher to gauge students' level of apprehension when asked to communicate in class either with the teacher or with their peers. The inventory was conducted twice at the beginning of the 3rd week after two weeks of teaching and at the end of the 11th week.

To ensure the validity of the scale content, a standard criterion for the development of valid and reliable questionnaires followed by Brown (2001) and Dornyei (2003), was selected by reviewing the relevant literature. Moreover, in order to keep respondents' attention and check their truthfulness in answering the statements, the items were randomly mixed with others to avoid a fixed pattern of marking the rating scale. Finally, these items were submitted to four experienced experts for more scrutiny, and based on their suggestions, the final version was prepared for administration on the participants of the study. For reliability, the overall Cronbach's alpha was calculated and the result was .83 which shows that this scale was reliable.

III. Results and Analysis

As mentioned earlier, two instruments were used for data collection to accomplish the purpose of the study. The data obtained was analysed in accordance with the study questions that can be grouped under five major themes, namely: 1) Formalist teaching and argumentative writing; 2) Formalist teaching and speaking apprehension level; 3) Dialogic teaching and argumentative writing; 4) Dialogic teaching and speaking apprehension level; 5) Formalist vs Dialogic in both argumentative writing and speaking apprehension. Findings will be presented based on these themes.

A. Formalist Teaching and Argumentative Writing

Table (1) displays the results of the descriptive and the inferential statistical analyses between formalist teaching students' scores on the pre-posttest :

TABLE I
PAIRED SAMPLE T TEST BETWEEN PRE AND POST ADMINISTRATION OF ARGUMENTATIVE WRITING TEST

Group	Treatment	No.	Mean	Std. Deviation	T-Value	Sig. (2tailed)
FTG	Pre	36	8.66	3.38	8.62	0.00
	Post	36	14.75	4.27		

The above results specified that there was a statistically significant difference between the mean scores attained by the FTG learners (pre and post-test) in the argumentative writing. Results of the *t*-test yielded 8.26 which is significant (sig. = 0.00 2 tailed = P <0.05). Over and above, the figure (1) below delineates the difference in the argumentative writing formalist group before and after the treatment showing that there was an obvious difference between the mean scores of the FTG learners in the pre and post argumentative writing test.

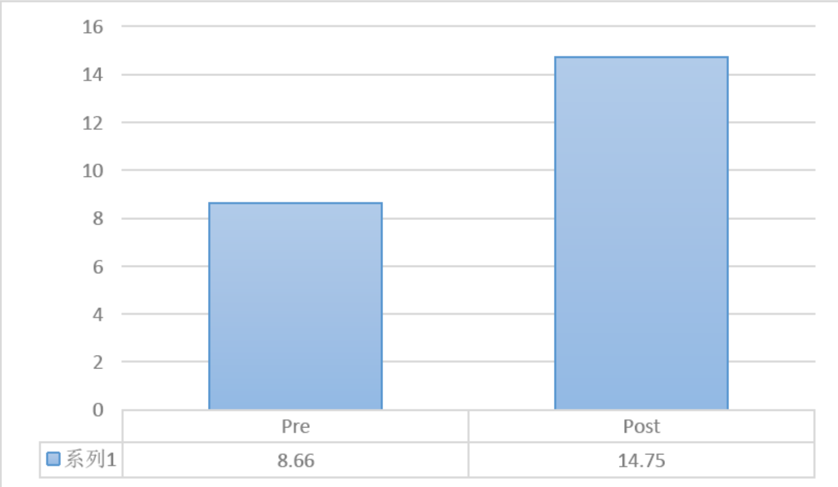

Figure 1. FTG learners (argumentative writing pre-post-test).

Additionally, to validate the results obtained, the effect size (how much variance in argumentative writing was a result of the formalist teaching) was computed using the Cohen's *d* formula, which yielded (d= 2.91) identifying that more 97.7 % of the improvement in the argumentative writing may be attributed to the formal teaching applied. Hence, in the light of the results drawn above, the formalist teaching has a considerable effectiveness in developing the argumentative writing among the study participants.

B. Formalist Teaching and Speaking Apprehension

Table (2) displays the results of the descriptive and the inferential statistical analyses between formalist teaching students' scores on the pre and post administration of the speaking apprehension inventory:

TABLE II
PAIRED SAMPLE T TEST BETWEEN PRE AND POST ADMINISTRATION OF THE SPEAKING APPREHENSION INVENTORY

Group	Treatment	No.	Mean	Std. Deviation	T-Value	Sig. (2tailed)
FTG	Pre	34	19.11	6.63	0.61	.55
	Post	34	18.67	5.39		

The results exposed above pinpointed that there was no statistically significant difference between the mean scores attained by FTG learners in relation to their responses to the speaking apprehension inventory before and after the treatment. Results of the *t*-test yielded (0.61) which was not significant (sig. = 0.55 2tailed = P >0.05). Among other things, the figure (2) below delineates the difference in the level of speaking apprehension before and after the treatment.

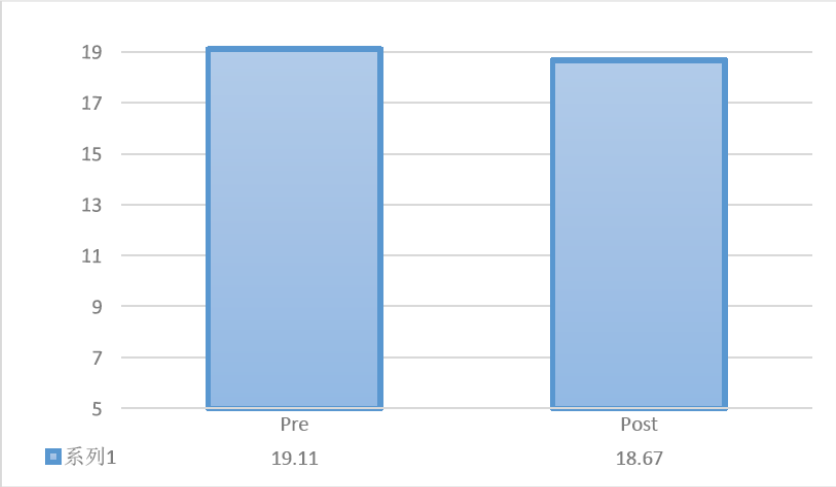

Figure 2. FTG learners (speaking apprehension before and after treatment).

Figure (2) above shows that there was no noticeable difference between the mean scores of the FTG learners in relation to the speaking apprehension inventory before and after the treatment. Consequently, formalist teaching was not effective in reducing the level of speaking apprehension among the study participants.

C. Dialogic Teaching and Argumentative Writing

Table (3) discloses the results of the descriptive and the inferential statistical analyses between dialogic teaching group learners' scores on the pre-posttest:

TABLE III:
PAIRED SAMPLE T TEST BETWEEN PRE AND POST ADMINISTRATION OF ARGUMENTATIVE WRITING TEST

Group	Treatment	No.	Mean	Std. Deviation	T-Value	Sig. (2tailed)
DTG	Pre	34	8.76	2.91	13.17	0.00
	Post	34	18.97	5.27		

The results shown above quantified that there was a statistically significant difference between the mean scores attained by the DTG learners (pre and post-test) in the argumentative writing. Results of the *t*-test yielded (13.7) which is significant (sig. = 0.00 2tailed = P <0.05). Above and beyond, the figure (3) below outlines the difference in the argumentative writing showing that there were obvious differences between the pre-test and the post-test.

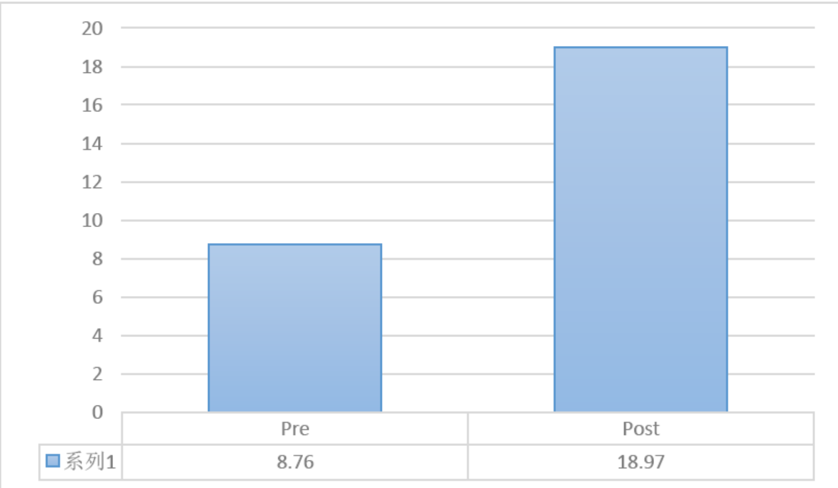

Figure 3. DTG learners (argumentative writing pre-post-test).

Furthermore, to authenticate the results of the statistical analysis, the effect size was computed using the Cohen's *d* formula, which yielded (*d*= 4.58) determining that more than 97.7 % of the improvement in the argumentative writing of the DTG learners may be attributed to the dialogic teaching applied. Accordingly, the results drawn above manifested the effectiveness of the dialogic teaching in developing the argumentative writing among the study participants.

D. Dialogic Teaching and Speaking Apprehension

Table (4) exhibits the results of the descriptive and the inferential statistical analyses between dialogic teaching group students' scores on the speaking apprehension:

TABLE IV
PAIRED SAMPLE T TEST BETWEEN PRE AND POST ADMINISTRATION OF ARGUMENTATIVE WRITING TEST OF DIALOGIC TEACHING GROUP.

Group	Treatment	No.	Mean	Std. Deviation	T-Value	Sig. (2tailed)
DTG	Pre	36	26.41	8.28	6.58	0.00
	Post	36	18.86	4.40		

The results shown above uncovered that there was a statistically significant difference between the mean scores attained by the DTG learners in relation to their responses to the speaking apprehension inventory before and after the treatment. Results of the *t*-test yield (6.58) which was significant (sig. = 0.00 2tailed = P <0.05). Concurrently, the figure (4) below delineated the difference in the speaking apprehension level before and after the treatment.

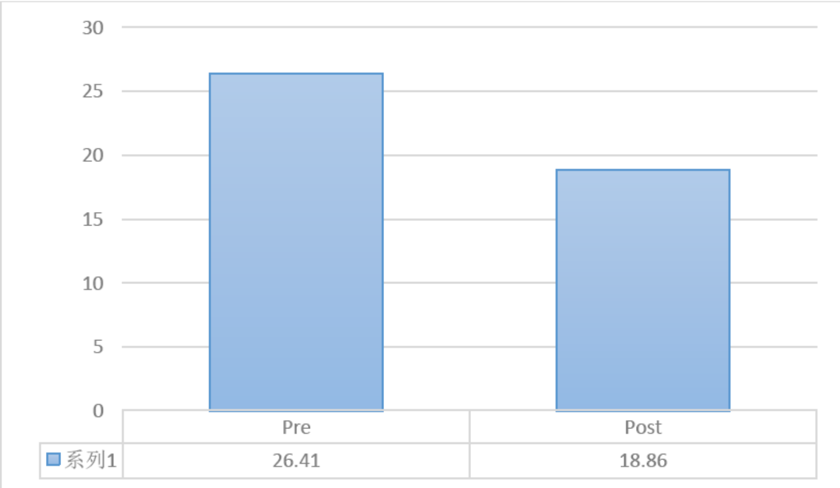

Figure 4. DTG learners (speaking apprehension before and after treatment).

To verify the above results, the effect size (how much variance in speaking apprehension was a result of the DTG) was computed using the Cohen's *d* formula, which yielded (*d*= 2.22) disclosing that more than 97.7 % of the reduction in the speaking apprehension of the target group was attributed to the DT. Accordingly, the results drawn above indicated the effectiveness of the DT in reducing the level of speaking apprehension among the study participants.

E. Formalist versus Dialogic Teaching on Argumentative Writing

Table (5) below, compares the posttest scores of both the FTG and DTG groups. The purpose is to mean scores to reveal the difference in the argumentative writing before and after the treatment:

TABLE V
INDEPENDENT SAMPLE T TEST BETWEEN POST ADMINISTRATION OF ARGUMENTATIVE WRITING TEST OF THE DTG VERSUS FTG.

Group	No.	Mean	Std. Deviation	T-Value	Sig. (2tailed)
FTG	36	14.75	4.27	3.69	0.000
DTG	34	18.97	5.27		

The results publicized above displays that there was a statistically slight difference between the mean scores attained by the FTG and DTG groups on the post-administration of the argumentative writing test in favour of the DTG. Results of the *t*-test yielded (3.69), which was significant (sig. = 0.00 2tailed = P <0.05). Figure (8) below delineates this difference.

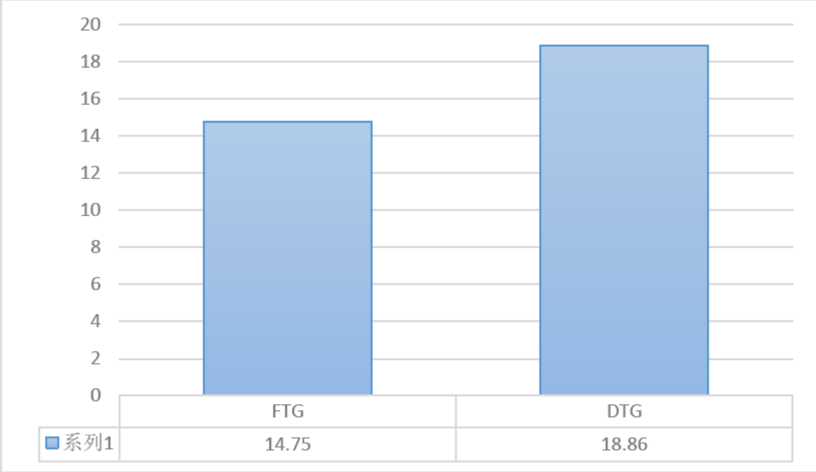

Figure 5. FTG and DTG (argumentative writing).

Substantiating the results of the statistical analysis entails computing the effect size (how much variance between the two groups in the argumentative writing level as a result of the treatment). Cohen's *d* formula yielded (*d*= 0.89) meaning that 96.4 % of the improvement in the argumentative writing of the DTG may be attributed to the treatment.

F. *Formalist versus Dialogic Teaching (Speaking Apprehension)*

Table (6) demonstrated the results of the statistical analysis as a comparison was held between the posttests of the FTG and DTG groups mean scores to reveal the difference in the speaking apprehension before and after the treatment:

TABLE VI
INDEPENDENT SAMPLE T TEST BETWEEN POST ADMINISTRATION OF SPEAKING APPREHENSION INVENTORY OF THE DTG VERSUS FTG.

Group	No.	Mean	Std. Deviation	T-Value	Sig. (2tailed)
FTG	34	26.14	8.44	3.67	0.00
DTG	34	19.58	6.07		

The results publicized above displays that there was a statistically significant difference at 0.5 level between the mean scores attained by the FTG and DTG groups (post administration) in the speaking apprehension inventory in favour of the FTG. Results of the *t*-test yielded (3.76), which was significant (sig. = 0.00 2tailed = P <0.05). In this context, the figure (6) below delineates this difference.

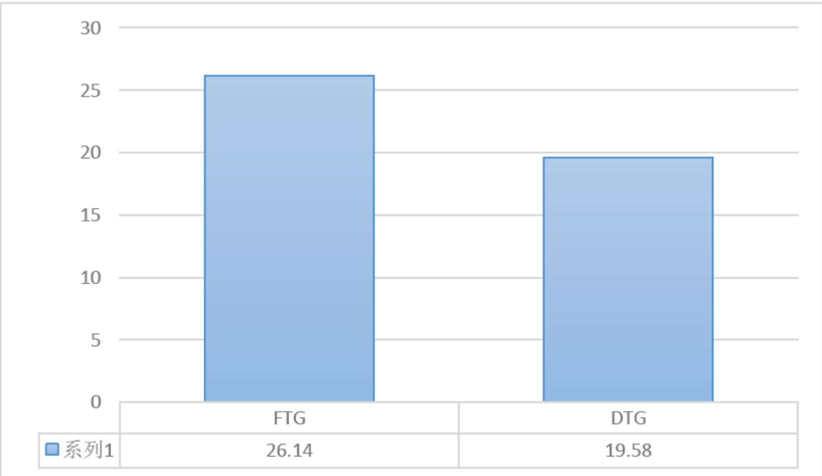

Figure 6. FTG and DTG (speaking apprehension).

Substantiating the results of the statistical analysis entails computing the effect size (how much variance between the two groups in the speaking apprehension level as a result of the treatment). Cohen's *d* formula yielded (*d*= 0.90) meaning that 82 % of the improvement in the speaking apprehension of the DTG may be attributed to the treatment.

IV. DISCUSSION

This study has reported the results of an 11 weeks intervention utilising both dialogic and formalist teaching on students' argumentative writing skills and speaking apprehension. The quantitative analyses indicated that although participation in both groups had significantly changed their argumentative, the mean scores of the dialogic education students were higher. In addition, the dialogic education group outperformed those of the formalist teaching in reducing the level of speaking apprehension.

Formalist and dialogic education in the argumentative writing classroom

Teaching either in the formalist or in the dialogic group has significantly and positively changed students' argumentative writing skills. One reason for such developments in both groups is the time factor. Teachers of writing, in the EFL classes in the college, do not allocate specific time for teaching students argumentative writing discourse. They teach them the different genres of writing in general, one of them is argumentative, and then ask them to write an essay about one of these types. When students were given the time and the chance to know and read about argumentative writing construction, and practice such knowledge, their argumentative skills were developed to such a significant way. Peregoy & Boyle (2007) assured this idea confirming that providing EL learners with sufficient time and extensive opportunities to write not only improves their writing skills, but fosters language acquisition in general.

Another reason for interpreting such result is that students in both groups have received training on the different constituents of an argumentative essay in a form of graphing which is used later for assessing their writings. This helped them recongise the different ways of building such sentences and how to place them in the right position in the essay which linked both instruction and assessment process. (Leer & Runck, (2016) supported this idea. They confirmed that students need “more guidance, structure, and explicit instruction” than is traditionally expected in a workshop context". Hosp (2010, p. 3) also said:

> "*When teachers use assessment data to make their instructional decisions, student performance increases…training preservice and inservice teachers to more effectively and efficiently collect and use assessment data to make instructional decisions for their students and classes should be a core component of any professional development*".

The nature of the topics students chose to write about is another reason for students' argumentative writing skills development. Topics such as co-education, internet or private and state university education, which they chose themselves to write about, are such hot topics that everybody in the Egyptian society is talking about nowadays. Despite the expensive cost of private education, most middle and high class Egyptians are enrolling their students in private education. This permeates for better education and hence better jobs. Students were very enthusiastic while either talking about and then write or go direct to write about the different opinions.

Dialogic teaching and argumentative writing

In addition to the aforementioned justifications to the positive scores students obtained, statistics have revealed that dialogic teaching students' scores on the argumentative writing test outperformed those of the formalist teaching. The dialogic teaching class was characterised by providing students with the opportunities for dialogue and discussion. When teachers include students’ voice and language into the classroom discourse, this helps them to think more deeply about focal topics (Winn & Johnson, 2011). In particular, in our context of argumentative writing, discussions become an invaluable element of instruction as they encourage reflection and evaluation of multiple perspectives presented in the discussion (McCann, 2010). Additionally, inviting students to participate in the discussion of important issues validates their ideas and experiences and helps them to realize how such experiences can be transferred into writing (Winn & Johnson, 2011).

Another reason for the outperformance of the dialogic teaching group is that the class was characterised by collaboration and inquiry activities. This helped lessening the cognitive demands of the writing tasks on students and enhancing personal relationships. when Students were engaged in dialogue, they effortlessly produce the very elements of elaborated argument that often seem to be missing from their written essays, such as acknowledging and dealing with alternative perspectives on the issue. They also shared their writings with their peers and benefited from additional assistance provided to them.

Discourse patterns

Results obtained revealed reduction in the level of speaking apprehension among the dialogic teaching group. This is quite normal since both dialogic education and argumentation operate through negotiating ideas. On aalysing the students' talk, three discourse patterns emerged; generalisations; communicative dispute; and co-construction of ideas. During talk, students are encouraged to bring with them notes about the topics discussed to prepare their ideas and support them. However, most of the ideas presented were exploratory, informal and general in nature. For instance, when asked about social media or genetically modified food, they did not have scientific or official documents to support their ideas and most of the supporting details were unofficial.

Most of the discourse emerged was similar to a communicative dispute among them. This dispute emerged when one of the students asked a question to explain the idea discussed. such struggle consisted of the majority of turns in discussion and typically occurred as a result of the generalisation in the dialogue. Finally, generalisation and communicative dispute or struggle allowed the students to co-construct their knowledge. During session, when they made sense of information , they try to co-construct the meaning to determine what can or can not be done. These discourse patterns written down on the notes provided, were very helpful in organaising the ideas while writing to determine the argument and counter argument of the topic discussed. Teachers utilised this dialogue not to control learned knowledge but to let students acquire new understanding; this scaffolding dialogue used structured questions which built on each other in order to solve a problem that is too difficult for students (Alexander, 2006).

V. Conclusion

The current study sought to provide insight into the process of introducing dialogic education in the argumentative writing classroom. It aimed at comparing formalist teaching, in which teachers emphasise the different aspects of argumentative writing, to dialogic education as a method that harnesses communication and students' work with language to promote their activity, deepen their thinking and enrich their understanding (Alexander, 2006).

The results of the study showed that both formalist and dialogic teaching improved students' argumentative writing. However, the deep analysis of the papers and the teaching and learning context proved the surpass of dialogic activities. Dialogic teaching was a precious tool which influenced significantly the students' argumentative writing as well as their knowledge about argumentation as genre and their mode of thinking and talking about reality. In the dialogic teaching outputs, the conventional, monophonic argumentative texts of the formalist group which represented only the opinion of its author on the topic as a response to or as a repetition of an 'authoritative voice', were replaced by "written polyphonic, heteroglot texts" in which the oral dialogue was transferred in the written texts, the voices of the others were transformed in counter-arguments and the internally persuasive speech of each student was expressed by rebuttal arguments that seek to empower, consciously, their personal opinion on the issue (Egglezou, 2016).

The augmentation in the dialogic teaching group does not reflect only the students' better awareness on the structural exigencies of the genre. Rather, it reveals that argumentation was internalized in students' minds as a wide dialogue between various polyphonic and heteroglot people, who express different opinions and interests that must be critically taken in account. Such a clash of different ideas, arguments and attitudes and the reflection on them extends students' knowledge of the world, deepens their way of thinking, contributes to the formation of their individual persuasive speech and reduces their speaking apprehension level as result of the exchange of ideas and arguments. As a result, further studies are necessary to investigate dialogic education with other different aspects of language learning. In addition, the role of dialogue in changing students' attitudes of different conceptualizations can be investigated as a means to change the system of personal beliefs.

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An Analysis of a Noun Phrase in Ichindali

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***Abstract*—Ichindali is one of the Ethnic Community Languages spoken by an increasing population of the Ndali people in Mbeya region. The Ndali people live in southern Tanzania, Mbeya Region. Ileje District has 124,451 speakers in 2012. Ileje is bordered to the North by Mbeya rural and Rungwe district, to the East by Kyela district. Ndali people live in an area which crosses the Tanzania Malawi border. This paper investigates the way noun phrases are formed in Ichindali and the order of their formation (constituents) in this particular language. Therefore the main objectives of this paper were: i. To find out the Criteria for categorizing noun phrase elements in Ichindali. ii. To examine the various kinds of dependents in Ichindali noun phrase. In arriving at these objectives, the writer posed the following questions as a guide: i. What are the criteria relevant in categorizing the dependents of the noun in Ichindali? ii. What kinds of dependents form a noun phrase in Ichindali? A conclusion has been drawn from this work is that, the structure of a noun phrase in Ichindali is N-Det-Mod. An NP can function as a subject, direct or primary objects which is normally expressed in the accusative case, indirect or secondary object in dative case as well as an object of preposition.**

***Index Terms*—noun phrase, Ichindali, determiners, complements and adjuncts**

I. Introduction

The phrase is a significant unit of analysis in the grammar of any language. It is not only studied at the syntactic level but also at other levels of analysis-phonology, morphology, semantics, and pragmatics. Different types of phrases have been identified and described in the grammar of English and other languages. However, the noun and verb phrases are the most important and widely described phrases given that the structure of many languages revolves around the noun and the verb word (Ondondo, 2015). A noun phrase is a constituent in a sentence having different functions. Murthy (2006) defines a noun phrase as a group of words which does the work of a noun. Kroeger (2005) defines a noun phrase as a phrasal constituent whose head is a noun. It can also be said that a noun phrase is group of related words without a subject and predicate which function as a noun. In this paper we will discuss various kinds of dependents (non-head constituents) which may appear in NPs in Ichindali. The two most important classes of these are complements and adjuncts which can also be called modifiers. We will also look at possessors, which function as a kind of determiner in English, but as complements or adjuncts in Ichindali, functions of a noun phrase and finally we will discuss possession and recursion in an NP.

II. Literature Review

A structure of noun phrase

A Noun phrase is a group of words which function as a noun and its head word is a noun or pronoun. Noun phrases play an important role in the construction of a sentence. Without knowledge of noun phrases in English, learners could not produce comprehensible sentences. The criteria for establishing the types of elements that can become dependents of the noun in the noun phrase are based on morphological properties, syntactic behaviour, and semantic features. The arrangement of words in a noun phrase differs from one language to another. In most times the language of the same family have a related arrangement. Valin (2004) argues that syntax deals with how sentences are constructed, and users of human language employ a striking variety of possible arrangements of the elements in sentences. One of the most obvious important way in which languages differ is the order of the main elements in a sentence which is made of a subject (noun phrase) and a predicate (verb phrase). Lusekelo (2009) explains that, the two basic techniques used to identify elements in an NP in Nyakyusa and Bantu languages in general include the shape of the noun class prefix of the head noun and the prefix for the concordial agreement in each noun phrase. First, in Bantu languages, noun modifiers reveal somehow the same shape of the affixes of the head noun and show the concordial agreements with head noun. Noun phrase being one of a major part of a sentence its arrangement differs from one language to another. Rijkhoff (2002) supports that, both within and across languages noun phrases vary considerably with respect to their internal organization and complexity.

In English an NP is made of determiners + pre-modifier + head word + post modifier. This is also supported by Lees (1961) that it is customary to describe the English nominal as consisting of sequence of constituents: predeterminers, determiners, adjectives, the noun head, and finally certain postnominal modifiers such as relative clauses. The terms ‘dependent’, ‘element’, ‘modifier’, ‘determiner’ and ‘constituent’ are used by the different authors cited in this work. Generally, the words mean the word categories, like adjective, possessive, demonstrative, adverb etc. that co-occur with the head noun in an NP. Numerals, adjectives, demonstratives, genitives, articles and relative clauses are noun modifiers and reveal hierarchical orderings Givón (2001) Specifically, the term 'determiner' is used to refer to word categories that occur close to the head noun and the term 'modifier' refers to the rest of the word categories. An NP plays an important role in the construction of a sentence. Lees (1961) explains that without knowledge of noun phrases in English, learners could not produce comprehensible sentences. The structure of noun phrases can be both basic and complex. Basic noun phrases can be pronouns, numerals or head nouns with different determiners while complex ones include pre-modification, head noun and post-modification. For example:

a) A man has come
b) The widow stayed at home during all **the last few days of her problem**
Basic p complex p

There are three proposition concerning NP in Bantu languages Ichindali being the one. First, some Bantuists propose that Bantu languages do not possess overt articles, like those available in other languages like English (Carstens, 1993). Second, other Bantuists claim that an augment functions as a determiner that indicates definiteness in Bantu languages like Ganda (cf. Hyman & Katamba 1993). Another group of Bantuists hold that the possessive and demonstrative are determiners in Bantu languages and occur close to the head noun (cf. Polomé 1967; Rugemalira 2007) Lusekelo (2009) cited in the mention author. It is also said that several options of the order of elements within a noun phrase are available across Bantu. Studies of the noun in Bantu languages have traditionally concentrated on the morphology of the noun with its elaborate class system and the underlying semantic strands. When treatment of the noun and its dependents is undertaken or mentioned it is usually with special focus on the concord system. May be this is the reason some Bantuists hold that the rules governing the order of elements within a noun phrase in Bantu languages are not water tight.

III. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

In this study, qualitative research approach was used. Data were collected through in-depth interviews and focus group discussion. Semi structured interview questions were prepared and administered to both female and male elders in Ichindali ethnic group. The data collected gave out the structure of a Noun Phrase in Ichindali ethnic group. Quota sampling which is under non-probability sampling was used to get a total of 20 respondents who were interviewed. Among them there were two groups of respondents. The first included 10 females and the second group included 10 males who are between fifty and seventy years old. These are more experienced with their culture and contented with the history of the tribe. Purposive sampling technique was used to get two focus groups which were very much potential in giving different information on a Noun phrase

IV. RESULTS, ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

In order to meet the objectives of the study, the researcher collected data which will reveal out what really composes the determiner in Ichindali language, the components of an NP in Ichindali and the way these components are arranged to form a NP.

Different NP which reveal the dominant arrangement of NP were found as follows:

1. a) N + Dem → umwana jhula - that child
abhana bhala - those children
b) N + Poss → umulume gwangu - my husband
abhalume bhangu - our husband
c) N + Num → amulisha jhumo - one man
abhalisha bhabhili - two men
d) N +Quant → abhandu bhoshi - all people
e) N + Adj → umukolo umutali - a tall woman
abhakolo abhatali - tall women
f) N + Rel → umuhijhi ujhu afwile - a thief that has died
ubhahijhi abha bhafwile - thieves who have died
g) Distr + N → kukuti ugwa sukulu - every student
kukuti abha sululu – the distributor can not agree with plural
h) **N +** Ass/Gen → ishamba lya bhandu - people's farm
amashamba gha bhandu - people's farms

In identifying basic word order in Ichindali, one has to look the above NP and come out with the possible NP structure. From the NP above complex structure can be formed. For example:

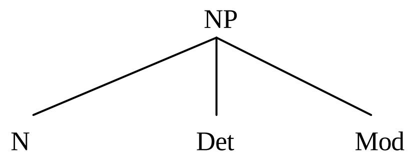
2 a) Umwana gwangu umwisa ngani
N Poss Adj Int
The very beautiful child of mine
b) Umwana gwangu jhula umwisa ujhu eghite ifilombe

N Poss Dem Adj Rel clause
The very beautiful child of mine who took maize
c) Abhandu bhangu bhoshi bho bhali na maluka
N Poss quant Rel clause
My all people who have shops
d) Umulisha jhula ujhu akulisha ingambo pabhushiku
N Dem Rel clause
A boy who sells cigarettes in the night

In the above NP, the head noun occurs at the far most left position hence it precedes its dependents except in few circumstances where a noun is preceded by a distributer. Both the possessive and demonstrative immediately follow the head noun. If there are all in an NP the demonstrative is preceded by a possessive then an Adjective. The associative/connective and relative clauses are in the final position. In Ichindali determiners like demonstratives and possessive are overt except articles. However, we observe that each Bantu language reveals a somehow distinct. For example in Kiswahili, a demonstrative can precede a noun in an NP like:

3 a) yule mtoto mzuri
b) *Jhula umwana umwisa
c) umwana jhula umwisa
That beautiful child

While in Ichindali you can not compose a phrase like in 1.3 b). This helps to come up with a structure of NP in Ichindali with the constituents which occur as N-Det-Mod.



In Ichindali there are no articles but there are prefixes which mark the numbers. For example 2.

Singular **plural**
U- mulindu u-mutali - a-bhalindu a-bhatali
pre N Adj - pre N Adj
A tall girl - the tall girls
U- mukolo u-mwolo - a-bhakolo a-bholo
pre N Adj - pre N Adj
A lazy woman - The lazy women
U- mulisha umwisa jhujho kwisa - a-bhalisha a-bhisa a-bho bhakwisa
pre N Adj Rel clause pre N Adj Mod
The handsome man who is coming - the handsome boys who are coming
U-mukolo u-mwolo - a- bhakolo a-bholo
pre N Adj - pre N Adj
A lazy woman - The lazy women
U-mulumyana umwisa ughwa pachijhijhi panu
pre N Adj P N Mod/Adv
A handsome boy in this village
A-bhalumyana abhisa abha pachijhijhi panu
Pre N Adj P N Mod/Adv
The handsome boys in this village

The constituent above shows that prefix **'umu'** marks singular and **'abha'** marks plural when affixed to the noun stem (head noun). Also there is no pre-modifier which usually precedes the head noun but there are post-modifiers. Its constituents occur as N-MOD. In the phrase there is concord agreement among the elements which form the constituents.

To have a noun phrase there are word categories that appear around a head noun: which are Determiners (possessives and demonstratives), Modifiers (adjectives, quantifiers, numerals, intensifiers and relative clause).Also, there are relative clauses, distributive as well as associative /genitives

Determiners

A determiner is a modifying word that determines the kind of reference a noun or noun group has, for example *a*, *the*, an and *every*. Determiners occur close to the head in Ichindali language. Two sets of word categories are under determiner position: (a) possessives and (b) demonstratives. There are loose restrictions on the co-occurrence of the possessive and demonstrative but the two word categories are restricted in the co-occurrences with modifiers like adjectives and numerals as it is explained in 1.1.3. In Ichindali the possessives are likely to occur immediately after the head nouns. This is different from what is happening in English where the possessives must occur before a noun (head). Demonstratives are characterized with a feature that they are used to indicate proximity and non-proximity of location of the referent in relation to the speaker and hearer's position. Another function of the demonstrative is to indicate the referentiality in the language. Generally, demonstratives change morphologically depending on the noun class of the head noun. For example:

a) abhana bha-bho bha-la
Children 3rdppl-their pl-dem-those
b) umwana gwabho jhula
a child 3rdpsg sg-dem-that
c) umundu gwangu ujhu
person 1stpsg-my sg-dem-this

In the example 1.1 the demonstratives change depending to the noun, when the noun is plural it is **bhala** but when is singular it is **jhula** to make the agreement to the noun.

Complements and adjuncts of a noun (Modifiers)

Nouns can take complements and adjuncts of various categories. Adjuncts to an NP are often referred to as modifiers which are adjectives and PP modifiers. Adjectives describe the quality of nouns. The proper sense of the usage of the term adjective here should be semantic adjective as it is explained by Dryer (2007) who states that semantic adjectives denote a set of words on the basis of their meaning, regardless of their grammatical properties in a particular language. He states that such words denote properties like size and colour and meanings that corresponding to e.g. big, red, long, good and fast. Radford (1992) argues that terms like complement and adjunct denote grammatical functions or relations, and thus have the same status as terms like subject and object. Some semantic adjectives exhibit nominal properties and they occur with a noun class prefix. The following phrases are examples of adjuncts in an NP:

1) umulongoshi ugwa chisa
a leader with sympathy
b) abhapina abha maghauni amelu
the orphans with white dresses

The prepositional phrase **ugwa chisa** and **abha maghauni amelu** are examples '**a'** and '**b**' respectively, function as adjuncts; they are not selected by the head noun, but may be freely added to any number of NPs, subject to semantic and pragmatic plausibility. As shown in the following constituent:

2. a) umughanga ugwa chisa
a doctor with sympathy
b) abhakilisiti abha maghauni amelu
Christians with white addresses

In English and in Ichindali a PP may also function as a complement within NP whereby it is lexically specified. It only occurs with certain specific head nouns and not with others. For example,

3 a) ugwasukulu ijha mikota
a student of medicine

This NP contains the PP '**ijha mikota'** '**of medicine'** which has been determined by the noun. This is because the noun **student** can take a complement of this type, while other head nouns like a girl 'umulindu' , mother 'umama', cannot. For the case of grammar one can say '**umama ugwa mikota'** but semantically it will bring a different concept from the origin meaning which meant one who learns medicine and comes to be a mother who like traditional medicine. When a given NP contains both a complement PP and an adjunct PP, the complement must always precede the adjunct. For example:

4 a) ugwasukulu ijha mikota ugwa lighauni ilyelu
a student of medicine with a white dress

The constituent shows that an adjunct may not separate the complement PP from its head N, as shown above.

Other modifiers

Other modifiers found in Ichindali NP are categories that occur beyond determiners. Those modifiers are quantifiers, numerals, intensifiers and relative clauses. Three lexical words functioning as quantifier found in Ichindali are **–oshi** 'all' **-nandi** 'few/little' **-ingi** 'many/a lot of Quantifiers are made distinct from numerals in that quantifiers are indefinite and functions to indicate indefiniteness. The noun prefix is copied by the quantifiers; therefore, it is the noun prefix that determines the shape of the quantifier's prefix. For example, some shapes of the Ichindali quantifier **– oosa** 'all' are in

1 a) **abhana bhoshi** 'all children'
b) **ingumbe shoshi** 'all ports'
c) **ifitengu fyoshi** 'all chairs'
d) umupunga ghoshi 'all rice'
c) ichisu choshi ' all countries'

Numerals that are cardinals and ordinals carry noun class prefixes of the head noun they co-occur with in a construction. They display freedom of co-occurrence in Ichindali. For example:

2 a) abhoshigwa bhabhili abha bhakwimba mwa tembeli
Christians two who sing in the church
b) Injuni shibhili sho shili mukakokwe

birds two which are on a tree
c) abhoshigwa abhakwanda bhabhili abha **bha**kwimba mwa tembeli
Christians the first two who sing in the church
d) Umwana ugwa bhutatu ujhu aghite akapombo
A child third who taken basket

In (1.2) both the numeral **bhabili and ishibhili** ‘two’, ordinal **abhakwanda** ‘first’ and **ugwabhutatu** ‘third’ occur immediately after the head noun **abhoshigwa** ‘christians’, ‘Injuni’ and ‘umwana’. Intensifiers are adverbs that denote degree. An Adverb may premodify an adjective and most commonly, the modifying adverb is an intensifier Quirk & Greenbaum (2005). In English the common intensifiers is ‘very’, other words are extremely, really, unbelievably, quite, etc. In Ichindali are words like:

3 a) **ngani** ‘very’
b) **lukulu** ‘very’
c) **leka** ‘very’
b) **panandi** ‘little / somehow

Note that the intensifier modifies a word category (specifically an adjective) that immediately precedes it. For example, using 1.3.a) above the intensifier ngani ‘very’ gives intensification feature to the adjective umwisa ‘beautiful’ and ‘poor’ in the following phrase:

4.a) umulindu umwisa ngani
N Adj Int
A very beautiful girl
b) umunyambala umupina ngani
N Adj Int
a very poor man

While the intensifier ‘lukulu’ gives intensification feature to the adjective mung’wamu ‘big’ in the following phrase:

5. a) umupiki umung’wamu lukulu
N Adj Int
A big very

Relative Clauses are also found in Ichindali NP. Quirk & greenbaum (2005) explains that relative clause shows the agreement with the head and indicates its status as an element in the relative clause structure. In Ichindali the agreement is on the basis of two terms personal and non**-** personal. For example:

6 a) ichisu **ichi** tukwikala
the country in **which** we leave
b) imyende **gyo** bhibhite
the clothes **which** were stolen
a) ung’ina **ujhu** ishile
her mother **who** has come
b) abhano **bho** bhakwelite
the children **who** have passed

Functions of a noun phrase

A noun phrase is a very important part in a sentence as it can show the grammatical relation as a subject, primary or direct object, secondary or indirect object, and objects of prepositions and it carries different semantic roles too. For example:

1 a) [Umughanga] amupile [[ununung’una] [gwangu]] [[imikota] [imisa]]
S V N Adj N Adj
NP NP NP
Umughanga / amupile / umunung’una gwangu / imikota imisa
S Oi Od
Actor Undergoer
Agent Recipient Theme
Ergative case Dative case Accusative case
A doctor has given my young sister / brother good medicine

b) [[Umulume] [gwangu]] amwulile [ighauni] [[ung’ina] [usongo]]
NP NP NP
N Adj V N N Adj
Umulume gwangu / amwulile / ighauni / ung’ina usongo
S V Od Oi
Actor Undergoer Recipient
Agent Theme Dative case
Ergative case Accusative case
My husband has bought his elder mother a dress

c) [Umuhijhi] aghonite [[mu] [chitengele]]
NP PP
N P N
Umuhijhi / aghonite / mu chitengele
S V
Theme Location
A thief slept in the forest

In Ichindali and other languages like English, subject, direct object and indirect object which are functions of a noun phrase can be expressed in different ways using the same word with regard to their semantic roles. For example if one wants to report the state of affairs in example **1.a** that a doctor has given my young sister good medicine. In Ichindali, umughanga amupile umunung'una gwangu imikota imisa. **Umughanga** is an actor, agent the doer of action, the giver and it is grammatically called a subject. **Imikota imisa** is the undergoer, theme, the given, it is in accusative case, is a thing affected by an action, and it is grammatically referred as a direct object. While **umunung'una gwangu** is a recipient, one who is given to, in dative case and it is grammatically referred to as an indirect object or secondary object.

Possession and recursion

Most languages allow a Noun Phrase to contain another NP which names the possessor of the head noun. This phrase is called a "possessor" because it can always be used to express the concept of possession or ownership. For example, the phrase **inyumba jhangu** which is **my house** can be used to indicate that I am the owner of the house (I bought it), I am the creator of the house (I built it), or I am the subject of the house (it shows my likeness). Similarly, phrases like **John's wife**, **John's shop**, or **John's education** indicate various kinds of association between the possessor (John) and the head noun. In English, a possessor phrase functions as a kind of determiner as it cannot occur with other determiners in the same NP. For examples:

1 **a)** the new car
b) Atu's new car
c)*Atu's the new motorcycle
d)*the Atu's new motorcycle

The examples (c) and (d) indicates that if a possessor exist with a determiner the Noun phrase produced is wrong because there is no agreement between the words.

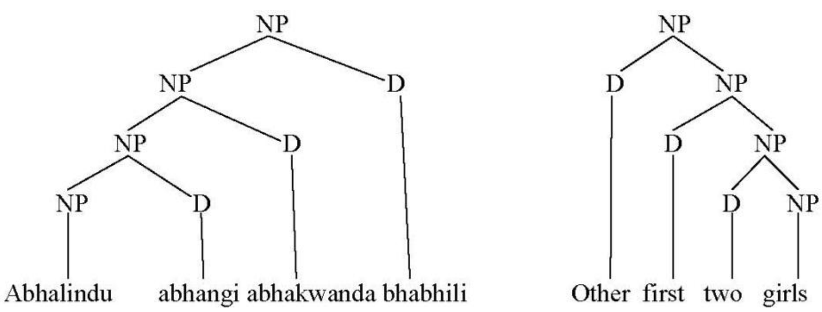
In Ichindali possessor phrases may co-occur with demonstratives as it is explained above in determiner 1.1. The possessor words are like**- gwangu** 'my-', **gwako / gwinyu '**yours', **gwitu '**our**', gwabho '**their'**, gwake '**his / her**.**

The ordering patterns of the elements are monitored by both the orderings of the elements, the shape of the elements, and the semantics of the resulting NP. Recursive rules in English allow one PP to be embedded within another. It also allows PP to be nested one inside another for as long as the speaker's breath holds out. For example:

2 a) injuni ijhi jhili pa mupiki mu mughunda gwa mukolo jhula
a bird which is on the tree in the farm of that woman
b) umulindu ugwa mahelu mu chijhijhi icha mubhwando mwa mukalembo
a girl of abusive language in the village in the valley of Kalembo

Also recursive rule is seen when NP occurs on both the left hand and the right hand side of the arrow in both Ichindali and English. That one can generate NPs containing multiple determiners (infact, NPs containing indefinitely many determiners). In Ichindali the recursion is marked only after a head noun which is not happening in English. For example:

3 a) Abhalindu abhangi abhakwanda bhabhili = NP ⟶ NP D
Other first two girls = NP⟶ D NP



These determiners can be added to meet the needs of communication. Radford (1992:170) explains that it is obvious that we can go on recursively re-applying the same rule to produce an NP structure containing not just three determiners but four, five, six to the infinite number. Despite this freedom, there is considerable variation in the ordering of items in the modifier position.

In English pre-modifiers are arranged according to the characteristics which determine their position in an NP while in Ichindali post modifiers are arranged with regard to the characteristics. In Ichindali there are post modifiers and determiners preceded by a noun. The table below shows modifiers arrangement to form an NP in Ichindali.

Noun (head)	**Adjective**						**Origion**	**Material**
	subjectal	**size**	**weight**	**shape**	**age**	**colour**		
umwana **child**	umwisa **beautiful**	-	-	-	umukeke **young**	umwelu **white**	umundali **ndali**	-
ighaini **dress**	-	itali **long**	ilipepe **light**	-	ilipya **new**	ilikesefu **red**	ilya tanzania **tanzanian**	ilya pamba
umupiki **tree**	umupimba **short**	umugw'amu **big**	-	umubhulunge **round**	ugwalijholo **ancient**	-	umulingoti **tree**	-
ichipale **gourd**	ichisa **beautiful**	iching'wamu **big**	ichishito **heavy**			ichititu **black**		
umulisha **man**	umwisa **handsome**			umubhulunge **round**	usongo **elder**	umwelu **white**	umunyachusa **nyakusa**	

V. Conclusion

Therefore the structure of a noun phrase in Ichindali is N-Det-Mod. An NP can function as a subject, direct or primary objects which is normally expressed in the accusative case, indirect or secondary object in dative case as well as an object of preposition. It is recursive and very important in the language as it carries different grammatical relations and semantic roles. Since its arrangement is not random, It would appear that the relative clause normally comes last of all modifiers on account of its syntactic complexity, which lends support to the principle of end weight.

Appendix

List of Abbreviations

N……………… Noun
P………………..Phrase
NP……………...Noun phrase
Dem…………….Demonstrative
Det……………...Determiner
Adj ……………..Adjectives
Poss……………..Possession
Num……………. Number
Quant……………Quantity
Distr …………….Distributor
Int ……………...Intensifier
Ass/ Gen……….. Associative genitive
Mod……………...Modifier
PP………………...Preposition
S …………………Subject
Oi…………………Indirect object
Od……………….. Direct object
3^{rd} psg…………….Third person singular
3^{rd} ppl …………….Third person plural
1^{st} psg……………..Second person plural

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Translation, Retranslation and Recreation in the Literary Field

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Abstrac—**Ameen Fares Rihani rewrote a few of his Arabic poems, such as "I am the East" and "New York" in English, to enable American and Arab readers to understand the poems within their cultural settings, to promote the Eastern culture in the West, and to introduce the West to the Easterners. This paper argues that in his translations of his own poetry, Rihani was a recreator rather than a translator. A comparative analysis of Rihani's rewritten poems in English and the translations made by other translators of the same poems will prove that the author-translator's choice of terms along with their cultural backgrounds, deep meanings and etymologies reveal his deep understanding of the source and target cultures, the Eastern and the Western ones. The study further analyzes Rihani's literary recreations or in other terms transcreations and examines as well the other translators' rendering of the same works. Comparative study shows how poetry transcends cultural barriers and understands the linguistic and cultural spirit of the target language, thereby attempts to bridge the civilization and cultural gaps between the East and the West.**

Index Terms—**Ameen Rihani, translator, retranslation, Eastern and Western cultures, translation studies, recreation, transcreation**

I. Introduction

Ameen Fares Rihani had the privilege of living in his home country, Lebanon in the Middle East as well as in the United States of America. His sojourn in the East and the West enabled him to acquire the linguistic and cultural colorings of both worlds. This drove his nephew, Ameen Albert Rihani (2007), to confirm that "few of the ethnic groups, who emigrated to America, as of the second half of the nineteenth century became writers in their mother tongue-Arabic. …Very few of these emigrants became writers in both languages, their mother tongue, Arabic, and the acquired language of the New World, English. Ameen Fares Rihani was the first Arab-American writer to publish a collection of poetry and novel in the English Language" (p.11).

Ameen Fares Rihani lived during a tumultuous period of modern time Lebanon. Mount-Lebanon, the nucleus of today's Lebanon, enjoyed at the time a semi-autonomous status under the Ottoman rule, bestowing confessional communities a legislative right to perpetuate their cultural and educational rights and privileges through the *Millet* system (Salibi, 1996). Mount-Lebanon had become a cross-cultural platform for dialogue and cultural activities promoted by the Jesuit and Protestant missionaries, which established schools, and higher educational instituions (the Syrian Protestant College or the American University of Beirut in 1866 and the Catholic Saint Joseph University in 1887). Under such conditions, Western and Eastern scholarship has flourished in the region and Rihani's work represented the epitomy of the early Eastern Western dialogue. As a result, Ameen F. Rihani's mission as writer and philosopher was to build a bridge, which would link the cultures of the East and the West. Seeking a better understanding of his works in the East and the West, he rendered some of his works into both languages. Here one may wonder whether in doing this Ameen F. Rihani was a translator or a recreator. Among the works, which Rihani rendered, are two well-known poems: "I am the East" and "New York." In both versions, Arabic and English, Rihani's main purpose was to enable the American and Arab readers to understand the poems within their immediate cultural settings. His aim, I believe, was twofold: to promote the East in Western culture and to introduce the West to Eastern world a much needed attempt at the core of narrowing down existing cultural gaps between the East and the West and militating against the "Clash of Civilizations" (Huntington, 1996). Upon reading the original texts and the translated ones by Rihani and other translators, one wonders whether Rihani was more loyal to the original than the translators were or vice versa. Before attempting to deal with this issue, one must refer to what some translation critics and theorists say about retranslation and the difficulties the translator finds when flavoring the target language with the target cultural mindset without being disloyal to the source language and culture.

This study assesses the role of literary translators and/or recreators with respect to the source text. In addition, it intends to show how Ameen F. Rihani's originality as a recreator/rewriter rather than as a translator of his own poetry transcends the barriers of cultures. It also highlights some terms or expressions that are untranslatable in the target language and seeks to discuss the proper way to deal with such hurdles.

II. Review of Literature

The seminal analytical book of Mohammad Farghal and Ali Almanna (2015) dedicates a full chapter on discussing the cultural considerations and translations which play a major role in the target culture. According to Farghal and Almanna (2015, pp.98-102), "The polar opposition between foreignizing and domestication culture needs to be reconciled in a way that ensures comprehensibility while not compromising cultural elements…". When the translator can strike a balance between playing the role of "insider" and "outsider" properly with respect to two cultures in question; then he will be doing a faithful job". According to Nida (1979 cited in Hatim, 2001), the emphasis in translation is on the relationship between language, culture and society and how some of the pratical insights may be applied in the study of translation (p.18). These critics demonstrate the standard against which I base my argument about Rihani as a recreator rather than a translator. There is a thin line between creativity, creation within the literary field and literary translation in general as our case study. Lierary translation requires a high level of meticulousness. In order to render a literary text faithfully, one has to make sure that the message is rendered at all levels even when some untranslatable items occur or some foreign concepts prevail. The translatability of the structures in linguistics structures would have to be considered even if they were initially untranslatable for human beings (Benjamen, 2012). Thus, as Deane- Cox (2014), in such studies what has to determine our analysis at this level are not solely the structures or simply the applied translation techniques but also values, beliefs, and images in the target culture. Socio-cultural considerations are to be thoroughly examined at this level. Our case study is part of the discourse that attempts to bridge cultural gaps and corollary prejudice and biases fueling antagonism among nations. As a result, it is like moving from *Globalization* to the Great City with the Universal Spirit as Ameen Albert Rihani (2002) states in his study on Ameen F. Rihani.

III. Methodology

This study employs comparative discourse analysis of literay text of Rihani's poems *"I am the East" and "New York* and the translations made by other translators of the same poems in English, Arabic, French, and Italian. According to Blommaert and Bulcaen (2000), critical discourse analysts analyze a variety of topics, including political discourse, ideology, racism, etc. This study adopts discourse analysis to analyze intercultural output through literary texts taking *"I am the East" and "New York"* as a comparative case study. In general, critical discourse analysis offers the possibility of illustrating certain aspects of Translation, Retranslation and Recreation in the Literary Field highlighting difficulties and challenges related to the meticulousness of the renditions of the meanings reflecting differences and uniquess of each culture. Specifically, the study focuses on the cultural differences in the several translations of *"I am the East" and "New York"* and analyzes how these elements were rendered into the target culture and language in the context of literary translation.

A discourse record was designed to include all information I intended to analyse. In particular, I closely examined several translations or retranslations into the same target languages mainly French and Italian for this same work. I compared the different versions and analyzed them. Finally, I used key words related to Translation Studies in order to provide a solid tool for data gathering in this research endeavor.

Research Questions

This paper seeks to answer the following research questions:

1- Was Rihani more accurate with respect to the original text than the translators were or vice versa?

2- How does Ameen F. Rihani's originality as a recreator/rewriter rather than as a translator of his own poetry transcend the barriers of cultures?

3- Do some translations'or retranslations' versions have some shortcomings related to their inability to completely understand the linguistic and cultural spirits of the target language?

IV. Analysis

As a first step, the data I collected from my interviews with the translators or from the archived translations I obtained from the Rihani's museum in Lebanon, furnished the study with the necessary information for answering its research questions. I analyzed the content of the translations I had access to objectively with the concern of creating just like Rihani himself a bridge between the East and the West within the field of translation studies. It is worth introducing at this level the English, French, and Italian translators of "I am the East". Naji Ouejan, Professor of English Literature, translated the poem into English in his English version titled *Hymns of the Valleys,* of Rihani's Arabic anthology of poems titled "هتاف الاودية" that was published in 2002. Oueijan did not refer to Rihani's English version, written in 1923, as he explained to me during and interview. Two different French versions of the poem by two unknown translators will be analyzed in this paper, I will also refer to an Italian version of the same poem by Francesco Medici, who is a well-known translator and an official member of the International Association for the Study of the Life and Work of Kahlil Gibran, Italianist and Literary Critic, translated many of Gibran's works into Italian including: *Lazarus and His Beloved* (Lazzaro e il suo amore, 2001), "The Blind" (Il cieco, 2003), *The Prophet* (Il Profeta, 2005). He also translated into Italian: *The Book of Khalid* by Ameen Rihani (Il Libro di Khalid, 2014) and the poetry collection *Arab Poets of the Diaspora* (Poeti arabi della diaspora, 2015), where his translation of "I am the East" is published.

Rihani starts his poem by referring to the first characteristic of the East, which is Faith through numerous references, one of which is “cornerstone,” which comes from a passage from the Holy Bible (Psalm 118, pp.22-23). The stone, which the builders rejected, has become the chief cornerstone**,** which in Arabic is, “حجر الزاوية", transliterated as ḥajar 'al-zawija. At this level, a very important connotation is kept in English, Arabic, and Italian with “la pietra angolare,” but almost literally rendered in the French version of the unknown freelance translator as “la pierre fondamentale” instead of “pierre angulaire,” which made the word lose the spiritual connotation that Rihani intentionally used. In addition to this, there exist many terms that only describe Eastern traditions, thoughts, or customs. I will start my analysis by providing a few examples that confirm the importance of mastering soundly the object of the translation task, taking into account the concept of foreignization and domestication (Venuti, 2008).

In Arabic, Rihani says:

لذلك تراني محنيّ الظهر ولكنّني قويم الرأي ثابت الجنان transliterated as such:

(lidhalika tarãni mahniyya lẓahri walakinnani kawimurra'yi thabitu ljanan)

The translated English version reads as follows:

Though all you can see is my bent back,
I have a right mind and a brave heart.

In Italian and French the same idea is kept:

Se di me puoi vedere solo la schiena ricurva,
Miei sono il retto pensiero e il cuore saldo. (Italian)
C'est pourquoi tu me vois le dos courbé,
mais j'ai la pensée droite et le coeur solide. (French)

Whereas Rihani in his own rewritten English version of “I am the East” says:

I have been bowed down and I have been free.

Findings

The message is significant here, and Rihani, who is the master of his own piece, knows what to say and how to say it without any restriction at any level. This is a message to the Westerners informing them that the East has been free despite the wars, challenges, difficulties, poverty and all sorts of complications forced on it. It has overcome slavery and thus is liberated. In Arabic, it is the notion of a right mind and a brave heart; yet to the West, it holds a hidden message that none of the translations, though aware of it, are allowed to reveal.

In my opinion, there is no need for the translators to say it differently, since the purpose in this case is to transmit a faithful message. As Peter Newmark states, “The most important task for translators is to narrow the gap between tageteers and sourceres” (1981 p.38). Thus, Newmark’s concern is to be faithful to the message of the Source Language. At this level, we can only wonder if the translated versions are communicative or semantic, according to the Newmark theory.

A *semantic translation* stays within the Source Language culture and focuses on the translation itself as a process. The translation is not fixed and needs to be redone with every new generation as language is permanently modifying, and terms at different stages of history change as well in meaning. In short, a *semantic translation* shows “an accuracy of reproduction of the significance of the Source Language, whereas the *communicative translation* shows accuracy of communication of Source Translated message in Target Translation” (Munday, 2007, p.72). Except for a few cases, I contend that the *communicative translation* was adopted in Rihani’s translated versions.

In “**New York**”, Rihani starts his poem briefly stating all the characteristics of New York: “She is the daughter of revolt in the ancient world, the bride of oddity in the New World and the mother of disorder of both.” What a revealing image of New York! The selection of terms is quite intelligent in the rewritten Arabic version: “the bride of oddity in the New World” is rendered by عروس التفرّد في العالم القديم, transliterated as (ʿarus al-tafarrud fil ʿalam alkadim). Odd is what is out of the ordinary, and تفرّد transliterated as (tafarrud) is what is completely unique in a positive way. Negativity is more sensed in the English version to reveal a clear sarcastic tone at the beginning of the poem.

Furthermore, when studying this meaningful thought in “I am the East”—

انا جسر الشمس
من اعماق ظلمات الاكوان
الى الافلاك الدائمة الانوار

Transliterated as (Ana jisrushamsi min aʿmakithulumati l'akwãni 'ilal'aflaki lda'imatil'anwãr)—

one can clearly see the direct link between two opposites: Darkness and Light. The Easterner does not have to cross darkness to reach the light. According to his thoughts and beliefs, this crossing is somewhat bizarre, given that it could not take place without a religious dogma or philosophical principle. Thus, in its presentation, it is an archetype of Eastern thought. To observe **the English, French, and Italian translations** is telling at this stage.

I am the bridge of the Sun
Suspending from the dark depth of the galaxies
To the ever-lit orbits. **(English)**
Je suis le pont du soleil
Qui se lève chaque jour de la profondeur des ténèbres des univers
Pour atteindre les sphères éternellement lumineuses. **(French)**

Sono il ponte del sole sospeso
Tra le nere profondità delle galassie
E le orbite sempre accese. **(Italian)**
Whereas Rihani rewrote:
A million suns have stepped upon my back
Rising from their gulf up to their goal

The Italian version is inspired from the English translation, which conveyed the meaning as smoothly as possible. That's why there is little loss in the meaning. The Italian version offers more clarity than the French one, which is more literal. When Rihani rewrote this part, he added more depth to the meaning with his particular choice of words and style rather than just by sticking to a literal translation.

In addition to the previous examples, here is a cultural example taken from "I am the East": "وتزوّدني الشمس للترحال" (watuzawwiduni Ṣhamsu liltarḥal). One can wonder whether this idea sounds clear to the Western reader. In old times and during Arab voyages, travelers relied on the sun for navigation. Although this might be perceived as a universal concept, the entire idea of the term ترحال or رحل (tarḥãl or raḥala) only exists in our Eastern culture. In addition, the entire image of the sun and travel is an image that takes us back in time to the "provisions" taken by the travelers before traveling. At this level, Rihani sees that the sun is all what he needs to start his trip. This is a typical Eastern concept of the nomadic Eastern individual.

The English translation provides a clever and completely appropriate version: "The sun pushes me to wander." Here, the idea is rendered as if the sun motivates the traveler to continue his journey since no equivalent exists in the Target Language at the semantic level. Therefore, the Eastern characteristic has been lost here for the necessity of comprehension. This substitution in translation is called, according to Vinay and Darbelnet, "adaptation" (2000, pp.84-93). The translator, here, has cleverly used it in order to make the idea clear. In French we have the following: "Le soleil me fournit des provisions nécessaires pour mon voyage, quant à la merveille de la vue," a literal translation that does not make much sense to a Westerner and does not reveal the true meaning of the verse. Even though the French expression "fournir des provisions" does exist, it is not, according to my analysis, poetic at all; and in this context, it does not render the meaning properly. The Italian version, "Il sole mi sospinge a vagare tra le visioni dei miei occhi e del mio cuore: Sospingere," gives the idea of wandering which is perfectly used here. What explains the absence of the entire concept of الرحلة or الترحال (arriḥla or attaraḥul) in the occidental mentality and society is Rihani's rewriting of this poem in English, totally ignoring this concept.

Another example clearly shows the confusion that is caused by the materialistic mindset of the Westerners and the spiritual mindset of the Easterners:

انّ القافلة، قافلة نفسي، ليتّصل بالجوزاء
واخرها لست ادري اليوم أين اخرها

Transliterated as ('innalķãfila ķãfilat nafsi liiaţţasil bil jawza'
Wa'akhiruha lastu 'adri 'ayna 'ãkhiruhã)

First, let us check the different equivalent to "الجوزاء" (al-jawzã). According to the English translated version, the equivalent Orion is used**:** Orion, often referred to as "The Hunter," and is a prominent constellation located on the celestial equator and visible all throughout the world. It is one of the most conspicuous and most recognizable constellations in the night sky. Its name refers to Orion, a hunter in Greek mythology. In French, to "La constellation des Gémaux," the Gemini constellation. The names of the two brightest stars of this constellation, Castor and Pollux, can be found in the Greek mythology. In Italian Orione is taken from the English version, and Rihani himself has preferred to use the word Canopus, which is the brightest star in the southern constellation of Carina and Argo Navis, and the second brightest star in the night-time sky, after Sirius. This is a very clear example of the diversity of the cultures. Only Rihani, who is both Easterner and Westerner, dose not literally use "the Gemini constellation," like most translators have done, because Rihani chose what is commonly used and understood in the East as the Gemini constellation and in the West as Canopus. What is very interesting to mention here is that although the Gemini, Orion, and Canopus constellations, or any of these names, are related to the superior material world, by linking them to the spiritual, Rihani adds a spiritual touch to this materialistic place. In the English rewritten version, however, Rihani used "the leader of my caravan" to make it clearer to the occidental mind. In the translated version, we find the beautiful expression "my soul's pilgrimage" repeated in Italian con "il mio peregrinare infinito (..) il viaggio della mia anima" "قافلة روحي" (ķãfilat rũḥi) is then rendered beautifully in the translated English version, applying the modulation procedure in which one of its features is to translate the concrete concept, which is قافلة روحي" (ķãfilat rũḥi) with an abstract one "soul's pilgrimage". In French, however, the word "le convoi," omits spirit and thus a loss in the meaning occurs.

In "New York," I would like to mention an interesting neologism, used for the first time by Rihani. In English, the word is "New Yorkalem," which rhymes with "Jerusalem" to establish the paradox of the two cities. In Arabic it is also "نيويوركليم" (Niu iorkalim) to rhyme with "اورشليم" (Orashalūm). The intention here, whether in Arabic or in English, bears a hidden meaning when the societal values of these two cities are compared in "The old people enjoy themselves, they do not moan." Jerusalem was once considered as one of the most important cities of the ancient world, whereas

New York or New Yorkalem, as Rihani named it, is now the center of the New World—purporting and contending dissimilar standards for today's societies than the ones traditional Jerusalem once conveyed.

Rihani provided us with some historical elements in the **Arabic version** and the way he describes them. For instance,

قد يكون واقفا مستكشفا في ابواب ليفربول
او نائما تحت عرائش الياسمين في سمرقند
او جادا على ضفاف النيل
او ضائعا في السكة البيضاء في نيويورك

Transliterated as:

(ķad iakunu waķifan mustakshifan fī 'abwāb līverpũl
Aw na'iman taḥta ʿara'ishil iãsamīn fi samarķand
Aw jadan ʿala ḍifafi lnil
Aw ḍã'iʿan fil sikati lbaiḍã' fi niu iork)

Before I analyze the translations, I would like to highlight the fact that by linking all these places to the Canopus, the author makes each of these places mentioned independent from the other. What is intended here is that people of the East could reach the unreachable and the materialistic location for them is terrestrial and superior. In Arabic, we see مستكشفا في أبواب ليفربول (mustakshifan fi abwãb līverpul) is equal to curiosity of the East to discover Liverpool, the fourth largest city in England and the third largest of the United Kingdom.

نائما تحت عرائش الياسمين في سمرقندسمرقند (na'iman taḥta ʿara'ish liãsamīn fi samarķand) is an Eastern city in Uzbekistan, lying on the main route to China. Here we see that the poet points out the idea that everything that brings peace and stability is from the East, and the feeling of instability comes from the West.

Here is the English translation:

It may rest with inquisition at the doors of Liverpool
Or it may rest under the jasmine in Samarkand
Or labor at the banks of the Nile River,
Or lost in the white railway in New York;

This describes the psychological state of Rihani: Instability, contradictions, peace, and loss…

Whereas Rihani in his rewritten text says:

He may be packing yet in Samarkand
Or in Benares or Peking;
He may be yawning in the shadow of the Kaaba
Or trudging through the Valley of the Nile;
He may be passing through the gates of Liverpool
Or lagging on the White Way of New York.

This clearly shows that Rihani adds different renowned locations from the East such as Al Kaaba, which has a crucial religious value to the Muslim pilgrims, and also from the West such as Peking, which is a metropolis in Northern China and the capital of the People's Republic of China. Beijing is one of the Four Great Ancient Capitals of China, and Benares, is regarded as a holy city by Buddhists and Jains, and is the holiest place in the world in Hinduism (and center of the Earth in Hindu cosmology). It is one of the oldest continuously inhabited cities in the world and probably the oldest in India. He does so intentionally to introduce the East to the West, thus creating a link between these different cultures by bringing them closer to each other. What is applied here is what Ameen Albert Rihani (2007) states that the creative language of where Arabic and English 'can almost touch,' where East and West can almost sit down and listen to each other and enter into a sincere dialogue of mutual interest, reciprocal attention and common human concern are revealed.

In the French version, we have the following:

Il se peut qu'il découvre aux portes de Liverpool,
Ou bien qu'il dorme sous les plantes de Jasmin à Samarkand,
Ou bien qu'il se tienne, le ton sérieux, aux bords du Nil
Ou qu'il soit perdu sur le chemin blanc à New York.

In the Italian version, we read:

Posso varcare le porte di Liverpool,
riposare sotto il gelsomino a Samarcanda,
arrancare sulle rive del Nilo,
attardarmi sulla White Way a New York

"Varcare" means oversteps or exceeds the limits and "arrancare" to struggle along. This Italian version perfectly renders the intended meaning of the Arabic one and explains Rihani's state of mind. In addition to that, in the middle of the poem Rihani uses the word "صوت" seven times in Arabic. Let us check all the translations especially the equivalent of the term "voice" and the adjectives attributed to it in order to check the interference of the languages. The repetition of the word "voice" in English, French, Italian and Arabic has a strong impact. In the English translation: "I am a voice that rises in retreats, a voice that echoes in the desert, a voice which whispers in your ears, a voice, which waves with peace, a voice which eagerly seeks Mecca and Medina, a voice, which tolls loud on the new podiums, a voice, which sings of ‘Nirvana’ to gods of gold, a voice which praises “Karma” and predestination, a voice, which cheers in the clubs of your country, you son of the West,” and in **Arabic**:

صَوتٌ يَضُجُّ فِي الخَلَوات وَيَتَراجَعُ فِي الأماكِنِ المُقَدَّسَة، صَوتٌ يَحْدُو فِي الصَحْراء ، وَصَوْتٌ يَهْمِسُ فِي أُذُنِ أَدَواتِكَ رَغْبَةً جَدِيْدَة، صَوْتٌ يَتَماوَجُ وَصَوْتٌ يَجِنُّ شَوْقاً فِي ظِلالِ الحَرَمَين ،كما يَئِنُّ وَيَطِنُّ فِي المَنابِرِ الجَديدَة، مَنابِرِ الوَطَن، صَوْتٌ يَنْشُدُ "نِرْفانا" لآلِهَةٍ سَلاماً عَلى وَجْهِ المِياه في الأَنْهُرِ المُقَدّسَة مِنْ ذَهَب، وَيَتَغَنّى بِ "كَرْما وَبِالقَضاءِ وَالقَدَر فِي أَكْواخِ البؤسِ والشَّقاء،وَصَوْتٌ يَهْتِفُ اسْتِحْساناً فِي مَلاهِي بِلادِكَ يا فَتى الغَرْب.

Transliterated as such:

(Sawtun yaḍujju fil khuluwãt waiataraja῾u fil'amãkin lmuķaddasa, sawtun yaḥdu fi ṢṢaḥra', wasawtun yahmusu fi 'udhuni 'adhwatika raghbatan jadida, sawtun iatamãwaju salãman ῾ala wajhi lmiiãh fil 'anhuri lmuķaddasa wa sawtun iajunnu shawķan fi ẓilãlil ḥaramain, kama ia'innu waiaṭunnu fil manãbiril jadida, manãbiril waṭan, sawtun ianshudu nirvãna li'ãlihatin min dhahab, waiataghanna bikarma wa bilķadã'i wal ķdar fi 'akwãkhi l bu'si wal shaqã', wa sawtun yahtifu istiḥsãnan fi malãhi bilãdika ya fata l gharb.)

In Italian the text reads as follows:

Sono una voce che si leva in ogni eremoe indugia nelle città sante, una voce che risuona nel deserto , sono una voce che bisbiglia alle tue orecchie un desiderio nuovo, sono una voce che fluttua in pace sulle acque dei fiumi sacri, una voce trepidante che cerca la Mecca e Medina, sono una voce che riecheggia forte da ogni nuovo podio, sono una voce che canta il *nirvana* a divinità ricoperte d’oro, e predica il *karma* e la predestinazione. Figlio dell’Occidente, Io sono una voce che applaude nei club del tuo Paese.

In French, it reads:

Une voix qui brise le silence des replis, et se retire des lieux sacrés, une voix qui crie dans le désert, une voix qui chuchote à l’oreille des vos instruments à travers un désir nouveau, une voix qui ondule à la surface des rivières eaux saintes, une une voix qui désire ardemment à l’ombre des (deux) Mosquées sacrées de la Mecque et de Médine, elle gémit et résonne sur les nouvelles tribunes, celles de la patrie, une voix qui adjure *Nirvana* au nom de Dieux en or et chante *Karma* et le destin au fond des huttes de la misère et du malheur, une voix qui crie approbation dans les lieux de distraction, là-bas, chez vous, fils de l’Occident.

The word “voice” is used several times in Arabic to describe the voice of East in the holy places, the voice that badly misses Mecca and Medina, in an attempt to introduce these Eastern places to the West; the voice that praises Karma refers to a fundamental doctrine in Buddhism and the voice that sings Nirvana, refers to the state of enlightenment achieved by the Buddhists.

Rihani’s text is filled with Eastern concepts and ideologies that he introduces to the West. This same voice cheering in the clubs of the West is an attempt to describe the type of life in the Western countries. For the Arab people, it is enough to mention “الحرمين” (al-ḥaramain) to know that he is talking about “Mecca and Al-Medina,” but for Westerners, it is necessary to mention the names and to explain them; and here is the adaptation process. Even in Rihani’s own version, he used Mecca and Medina, explaining that these are two religious cities in Saudi Arabia. He also explains the meaning of the two words “Karma” and “Nirvana.” It is important to note an untranslatable item at this level. In Arabic, Rihani uses the word “يحدو في الصحراء” (yaḥdu fi ṢṢaḥra'). This concept is an Eastern one. It is the image of the Arab, the sound emitted during his long trip… The beautiful clever English and Italian correspondent, “I am a voice that echoes in the desert,” “il mio voce che risuona nel deserto.” According to the French translated version, it is a voice that shouts in the desert. In addition to that, all the translations end the text as Rihani does in Arabic with the idea of the voice that cheers in the clubs of the West. I think, Rihani wanted it to be more meaningful, so he added the following typical Western concept in his recreation of the poem:

A voice that hails in music halls your latest star,
Or argues in your cafes and your clubs,
Over a glass of absinthe or gin-phiz,
About the League of Nations or about
The theory of relativity.
A voice of strange discordances and stranger harmonies:
A voice that echoes in the temples as my many headed Truth,
As well as in the palaces of learning in your land:
A voice that feeds the tumult of my pious moods, the din of my devotion,
And fills with loving silence all the solitary spaces of my shrine-decked hills;
A voice that whispers in the ear of your machines
The new desire, the will to understand
The reason and the purpose of their power;
A voice that cries upon the languid waves of sacred rivers
And from the holy *Kaaba* over the bone-strewn hills of sacrifice,
As well as from the public tribunes newly-nailed;
A voice that sighs Nirvana
To grotesque idols with big turquoise eyes,
And Karma in the fetid holes of misery and crime;
A voice that hails in music halls your latest star,

Or <u>argues</u> in your cafes and your clubs,
Over a glass of absinthe or gin-phiz,
About the League of Nations or about
The theory of relativity.

And who other than Rihani knows more about these particularities of the West? He renders the image of the typical daily behavior of Westerners, who spend time entertaining themselves through singing, dancing, drinking, and even chatting about certain activities such as sports. Moreover, an important aspect to mention is that after Rihani had written “I am the East,” which was published in *Al-Ahram* Newspaper in its entirety in 1922, he removed parts of it and did not publish them later. What is interesting to note here is the shocking way he decided to end the poem **in Arabic**, especially his last version:

أَنَا الشَّرْقُ
عِنْدِي فَلْسَفاتٌ وَعِنْدِي دِيانات
فَمَنْ يَبِيْعُنِي بِها طَيّارات.

Transliterated as:

(ana ṢṢharqu
ʿindī falsafãtun wa ʿindi diiãnã
faman yabīʿuni bihã ṭaii ãr ãt)

I am the East:
Philosophies and creeds, my hankers cry,
Philosophies and creeds for airplanes!

His rewritten version in English continues while his Arabic one ends at this point. It is as if, after having long spoken about the spirituality of the East, he wanted to establish a sort of equilibrium between the Spirituality of the East and the materialism of the West to expose what he calls, “The Great City,” which would take spirituality from the East and materialism from the West.

The 1st **French version** reads:

C’est moi l’Orient,
J’ai des philosophies et des religions.
Qui les échange pour des avions?

The 2nd French version reads:

Je suis l'Orient, j'ai des philosophies et j'ai des religions,
qui les échangerait contre des avions?

The Italian one goes as follows:

Io sono l’Oriente.
Offro filosofie e religioni
in cambio di aeroplani e tecnologia.

Discussion

At this stage, it is not wrong to assume that Rihani has delivered his message entirely. According to Ameen Albert Rihani, Rihani’s (2007) "universal spirit is the one that emerges from the “Asiatic spirit of Poesy and Prophecy, and the European spirit of Art, and the American spirit of invention, an international society,” an ideal of an international society or the “Great City.” (p. 14). Neither New York nor the East, are capable with His unique spirituality and peace to be exchanged with aircrafts; they are enough for our poet, who aims far beyond East and West, to achieve his eternal “Great City.”

The above-cited examples highlight the philosophical thought of Rihani and strive to interpret his own ideas in the target languages in accordance to them. The translator ought to have viewed the text as being a religious, sacred one, not simply as poetry or other literary genre. Back to our initial claim, Rihani didn't translate the text into English. However, he recreated in accordance with his cultural backgroung and this is the added value and biggest challenge of literary translated texts. As stated in the work of Deane Cox, quoting from Venuti, "to retranslate is to confront anew and more urgently the translator's ethical responsibility to prevent the translating language and culture from effacing the foreigness of the foreign text (2014, p. 14).

The different translations per language of Rihani's work and retranslations sometimes within the same language prove the need of an internalinalization of the message. This goes beyond linguistic, cultural and stylistic studies or analyses.

Concluding remarks

The comparative analysis of Rihani’s rewritten poems in English and the translations made by other translators of the same poems proves that the author-translator’s choice of terms along with their cultural backgrounds, deep meanings and etymologies reveal his deep understanding of the source and target cultures, the Eastern and the Western ones.

V. Conclusion

The above discussion of the various translations and especially Rihani’s, proves if anything that he was not simply a translator but rather a recreator whose original choice of terms, expressions and ideas, and lucidity in accurately integrating and segregating the East from the West on all sides and fronts places him above the translators of his works. His basic purpose was to provide his Eastern and Western readers with the opportunity to grasp and enjoy his poems that transcend all societal, cultural, and linguistic boundaries to reach an advanced level of what Naji Oueijan, who like Rihani, experienced both the Eastern and Western culture at first hand, called "Transculturalization," "a process engendering a genuine communication and interaction between two different cultures for the main purpose of enriching both without touching the particularities of any"; Oueijan goes on "When full participation, love, understanding, and objectivity are involved in a translation transaction, translated literary works would not only aid in the transculturalization process but also in the cultivation and enrichment of the target cultures" (2005, pp.90-94). Ameen F. Rihani had the privilege of full participation in both cultures, and as the author of his works, he indeed loved and comprehended his art more than any other translator did. More research is needed to shed light on similar cases in the literary field.

APPENDIX

Here is the original English version rerewritten by Ameen F. Rihani himself:

I Am the East

Ever since I stood a corner stone
Of God's first temple and of Man's first throne;
I have been bowed down and I have been free.
A million suns have stepped upon my back,
Rising from their gulf up to their goal;
But they have paid their fare, and I'm content.
Indeed, my pockets and my hands are full,
Full of the shining gold the sunrise coins
For traveling nations, traveling visions, too.
And I am traveling still;
The leader of my caravan
Is tethered to Canopus, and the last,
I cannot see the last.
He may be packing yet in Samarkand
Or in Benares or Peking;
He may be yawning in the shadow of the Kaaba
Or trudging through the Valley of the Nile;
He may be passing through the gates of Liverpool
Or lagging on the White Way of New York.
But I'm content; for I can see the first
And hear the tinkle of his bell at eve.
Aye, and his messenger at every dawn
Sings out that all is well,
While he unfolds a new white robe
Made for myself
By him who is Tailor to His Majesty the Day.
***
I am the East:
Wait for me, my Brave Lad, I come.
Be patient or, at least, be calm.
I'm heavy-laden though you cannot see it
With eyes whose habit is to measure cloth
Or estimate *alfala* fields.
The pack upon my back, were't visible, would stun your sight.
But in my lap and hands and pockets, too,
Are many other things
From the fields and streams and from the mires of life;
Things that would cast away,
If I could do so without losing faith;
Things that I would hide,
If I could do so without losing shame;
Things that to repair-shops I would send,
If modern artisans had eyes, at least,
To compensate for conscience.
But there are things, O Brother of the West, to yield you perfect joy,

And things to soothe your aching breast,
And things to smite your soul in loving kindness,
And things to fetter both your hands and feet,
Leaving your heart and mind free to perceive
And contemplate the universe.
***
I am the East:
The ancient night is still my faithful spouse,
And she will be, methinks, unto the end.
But every day a bright-faced virgin comes
Riding upon the golden steed of dawn
To test my sight and strength.
I rise and lo! My limbs rejoice.
I'm young again!
The virgin splendors of the sunrise flow into my inmost soul
And, like the crystal waters of a mountain stream,
Reveal the ever green though bending ferns
Clinging to steadfast rocks,
Which break the ancient calm
And precipitate to silvery cadences of song
The heavy sluggish rhythms of the hymn of resignation.
***
I am the East:
A phantom, O my Brave Lad of the West,
In the Material pageantry of Time.
But hear you not the phantom's voice?
A voice of strange discordances and stranger harmonies:
A voice that echoes in the temples as my many headed Truth,
As well as in the palaces of learning in your land:
A voice that feeds the tumult of my pious moods, the din of my devotion,
And fills with loving silence all the solitary spaces of my shrine-decked hills;
A voice that whispers in the ear of your machines
The new desire, the will to understand
The reason and the purpose of their power;
A voice that cries upon the languid waves of sacred rivers
And from the holy *Kaaba* over the bone-strewn hills of sacrifice,
As well as from the public tribunes newly-nailed;
A voice that sighs Nirvana
To grotesque idols with big turquoise eyes,
And Karma in the fetid holes of misery and crime;
A voice that hails in music halls your latest star,
Or argues in your cafes and your clubs,
Over a glass of absinthe or gin-phiz,
About the League of Nations or about
The theory of relativity.
***
I am the East:
I go out of the world into myself,
And lo!
An olive-eyed Divinity is born,
A red-eyed Madness also comes to life.
They dance together in the Banyan groves of All-or-none,
And round the flaming altars of my dream,
Missing in ecstasy to penetrate,
With *wha umm, wha umm wha-a-a!*
The realms ineffable of liberation.
And then, into public square to shout
Against the foreign Devil,
Whether he be carrying a Bible or a gun
Or even a pack of merchandise.

Labbeik, labbeik!
And don't forget the European Devil
Throw him into the sea,
Or plant a bomb around his club,
Or bribe his native cook.
Wha umm, wha umm wha-a-a!
Labbeik, labbeik!
And they vanish clean,
My red-eyed Madness and my green-eyed God.
Into the desert's undiscovered heart,
Chanting the hymn of mental quietude and resignation,
Whose cadences,
Though they embrace and thrill the golden wrists that glisten in the sun,
And hide among the alum leaves,
And sparkle silver coquetry from the Pleiades,
Fall flat upon my ears in this our age,
Especially when I chance to read
In your own journals, O my Babbling Brother,
The news of how your airplanes
Can bomb and fast destroy your mighty navies.
***
I am the East:
Philosophies and creeds, my hankers cry,
Philosophies and creeds for airplanes!
Unutterably blasphemous?
But I myself cannot now recognize
The voice which is my own;
The voice that thunders in the public squares
And out of sanctums editorial,
I, too, now have a babbling press
As well as in the tribunes on which frown
The green and yellow eyes of my many-headed gods.
But hearken, O my Strong Lad of the West!
Philosophies and creeds are not what you have them be.
Nor are they what you think in my own eyes:
Neither for farming nor for piety intensified,
Neither for making bath tubs for the world
Or weaving sack-cloth for the world are they:
No, no!
Philosophies and creeds are but the eels
Down in the well of life:
Their business is to keep the water pure,
Or free it, at least, of wiggling squirming things.
***
I am the East:
In me a thousand colors and fuse
And laminate one through the other neath the brush of Time:
The lucent violet of star-nursed visions;
The sable of lost continents of thought;
The bronze-like native buff of ancient madness;
The opaque purple of stupidity upon the throne;
The dazzling black of wills that run a-muck
Unfettered by allegiance, human or divine;
The scarlet of The Orient for the Orientals:
The drab of Young Democracy with a ferule in her hand;
The iridescences of fancy glazed or grained;
The leprous yellow of aged ecstasy;
And, permeating all with variable sheen,
The rich vermillion that flows from passion's urn
And undulates in enigmatic hues;

Morosities of mum anemones and melting moons;
Around the couch of lust
And over the obscenities barbaric and refined,
That take their gesture from the simian world
And borrow from the dervish or high-priest
The consecrated mantle of devotion.
Yea, the quintessence of all the cycles past
In which the universe was ill distilled,
As well as of the present,
Is in the cup I drink each day, each night,
The cup that brings the vision, although shattered, to my task
And to my sorrows and my joys.
***
I am the East:
In me a thousand voices speak:
They whisper, murmur, sob,
They hiss and cry,
They sing and chant and wail,
They shout aloud in my own heart,
A rhapsody, a psalmody of silence;
A thousand gods!
Unheard, unseen by you, my One-God, Brother of the West.
Gods of the ancient ever fertile night, they are my gods.
Gods of the virgin henna-fingered dawn, they are my gods.
Gods of the glaring vacancies of noon, they are my gods.
Gods of the lagging lotus-laden afternoon, they are my gods.
Gods of the amber-scented mystic twilight, they are my gods.
Gods of the incense-veiled and turbaned dusk, they are my gods.
Gods of the star-crowned silences of eve, they are my gods.
Gods of the musk-filled navel of the midnight, they are my gods.
Gods with fangs and gods with wings,
Gods with thorns upon their brows and gods with eyes of briar and thorn,
Gods that sing of Blood and fire and gods that speak but one word, Peace,
They are all my gods.
I am their temple, sacred and filed,
Their high-priest and their slave.
But I am also free, my One-God Worshipping Brother of the West,
And in my freedom is a little key,
Which I can use at will
To open and to close the door.

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The Perceptions about Computer Assisted Language Learning for L2 Vocabulary Acquisition

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***Abstract*—Being the digital natives, instructors and learners of this cutting edge era largely depend on technology to intensify their learning and teaching process inside and outside the classroom. Many devices are found to make language teaching more effecting and alluring for the learners. Arguably, both parties' teachers and students are receiving some benefits after including this addition of modern science in their learning and teaching process. This study focuses on how CALL aids learning and teaching to this integral component of the language. It is found that certain software which were installed in the computer offer learners help immensely to internalize ESL vocabulary. Indeed, accesses of visual imagery on computer screen aids learners make concrete images of uncommon vocabulary which support very effectively L2 vocabulary acquisition. Most notably the study has found that CALL eases learning points for the special children besides it helps learners retain the vocabulary which they learn. With the availability, teachers can present lesson in realistic fashion which guide learners internalize the L2 vocabulary. Teachers are found ambivalent about including CALL tools in their daily taught lessons as technology always carries some fringe crisis though none expressed any negative feelings about the worth of CALL in case of vocabulary acquisition.**

***Index Terms*—digital natives, CALL, ESL, vocabulary acquisition, special children**

I. Introduction

Acquiring vocabulary is the striking step for any language learners and the importance of the same component is unavoidable in learning any second language (Laufer, 1986; Llach & Gómez, 2007; Nation, 1990; Tavìl & Ìşìsağ, 2009). It's unarguably true that inter language development commences with this unit of language as it supports the all the skills to be comprehended. (Smidt & Hegelheimer, 2004 & (Cobb, 2007; Kern, 1989). Second language learning is always in especial demand in this recent multicultural world and vocabulary knowledge is indispensable to comprehend any language since words transfer meaning in most of the communicating events. According to Seal (1991), word knowledge is key part of communicative competence, and it is essential for both production and comprehension in a foreign language. According to O'Rourke (1974), it affects students' thoughts, actions, aspirations, and success, especially in academic achievement. Studies noted that without an adequate knowledge of relevant vocabulary, students have difficulty performing the tasks required of them both in school and on the job (Harley, 1996; Kolich, 1985). Harley's study revealed a close connection between reading comprehension and vocabulary knowledge.

Unfortunately learning sufficient number of vocabulary is initially almost impossible for ESL learners (Meara, 1982). In Wallace's (1982) words the most frustrating experience in communicating L2 is the inability to use the words that we need to exchange our views. ESL learners feel vocabulary as a barrier in learning L2 as a result they feel like employing different strategies to acquire ESL words (Chamot, 1987 in Jia Li).

The most traditional approach they demonstrate is taking notes, memorization and repetition of the unfamiliar words (Ahmed, 1989; Cohen & Aphek, 1981; Gu & Johnson, 1996; Lawson & Hogben, 1996; O'Malley, Chamot, Stewner-Manzares, Kupper, & Russo, 1985). This is the most basic approach of learning L2 vocabulary and most applied approach by the L2 learners around the globe. Even, the studies of Nation (1982) and O'Malley and Chamot (1990) suggest such strategy can be found effective for the beginner level of L2 learners. As the learners improve their level, they shift from memorization to meaning based processing of learning. (Schmitt's (1997). Meaning based learning of L2 vocabulary is seen to be more effective that of the basic rote learning. (Bialystok, 1979; O'Malley et al., 1985). This suggests that the transition to greater "depth of processing"—"greater degrees of semantic involvement" (Craik & Tulving, 1975, p. 267) promotes long-term retention (Craik & Lockhart, 1972). The peak level of learning occurs when learners consciously show their commitment to their learning, actively formulate their vocabulary learning, independently select and fix their learning style. (Ahmed, 1989).

It is found that technology aids language learning and teaching immensely, to focus writing, Raquel (2006) said it may provide a significant support writing instruction for teachers and students. Due to the availability of authentic texts and lessons on the World Wide Web, second language learners of this era have incomparable access to develop reading skills and strategies (Brandi and Klaus, 2002; Kern, Ware and Warschauer, 2004). Very little attention is given in order to track out the effectiveness of including technology for teaching and learning ESL vocabulary. Since the inquisitive learners remain busy finding the easier useful approach of learning L2 language and have a knack for technology, it is important to unveil their opinions about using technology in learning process.

Therefore, this study is conducted to unveil the perceptions of teachers and students hold regarding the effect of using CALL tools to acquire L2 language vocabulary.

II. Method

The research instrument, survey questionnaire, was used to collect data from 30 school students from grade 5 and 6 who were taught ESL vocabulary using CALL system. The questionnaire comprises 20 close ended questions. The students were explained all the questions before they completed the survey. Besides collecting data from the learners, four teachers who use CALL tools to teach L2 vocabulary were interviewed to track out their perceptions about the impact of CALL. The teachers were interviewed with 10 open ended questions and we took written notes of their opinions. Excel Sheet is used to formulate the data collected from the students on the graphs and figures. The institution, Prime Bank English Medium School, follows Cambridge Excel curriculum.

III. Results and Analysis

Few dimensions are considered to show the results which directly alter the findings of the study. The figures based on students' survey are in Appendix-01 and the opinions teachers put regarding CALL in the classroom in order to help acquiring L2 vocabulary are shown on chart in Appendix-02.

The form of computer learners is available with the learners.

It is seen that 53% and 40% school students use Laptop computer and Tab respectively. The most antic form of computer desktop is used by only 7 percent students. These figures on different proportions entail the technological improvement and socio-cultural context. This pie chart states that they are very much familiar and connected with all types of devices. Since it is very important for the students to be familiar with the CALL tools which are to be used in the classroom, it is found the total figure of students use either of the tools.

Preferred way of learning L2 vocabulary

Surprisingly 100 % students have favor for picture showing via projector is really effective with picture-based vocabulary learning, Guessing from electric word chart, Trace effect or Others teaching methods are not followed at all.

Which particular CALL tool did you find helpful for long term retaining of your vocabulary?

Learners prefer Multimedia and Online dictionary mostly in their CALL-based class to acquire L2 vocabulary. 47% students cast their opinion for Multimedia while 43% prefer Online dictionary and only 10 percent of the students have preference for other sources.

The form of video annotation that helps most in acquiring L2 vocabulary

In this dimension it is found that 53% students think that watching animation helps them most in acquiring vocabulary. Beside of this, 40% students support on watching short video cliffs where only 7% students think that watching movies also helpful for them in acquiring vocabulary.

Recording Vocabulary by using English Soundtrack from Movies.

Overall, 80% of the students sometimes record their vocabulary from English soundtrack movies and note them in their book. On the other hand, 20% students seldom encounter with this process which means they rarely go through it.

Visuals help to L2 Vocabulary acquisition

The figure for ALWAYS is higher than all other frequencies which is 43 percent which is almost half of the total. The proportion for OFTEN and SOMETIMES doesn't carry much difference though the former one is ahead by 3 percent. None of the students contravene the benefits of visual aids in L2 vocabulary acquisition.

Difficulties in using CALL tools

In case of facing difficulties of using CALL tools, 47 percent students believe they seldom encounter with difficulties and 43 percent sometimes go through some difficulties. Only 10 percent students often find it tough to use and there is found none of the students who finds CALL tool always complex to use. Surprisingly, none of the students can dare to utter they never encounter with any CALL tool.

Rate of using CALL tools outside the class

Overall, the 60 percent for the students who use often computer outside is higher than them who use always, sometimes etc. The percentage 23 who always spend time with computer outside the class is quite low as compared to the who often operate. The figure for the sometime users is lower than the former duo. Needless to say, no figure is found for the students who never or seldom use computer outside the classroom.

CALL tools motivate learners for L2 acquisition

To begin with, it can be stated clearly that 83% students often believe CALL tools and sources add help to keep them motivated immensely to learn L2 vocabulary. As CALL tools make ways of accessing the authentic materials like different visuals and images, students feel livelier and more engaged with any activity. The other 17 percent immerses for who sometimes think it motivates them acquiring L2 vocabulary by using CALL. However, no figure is found for the always, seldom and never.

Teachers' feelings about CALL

As teachers were one of the primary subjects of the study, four teachers who use CALL in teaching vocabulary as a medium of instructions were interviewed to find information on different applications of CALL. The teachers placed their distinctive opinions about the application of CAL tools in teaching L2 vocabulary. For most of them, the efficacy of the application of CALL was a central point. The interviewed teachers differed in their views as to the efficiency of CALL. The teachers were all familiar with CALL tools and found the usage of online dictionaries, OHP and many other applications very effective to acquire vocabulary knowledge. One teacher, by the name of Mohosiana believes that watching movies is helpful in increasing vocabulary knowledge. Teacher Ferdous mentioned CALL tools mostly help learners to be engaged in classroom activities and it doesn't consume much time to visualize the lesson. On the other hand, Ms. Zinnat and Mr. Bikram prefer game based vocabulary tasks like puzzles and spelling bee which are played with some software. Even, they feel, these activities can be used for students' assessments. They have expressed that CALL tools make teaching and learning process easy and enjoyable. However, teachers also have mentioned some threats which can't be ignored. Disadvantages include the less supply of electricity, no proper training of teachers in the field of CALL, and lack of proper practice in institutions.

A. Findings and Discussion

The findings of the current study have revealed the true nature of the research. For proper comprehension and efficacy, only the major results have been discussed below. The subjects have mostly agreed on how the uses of technology and visual aid have helped them acquire new words and vocabulary.

It has been indicated that the learners of the study had positive attitude towards the use of CALL. Majority of the students are very well acquainted with laptops, tabs, smart phones and the like.

a. Not surprisingly, the laptop is the clear winner when learners have to use it for their personal needs. This is mainly due to the laptop's easy portability. Even this form of computer seems affordable for the students.

b. Being digital natives, learners are well informed about the CALL tools. As a result a major shift has been observed away from paper based texts to digital texts online. For instance, 80% of the students are at ease using an online dictionary. This is due to its easy accessibility and speed.

c. It is a true fact that learning takes place more successfully if it is vi sual. As the data shows, all the learners prefer to learn vocabulary through visual aid. The same is true for animation. It probably captivates their learning style and is proven people learn better when they see it. As per the difference of the learners, some studies have shown 'low verbal-ability learners do not learn vocabulary words better if they have to process both verbal and visual information' (Pluss, Chun, Mayer and Laufer, 1996, 2003) because of their weak learning acquisition.

d. An impressive number of the students take the time to record English vocabulary from English movies and soundtracks. The English Medium students mostly watch English Movies and serials those influence them immensely to learn new words. Naturally they build up high level of fluency in terms of learning L2 vocabulary.

The teachers believe CALL is quite effective in teaching L2 vocabulary. They explain CALL adds help to visualize and materialize, so assigning very authentic activities to the students in the classroom is easy via CALL. The teachers are highly in favor of CALL though in some extent they differ from each other. It is found that CALL tools offer different helps to the teachers in teaching L2 vocabulary. Most of them agree on point that it increases their class time and they can demonstrate the replica of authentic setting. Moreover, there is a variety of CALL tools that students and teachers have options to choose the suitable and favorable tools for themselves regarding on their requirements. It's easy to visualize teaching lesson using many CALL tools. However, in fewer teachers' opinions about the applications and usefulness of CALL tools contradict each other.

Finally, it can be said that in this web-based world CALL is a great implement to obtain the knowledge more effectively and conveniently. In the age of technology, it's pretty hard to avoid the control of many CALL tools in our daily life. So, it is very important to both teachers and students to use such synchronous gloss actively and receive its essence accurately.

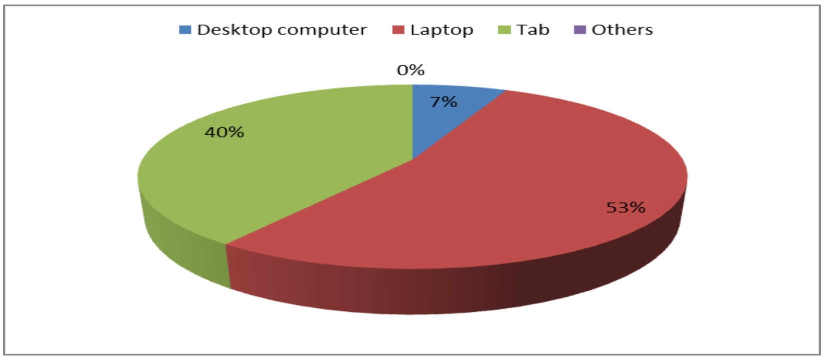
B. Conclusions and Recommendations

Since each research broadens the realm of ideology, it can be said that this research on CALL based vocabulary acquisition too would open a new door of effective learning and teaching process. Undoubtedly computer assisted learning plays a significant role in education, so it is very important to inaugurate CALL into the classroom. The outcome of the research shows a constructive and successful indication that CALLS aids learners L2 vocabulary acquisition. It is found that technology is favorable, supportive and convenient when it is managed accurately. If the implements are managed systematically and the class is conducted with proper instructions then it is obviously possible to prove its achievements.

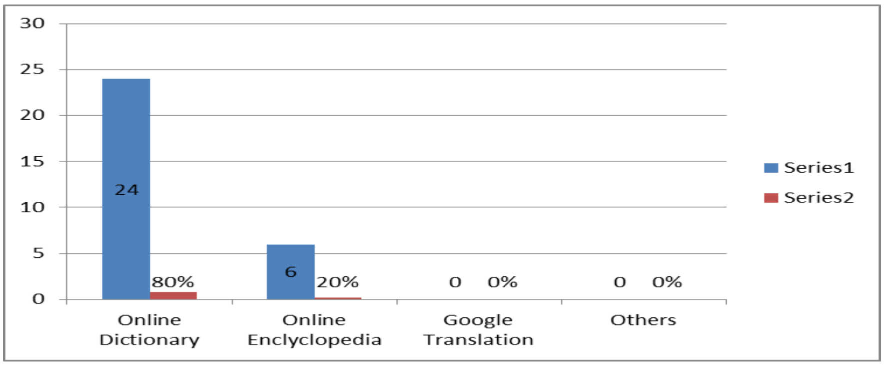
Both teachers and students are eager to work with CALL for its convenient enrollment. However, accomplishing it significantly its difficulties can be sorted out which may create negative impact even shatter the aim. Well-equipped computer facilities, usage of appropriate and engrossing tools for the students, adequate concern on low level students, electricity availability, well-proportioned internet accession, well-trained teachers and systematized curricula are the fundamental issues to make CALL available to help learning process of the learners. Moreover, vocabulary learning is not so easy task for the L2 learners; they are bound to learn a great number of vocabularies to improve their target language. And it is very obvious to forget maximum vocabulary after certain period as they are not using it affectively. In this case, CALL can provide an image, visual or audio or both with a detail usage of the word in a short time which helps the learners not only acquire new vocabulary but also to retain it for long term memory.

APPENDIX A

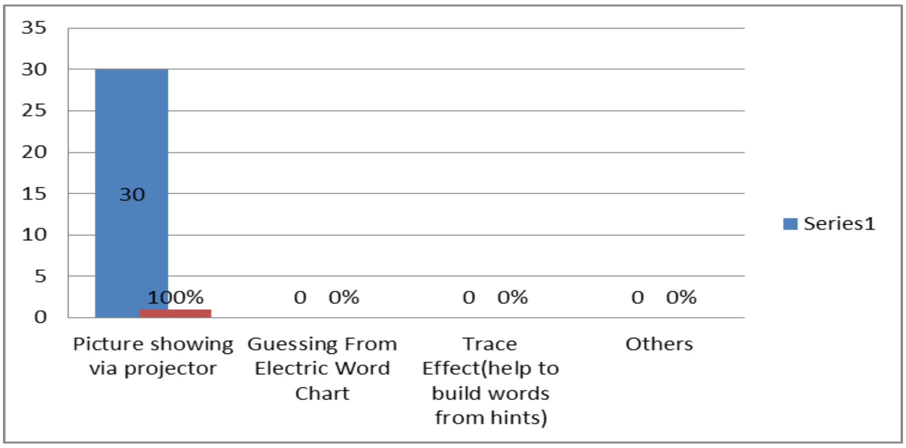
1. Which form of computer do you use for your study?



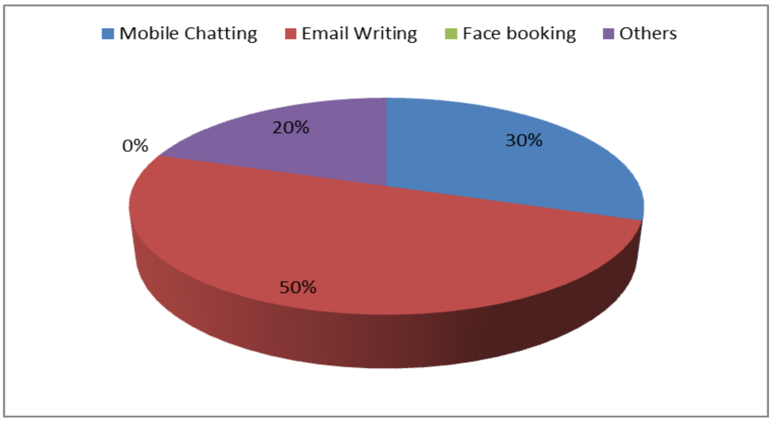
2. Which source do you prefer to know about a new word?



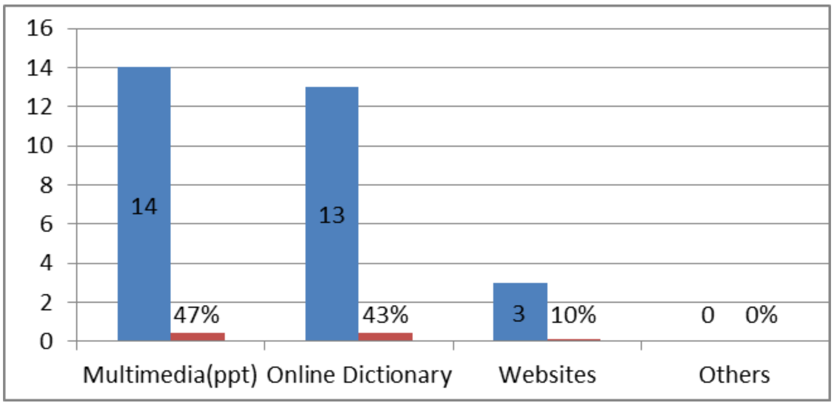
3. What kind of materials do your teachers use to teach L2 vocabulary through CALL?



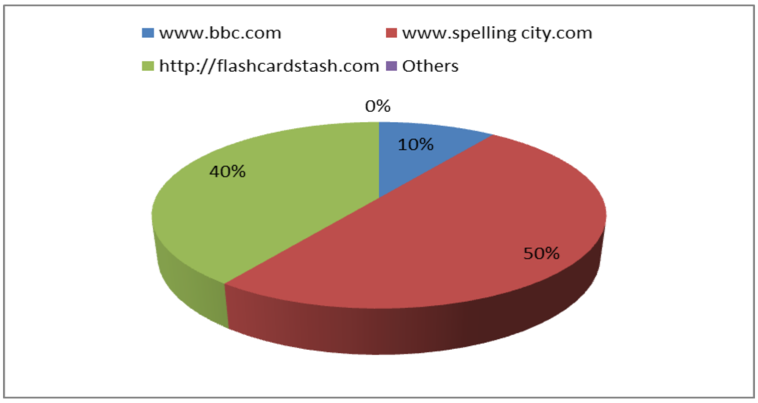
4. Which source do you use to apply new learned L2 vocabulary?



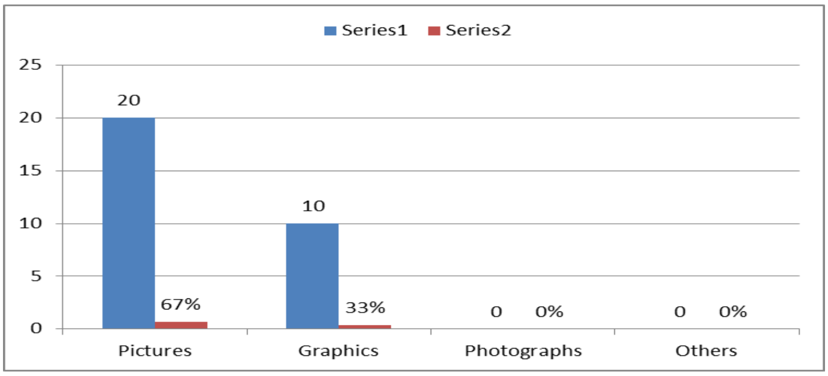
5. Which particular CALL tool did you find helpful for long term retaining of your vocabulary?



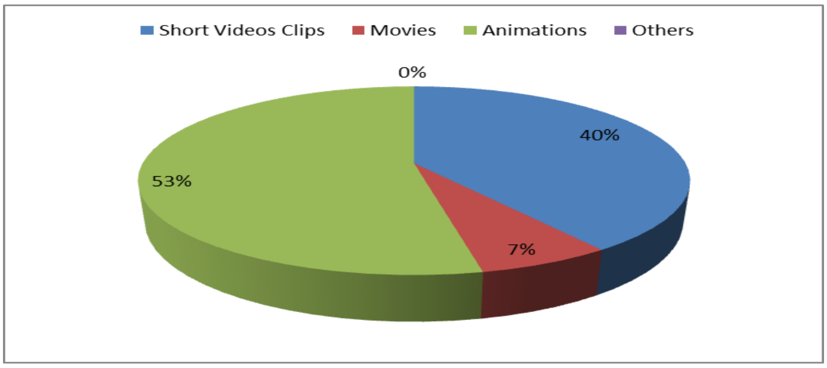
6. Which l2 vocabulary learning website do you use outside the classroom?



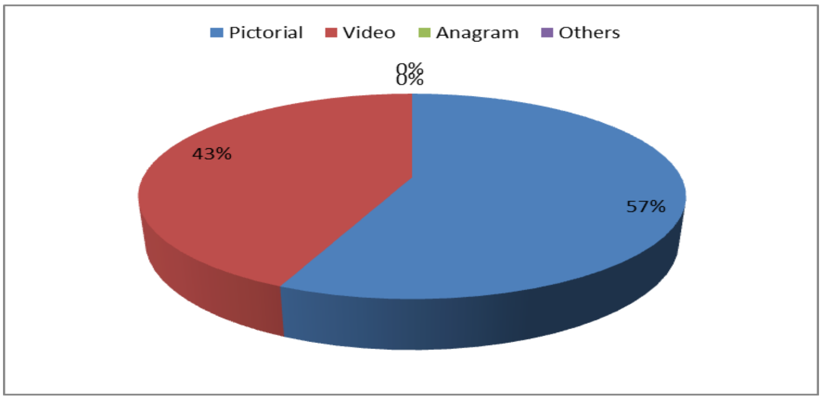
7. Which form of pictorial annotation helps you most in acquiring vocabulary?



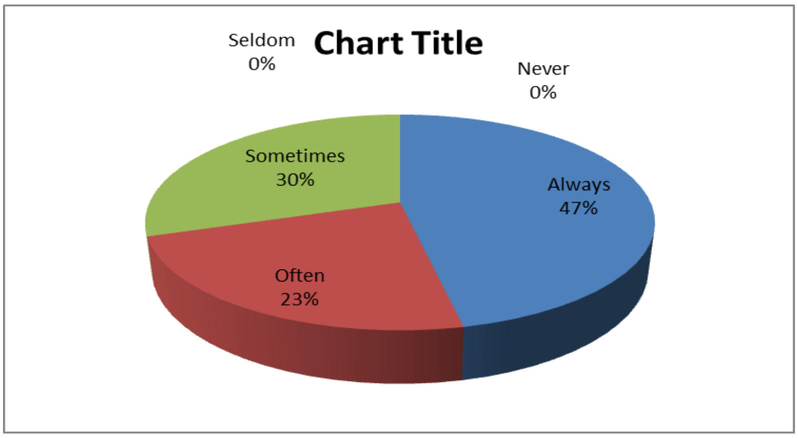
8. Which form of video annotation help you most in acquiring vocabulary?



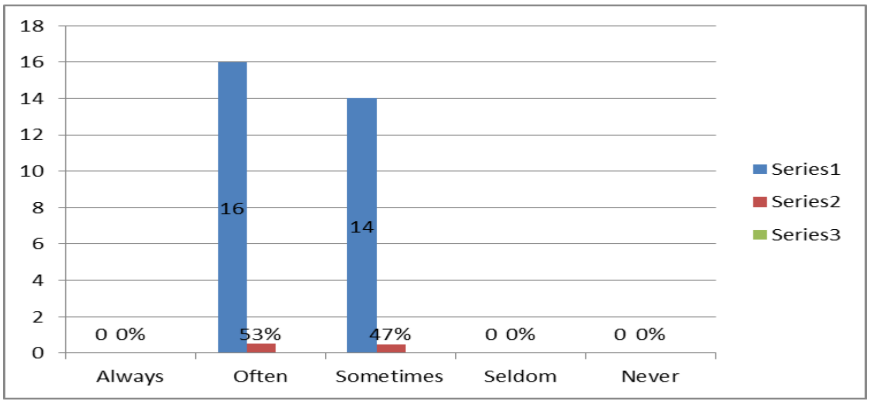
9. Which annotation helps you more when you have hard time?



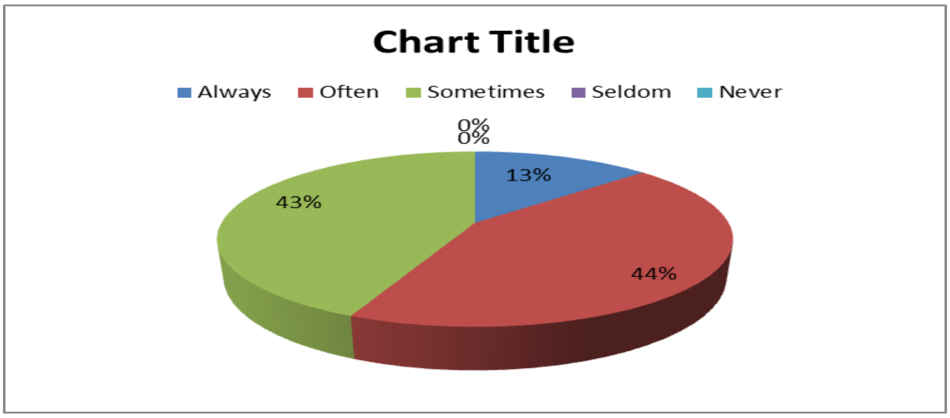
10. Do you use digital dictionary to help translate unknown English words into easier English?



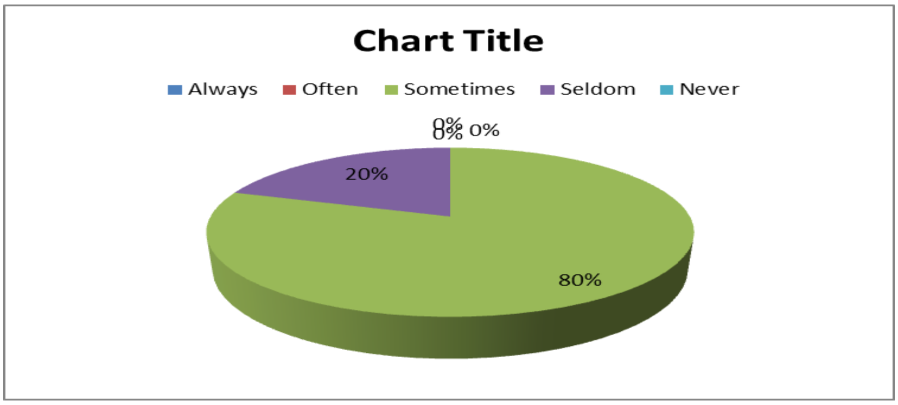
11. Do you use pictures illustrated in the textbook to find the word meanings?



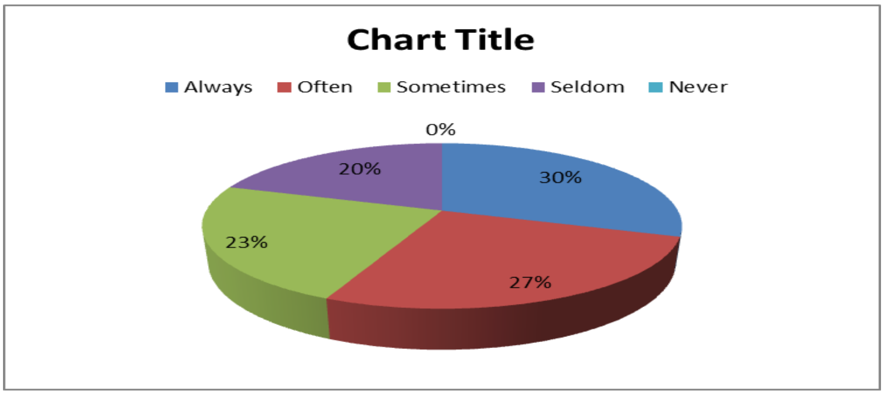
12. Do you write a new word on an insidestoryflash card so you can remember it?



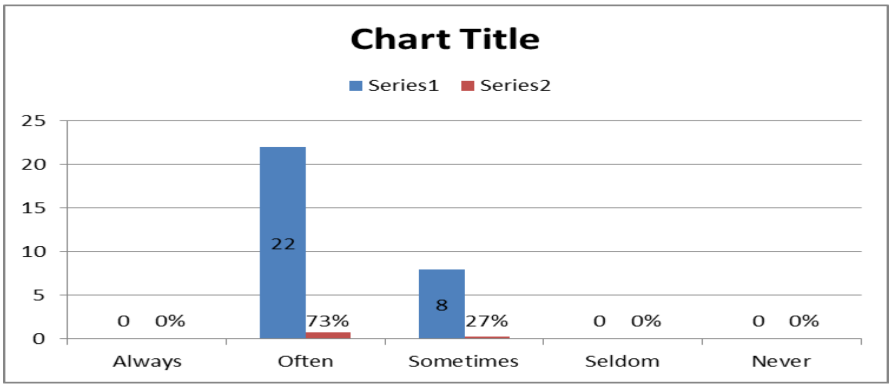
13. Do you record vocabulary from English Soundtrack movies in my notebook?



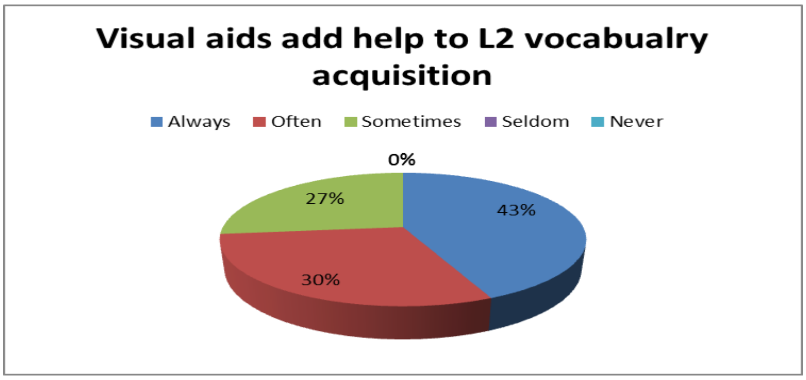
14. Do you use on-line exercise to test my vocabulary knowledge?



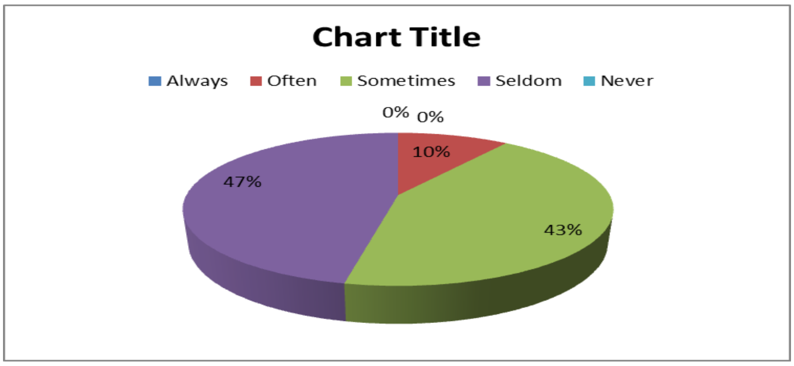
15. When you try to remember the meaning of the words, do you remember the visuals?



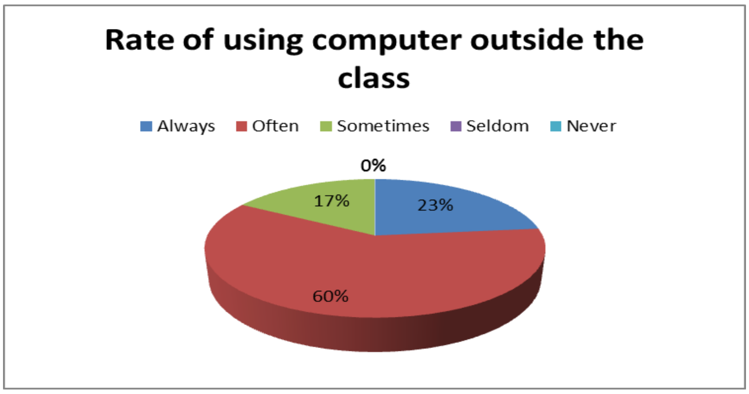
16. Do you find visual aids make L2 vocabulary to remember?



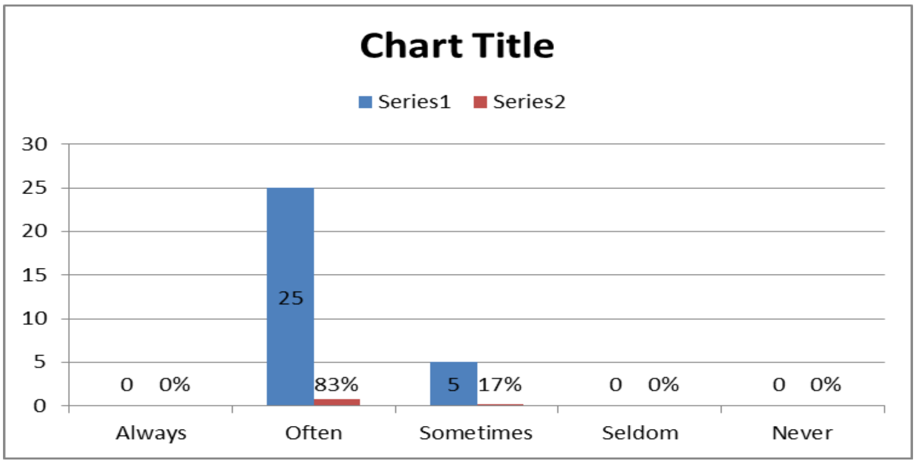
17. Do you find it very difficult to learn through any CALL tool?



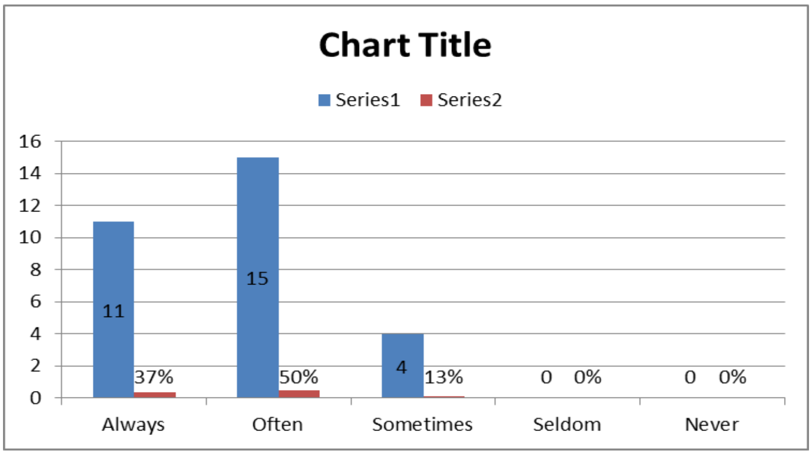
18. How often do you use a computer for vocabulary learning outside the classroom?



19. How often do you find CALL keeps you motivating?



20. How often do you use Spelling bee site?



APPENDIX B

Interview questions for the teachers:

1. Did you ever get any training over using CALL?
2. What are the benefits you enjoy by using CALL in teaching vocabulary?
3. Are you comfortable in using CALL in the classroom?
4. What CALL devices do you use particularly in vocabulary teaching classes?
5. Which type of materials do you find more effective in classroom?
6. What are the difficulties you usually face to use CALL device in the class?
7. Which types of CALL tool are mostly effective in long terms vocabulary retention?
8. How do you evaluate students' achievements by using CALL in terms of vocabulary acquisition?
9. Are the students comfortable in using CALL for learning new words?
10. What are the major areas you want to improve of using CALL in the classroom?

Teachers (T)	Question 1	Question 2	Question 3	Question 4	Question 5	Question 6	Question 7	Question 8	Question 9	Question 10
Bikram	Get basic training and Class observation	CALL is useful	Not comfortabl e for using CALL	Mostly use Online Dictionary	vocabulary games is very effective in classroom	Sometimes multimedia did not work and electricity went off	Online dictionary, images using on some games like puzzle are more effective	Evaluate students achievement by giving them some puzzle games	Some students are comfortable and some are not in using CALL	Major areas like using latest multimedia or other stuff is very important
Ferdous	Same like Bikram	Same like Bikram	Comfortabl e for using CALL	mostly use Multimedia, Digital Dictionary, online dictionary, picture and different image based devices in different ways	Using Visuals like watching movies to internalize the context of using certain words from movies.	Difficult to teach that level of students who have limitation of using CALL Tools	Multimedia projectors, over head projectors and online dictionary are mostly effective	Evaluate students by giving online vocabulary test by using TRACE-EFFECT software	Most of the students find CALL useful but few of them sometimes don't enjoy	Need to Implement CALL based training program
Mohsina	Same like ferdous and Bikram	Same like ferdous and bikram	Comfortabl e for using CALL	Same like Ferdous	Mostly using visual materials and allow students to watch selected video cliff.	Teaching in the same class of different level of students is tough	Multimedia projector, over head projector and online dictionary are mostly effective	Evaluate students by giving online vocabulary test through certain software	Most of the students are comfortable and motivated in using CALL	Training needs to be ensued to use the new CALL device
Zinnat	Not familiar with CALL but got training over CALL while joined the school	Same like mohsina, ferdous and bikram	Same like mohsina	Mostly use online Dictionary and some useful websites	Puzzle games is effective for vocabulary learning	Student was not familiar with CALL so they find it more difficult	Tools like projector and OHP is very effective in vocabulary learning	Evaluate students by giving online assignments on particular topic	Students find CALL interesting	Institution should provide sufficient support of CALL and be more careful about technology

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A Linguistic Study of Shop Signs in Salt, Jordan

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***Abstract*—Shop signs are seen as a reflection of the socio-cultural background of the place in which the shop is located. This paper studies the shop signs in Salt, Jordan because it is one of the most popular cities in the country and it has not yet been explored adequately. These shop sings are collected from two main streets in two different areas of Salt: Hamzih Prince Street and Al Hamam Street. A digital camera is used to capture the shop signs on these streets. In addition, the study examines the shop signs using both quantitative and qualitative measures. It focuses on the language choice, the arrangement of languages and the linguistic features of these signs, i.e. phonetic, morphological, semantic, and syntactic. In addition, it studies the pragmatic functions of these shop signs. The study concludes that Salt is a conservative and traditional county in Jordan.**

***Index Terms*—salt, linguistic landscape, language choice, language arrangement, linguistic features, pragmatic functions**

I. Introduction

Public spaces make it possible for people to be exposed to different languages. When walking around, one can see words and expressions written in various languages especially on shop signs, posters and billboards. Such relatively small texts are abundant in commercial streets and department stores. This “visibility and salience of languages on public and commercial signs” is referred to as the ‘linguistic landscape (LL)' (Landry & Bourhis, 1997: 23). The manifestation of different languages in this linguistic landscape reflects societal multilingualism. Interest in linguistic landscape has grown in recent years for a couple of reasons. First, many cities around the world are developing into more linguistically diverse communities due to migration and job opportunities. Second, as a result of globalization, advertising has been able to take advantage of multilingualism. Spolsky and Cooper (cited in Edelman, 2010:18) address the use of language in the LL. Accordingly, they formulate three conditions for language choice in public signage:

1. Sign-writer`s skill condition: prefer to write sign in a language you know;
2. Presumed reader condition: prefer to write signs in the language or languages that intended readers are assumed to read;
3. Symbolic value condition: prefer to write signs in your own language or in a language with which you wish to be identified.

The LL in general has two functions: the first is informative since it conveys information about the product, and the second is symbolic, i.e. it refers to the status of the languages. Akindele (2011:3) pinpoints that "the use of different languages in the sign also reflects the power, status, and economic importance of the different languages." Therefore, the LL reflects the relative power and status of different languages in a specific sociolinguistic context. In this context, Gorter (2007:4) states: “The linguistic landscape could even influence language use. For example, the presence of the English language in the linguistic landscape of the city of Rome may influence the popularity or acceptability and thus the oral use of English in the Roman and Italian society”. Similarly, Dixon (2015) illustrates that the LL may be used as a pedagogical tool which increases literacy. The researcher explains that "having children experience and study the linguistic landscape can increase language awareness and provides a meaningful, experiential approach to language learning" (ibid: 23). The study of the LL is a relatively new sociolinguistic subdiscipline. The variety of languages and scripts displayed on signs has attracted the interest of researchers all over the world. A considerable number of studies have been conducted on shop signs in big cities or town centers, which can be considered as a gathering place for a large number of people shopping, walking, sightseeing, and eating, etc. However, Wang (2015:124) notes that "scholars should further investigate different places in order to depict a deeper and richer picture for the construction of linguistic landscape." Therefore, the study reported here examines the linguistic characteristics of Salt`s shop signs. It analyzes the language choice and focuses on the arrangement of language(s) on shop signs. In addition, it studies the shop signs' different linguistic features, namely; phonetic, morphological, semantic and syntactic. Furthermore, it investigates the pragmatic functions of these signs, in a way or another, may reflect Jordanians' beliefs, values, and cultural and historical traditions. Therefore, the study reported here seeks to answer these questions:

1. What languages are displayed on shop signs in Salt?

2. What is the arrangement of languages on shop signs?
3. What are the main phonetic, morphological, semantic and syntactic features of shop signs?
4. What are the pragmatic functions that are displayed or inferred by the selected shop signs?

II. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The significance of this study lies in the fact that it is the first of its kind to examine the linguistic characteristics and pragmatic functions of shop signs in Salt, Jordan. To this end, this study investigates the language choice and language order of shop signs. Furthermore, it considers the different linguistic features of shop signs, i.e. phonetic, morphological, semantic, and syntactic features. Finally, the study examines the pragmatic functions of shop signs.

It is worth mentioning here that this study is different from similar studies in Jordan for a number of reasons. Firstly, it investigates the language of shop signs in Salt, particularly focusing on two streets. Al Hamam Street is considered the oldest street in Salt whereas Hamzih Prince Street represents more civilized shops and modernity. In contrast, other Jordanian studies examined shop signs in Amman (Hussein et al., 2017), Aqaba (Amer and Obeidat, 2014) and Irbid (El-Yasin and Mahadin, 1996). Secondly, previous studies such as Amer and Obeidat (2014) and Hussein et al. (2017) focus on the sociolinguistic elements of shop signs, while this study focuses the on linguistic features. Thirdly, it examines language order on shop signs, an issue that has not been addressed in previous Jordanian studies. Finally, it studies the pragmatic functions of shop signs. Studying the pragmatic functions of this type of written genre has been largely ignored in Jordan; only two related studies were found. The first one was conducted by El-Yasin and Mahadin in 1996. They investigated the reasons behind the spread of foreign names and how they affect shoppers' attitudes to goods and services. Therefore, the researchers only highlight the use of English in shop signs that serves some pragmatic purpose. Thus, the underlying assumption of their study is that foreignness is associated with high prices and quality. However, the reported study here examines the pragmatic functions of Arabic and foreign names. Moving to the second study, Al-Kharabsheh et al. (2004) studied various language expressions and word choices related to commercial marketing and individual shopping strategies. Al-Kharabsheh et al. (2004:97) state that "glowing, superfluous words and the flattering superlative language structures of commercial shop signs… attract the attention of a goodly number of shoppers and customers." Therefore, their study only focuses on the use of socio-economic implications. However, the study reported here observes other types of expression such as those relating to religion, history, ethics, music, fauna and flora, social relations, optimism, instruments, aesthetics, colors and place references.

III. METHODOLOGY

This study investigates the public signage in Salt, Jordan. Two streets were chosen for their condensed commercial presence within Salt. The first is Al Hamam Street, the oldest and most historical street (Salt Heritage Trail) in Salt. The second is Hamzih Prince Street, the newest street in Salt.

The data contained various types of permanent shop signs that promote goods and services such as supermarkets, restaurants, barber shops, tailors and clothing computer and electronics stores, etc. Non- permanent signs such as stickers and indoor advertisements were excluded. The researchers considered each shop sign as one single unit for analysis. Shops which have more than one sign were treated as follows: if the two or more signs had the same content, they were considered as one single unit. However, if these signs contained different content, each sign was documented separately. Furthermore, the researchers excluded banks, well-known fast food restaurants, airlines and the like because their spelling and texture are fixed. The survey was carried out in October 2017, comprising 281 signs. All shop signs in the survey areas were photographed by using camera. Table 1 shows the total number of items pictured in each street.

TABLE I.
TOTAL NUMBER OF SHOP SIGNS IN BOTH STREETS

Street Name	Number of Shop Signs
Hamam Street	86
Hamzih Prince Street	195

The shop signs were classified according to language choice, the order of language(s) used on the signs, and other specific linguistic features, i.e., phonetic, morphological, semantic, and syntactic. In addition, the pragmatic functions of the shop signs were classified into 12 functions.

IV. REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The literature review below focuses on seven studies dealing with linguistic landscape in general and shop signs in particular.

Gorter (2007) focused on the use of different languages in the linguistic landscape of 12 different streets in four neighborhoods in the city of Rome. The total number of studied signs were 1,365 signs. He examined the number of languages on the signs, the different languages encountered, the frequency of each language on the sign, top-down versus bottom up signs, the composition of bilingual signs and the size of the languages on bilingual and multilingual signs. The results indicated that the majority of the sign had only one language. Furthermore, 20 different languages were found on the signs with Italian being the most commonly used; English was mainly seen adjacent to tourist attractions. However, Gorter reported that "English is becoming part of the linguistic landscape all around Europe … The increased use of English in Europe in general is also evident in Rome" (p.9). It was shown that top-down signs were in Italian because it is the official language; however, the other languages, including English, were rarely used as a top-down language in monolingual signs. The researcher noted that "the role of private initiative in bringing English into the linguistic landscape" (p.18) is reflected in bottom-up signs.

Akindele (2011) examined the linguistic landscape in Gaborone, Botswana. The researcher studied the names on buildings, advertisements, commercial shop signs, public signs on government buildings and three hospitals. 270 linguistic landscape items were collected and examined for languages display and arrangement. In addition, Akindele interviewed 20 shop owners in order to ask them about the "choices concerning the language used, the name given to the shop and what type of clientele visited them" (p.6).

Jurate (2006) investigated the extent of internationalization and westernization found in 150 shop signs collected in two main streets in downtown Kaunas, Lithuania, as well as their characteristics. She studied these streets in order to analyze the linguistic aspects of the collected signs and the amount of foreignism which was considered as a sign of good quality, high price and prestige. The researcher adopted El-Yasin and Mahadin's (1996:409) definition of a shop sign "all the linguistic material written to draw attention to a shop, be it on a typical sign, or on a shop window, or on a moving door. All that pertains to the same store or shop is seen as a single sign". The shop signs were divided into four types: Lithuanian signs, Lithuanian signs with foreign associations, foreign signs, and multilingual signs. The multilingual signs were divided into two types: Lithuanian signs with foreign elements or foreign signs with Lithuanian elements. In addition, it was explained that these different types had different effects. Jurate posited that "Lithuanian names are usually more transparent and thus are more informative. Foreign names, meanwhile, are largely non-transparent but successfully perform an appellative function" (p.225). The use of foreign language on shop signs hence evokes connotations with foreign superiority.

Al- Mousa (2012) studied the linguistic content of 784 shop signs taken from three streets in Kuwait. This study examined the main linguistic features: phonetic, morphological, semantic and syntactic. Further, she presented the attitudes of a sample of Kuwaiti and non-Kuwaiti shoppers toward the languages used in these shop signs. Al-Mousa stated that most language choices used in Kuwaiti shop signs are bilingual Arabic- English than monolingual Arabic, and multilingual Arabic and other languages. She clarified that English is considered as a foreign language in the state of Kuwait; although, it is used extensively in shop signs. In addition, Al-Mousa mentioned that the use of foreign languages other than English is "eye-catching" for shoppers in order to convey to them that someone inside the shop speaks their mother-tongue (53-54). In terms of language arrangement on the shop signs, the study showed that the Arabic language dominates other foreign languages because it is usually written with a larger font and different color compared to English.

Amer and Obeidat (2014) investigated the existence of foreign languages in 278 shop signs in Aqaba city, Jordan. The researchers interviewed the shop owners in order to discover the reasons behind using English on their shop signs. The examined signs were divided into signs that have: (1) English only, (2) English with Arabic, (3) English with Arabic script and (4) Arabic in Roman script. The study showed that both Arabic and English have the highest percentage of frequency on signs. In most cases, the Arabic name was translated into English in order to give information about goods and services to foreigners. The shop owners reported that English was basically used to attract foreign customers’ attention. In addition, it was mentioned that English is associated with globalization, modernity, and prestige. Finally, the authors conclude that "the frequent use of English words in this business context indicates that these items are eventually going to be loanwords into Arabic [sic]" (p.6).

El-Yasin and Mahadin (1996) studied all the signs displayed on the most known street which merges between the old and modern parts of the city of Irbid. Their sample contained 355 signs to describe the pragmatics effects served by the use of language. They focused on the linguistic aspects of the shop signs. First, the researchers classified the words of the shop signs whether they are Arabic or foreign. Second, they classified whether the words are written in Arabic or Roman script. Finally, El-Yasin and Mahadin (1996) studied the intended meaning of these words and how they are used to convey to consumers by way of promoting goods and services. The researchers clarified that owners use languages on their shops signs in order to inform and persuade; "this use of language not only imparts information to the reader but also tries to influence his behavior" (p.410). Subsequently, they explain that there are six types of foreign influence on Jordanian shop signs (p.411- 414):

1. The use of foreign words or Arabic names written in Roman letters.
2. The use of foreign words which is already used in colloquial Jordanian contexts (everyday use).
3. The use of foreign brands.
4. The use of foreign words that are not in use among speakers of the native language in any natural context. These are usually written in Arabic script.
5. The use of foreign store names. These are mainly written in Arabic script, some are written in both Arabic and Roman, and a few are only in Roman letters.
6. The use of foreign language to have a completely foreign sign. These are written in Roman script without Arabic equivalence.

The last three types are used only to affect the behavior of the customers. The use of foreign languages may give a positive impression through associating with foreign quality. Therefore, the perlocutionary effect of this type of speech act is 'persuasion'; however its illocutionary effect is 'informing'. The use of foreign elements is seen as a type of indirect informing of high foreign quality.

Al-Kharabsheh et al. (2014) investigated various language expressions and word choice related to commercial marketing and individual shopping strategies. The authors aimed to present an empirical study of translation of the selected shop signs. Therefore, they aimed to find "whether a translated version of shop sign triggers effects on the target language audience equivalent or similar to those triggered by the source language shop sign on its own audience" (p.102). In other words, they investigated whether such shop signs can have a socio-psycho effect on customers. The researchers concluded that shop owners use glowing, superfluous words and the flattering, superlative language structures on their commercial shop signs in order to attract the attention of a goodly number of customers.

V. Results and Discussions

This part aims to answer the research questions. To this end, section 1 presents a quantitative and qualitative analysis of the language choice. Section 2 presents language arrangement. Section 3outlines specific linguistic features: phonetic, morphological, semantic and syntactic cues. Finally, a quantitative and qualitative analysis of the pragmatic functions of these shop signs is presented in section 4.

A. The Language Choice of Shop Signs

In order to determine the language choice of the shop signs in Salt, two streets were investigated. A total of 281 shop signs were analyzed quantitatively and qualitatively. Table 2 shows the number and percentage of shop signs in both streets in terms of language choice.

Table II.
Number and Percentage of Shop Signs in both Streets in Terms of Language Choice

Language Choice	Percentage
Monolingual Arabic (n=249)	88.6%
Monolingual English (n=3)	1.0%
Bilingual Arabic and English (n=28)	9.9%
Foreign languages other than English (n=1)	0.3%

As is clear, monolingual Arabic signs constituted 88.6 per cent of all signs analyzed. The high percentage of monolingual Arabic signs in both streets reflects the fact that Salt is a conservative and traditional county in Jordan. In contrast, Hussein et al. (2015) clarify that the percentages of monolingual Arabic signs used in three counties in Amman are: 45 per cent in Al-Wehdat Camp, 27 per cent in Jabal Al-Hussein and 19 per cent in Sweifieh. These percentages prove that Salt is significantly different from Amman, the capital city of Jordan. Salt is in fact more conservative in using the Arabic language which is the native and official language of Jordan. Below is an example of a shop sign that is written purely in Arabic:

Sign 1. A Monolingual Arabic Pharmacy Sign

Sign 1 is selected from Prince Hamza Street, Al Salt; it is a pharmacy sign; *Saydaliyyat al-maydaan* ‘The Square Pharmacy’. Both words are Arabic. The structure is a simple noun phrase which is commonly used in Arabic.

In contrast, the percentage of monolingual English shop signs was 1.0 per cent. Below is an example:

Sign 2. A Monolingual English Shoe Shop Sign

In sign 2 the English language is written without a corresponding Arabic equivalent which requires a minimal degree of proficiency in English. Note that a minimal degree of proficiency helps shoppers in understanding shop signs. However, having signs such as these presupposes that a good number of Jordanians actually have that minimal degree of proficiency. This sign is one of the three monolingual English shop sign found in Salt, and it is erroneous (cf. 'shoeses').

9.9 per cent of the signs were Bilingual Arabic and English. Nu`man (cited in Suleiman, 2004:27) considers the use of a foreign language in shop signs as both "linguistic" and "military" invasion of the national language. This 'invasion' can be seen in Amer and Obeidat's (2014) study which reveals that bilingual Arabic and English shop signs have the highest percentage in Aqaba, Jordan (58.1%). The use of Monolingual English is actually very low in Salt (1.0 percent) when compared to Hussein et al.'s (2015) study which shows that 55 per cent of signs were foreign (mostly English) in Sweifieh, 37 per cent in Jabal Al-Hussein and 16 per cent in Al-Wehdat Camp. Amer and Obeidat (2014) find an even lower use of monolingual English shop signs in Aqaba (14%). In this context, the use of monolingual English shop signs requires at least a minimal degree of English proficiency in order to help shoppers in understanding shop signs. Therefore, Salt`s shop owners prefer to use Arabic monolingual shop signs. Below is an example of a bilingual Arabic – English shop sign:

Sign 3. A Bilingual Arabic and English Accessories Shop Sign

Shop sign 3 is taken from Al-Hamam Street which is the oldest street in Salt County. Consequently, the use of the Arabic word *lil-iksiswa:ra:t,*'For Accessories' that describes the offered service is expressive. This use helps all Arabic readers to understand the offered service of the shop. Shop owners tend to use the English language because it is related to "prestige and exoticism". In addition, Kharabsheh et al. (2008: 723-724) suggest that "Jordanian clients have better attitudes towards signs in both Arabic and English compared to signs only in Arabic".

The use of languages other than English was found in Prince Hamzih Street (0.3%).

Sign 4. A Bilingual Arabic and French Clothes Shop Sign

Sign 4 is for a bilingual Arabic and French clothes shops named *La Beaute ʕuru:D Al-jama:l* 'Beauty Offers Clothing Shop'. In addition, 'La Beaute' is at the same horizontal level as *no:vitei* which may give the wrong impression that they indicate the same meaning of *no:vitei*. Nonetheless, French is used to reflect prestige since French clothes tend to be of high quality in Jordan.

B. Language Arrangement

Language arrangement/ preference shows up in the way in which two languages or more are displayed and arranged visually on shop signs. Scollon and Scollon (cited in Edelman, 2010:22) illustrate how language preference can be expressed by the placement of languages on signs. They divide the code preference system into three possibilities: vertical, horizontal and central. First, when the languages are aligned vertically, the preferred code is located above the secondary code. Second, when the languages are aligned horizontally, the preferred code is located in the left position and the secondary code is placed in the right position. Third, the preferred code is located in the center and the secondary code is placed on the margins of the sign. Suleiman (2004:184) used the term "routine" to examine the corpus of signs in his study and to signal the regular and widespread patterns of use found in them. 'Routine' includes the position of the languages, color(s) used and writing font. The total number of bilingual Arabic and English signs in our data is 28. Table 3 shows the distribution of the preferred languages. In this content, this section is divided into three subsections: (1) Arabic dominance which demonstrates the dominance of the Arabic language over English

(57.1%), (2) English dominance in which English dominates Arabic (39.2%) and (3) equal dominance in which both languages have the same dominance (3.5%).

TABLE III.
NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF SHOP SIGNS IN BOTH STREETS IN TERMS OF LANGUAGE ORDER

Language Order	Number	Percentage
Arabic Dominance	16	57.1%
English Dominance	11	39.2%
Equal Dominance	1	3.5%
Total	28	100%

1. Arabic Dominance

The majority of the signs (57.%) demonstrate the dominance of the Arabic language over English, which reflects the preferred use of the native and official language of Jordan. Scollon and Scollon (cited in Backhaus 2005:67) distinguish between two methods of language preference. The first is when languages are aligned vertically and the preferred language is positioned at the top of the sign. The second is when languages are aligned horizontally and the preferred language is positioned on the left-hand side of the sign. According to the conventions of Arabic script, this method should be reversed because Arabic is written from right to left. The dominance is reflected through font size, order and color. According to font size, when a text covers the largest space on the shop sign or when a language has been assigned the most, it is considered as the preferred language. As for the order, when a language is positioned at the top, on the right or in the center of a sign, it is considered as the preferred language. Color is also comparable when one text is written in a different color from another, especially when written in a brighter or richer color than the other language present in the sign.

Sign 5 shows a vertical representation of languages. The 'routine' of this sign demonstrates the dominance of Arabic over English; Arabic is located at the top of the sign and is written in a larger font than the English language. In addition, the Arabic word count exceeds the English one.

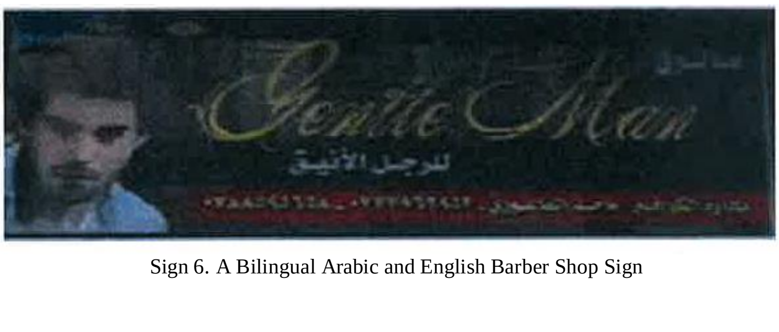
(5) نظارات كلوب
natha:ra:t klob
optics Kloub
‘Kloub Optics’

Sign 5. A Bilingual Arabic and English Opticians Sign

2. English Dominance

English dominates Arabic in 39.2 per cent of the shop signs. The English language in sign 6 occupies almost the whole space of the sign. In addition, the order of the English language vertically precedes Arabic. Therefore, English is more preferred in this shop sign.

(6) صالون للرجل الأنيق
Salo:n lil-rajul al-ʔneeq
salon for gentleman
Gentleman Salon
'Gentle Man'



Sign 6. A Bilingual Arabic and English Barber Shop Sign

3. Equal Dominance

The lowest percentage of the language arrangement (3.5%) is given to equal priority. Sign 7 is a horizontal representation of languages where each language is written in a separate sign but which are horizontality next to each other. Since both signs have the same font size, amount of words and color, the priority of Arabic is equal to that of English.

(7) البسام للكمبيوتر والالكترونيات
albassa:m lil-kumbyu:tar wal-iliktro:niyyt
Al Bassam for computer and electronics
'Al Bassam for Computer & Electronics'

Sign 7. A Bilingual English and Arabic Computer and Electronics Shop Sign

The focus of this section was only on Arabic and English shop signs because they are the only two competing languages in the public space of Salt. However, the other languages were ignored because their overall number is insignificant. The quantitative and qualitative analysis revealed that the dominance of Arabic over English is significant. The data showed growing linguistic diversity.

C. Specific Linguistic Features

This section studies the shop signs` different linguistic features, namely; phonetic, morphological, semantic and syntactic.

1. Phonetic Features

In this subsection, the researchers consider vowel and consonant changes in monolingual Arabic and bilingual Arabic-English shop signs. It also addresses the orthographic-translation errors.

a. Vowel Change

Vowel substitution is applied to English vowels and diphthongs that do not exist in the Standard Arabic inventory. There are only eight vowels in Standard Arabic: three short vowels (a, u, i), three long vowels (a:, u:, i:) and two diphthongs (aw, ay). However, the English vowels are twenty: seven short vowels, five long vowels and eight diphthongs. Therefore, the extra vowels and diphthongs are substituted by their nearest phonetic counterparts. In general, vowels undergo a lengthening process. Sign 8 demonstrates consonant and vowel changes. The English word 'top' is transliterated into /to:b/; i.e. , the English short vowel in /tɒp/ is replaced with a long one. In addition, the voiceless stop /p/ is substituted with its voiced Arabic counterpart /b/. Furthermore, the first diphthong in the English word /məʊbaɪl/ is totally changed into a long Arabic vowel becoming /mo:baɪl/. Thus, loanwords tend to undergo adaptation in order to fit the Arabic language requirements.

(8) شركة توب موبايل
sharikat to:b mo:baɪl
company top mobile
Top Mobile Company

Sign 8. Conversions of English Sounds into Arabic: A Mobile Phone Shop Sign

b. Consonant Change

Foreign sounds are substituted by their nearest phonetic counterparts in Arabic. In this context, Khasara (cited in Salem, 2015:100) clarifies that "it was the Jordanian Academy of Arabic Language's proposal to assign a fixed Arabic phoneme to substitute each foreign sound". Therefore, the phonemes /p/, /tʃ/, /v/ and /g/ are substituted with their nearest Arabic equivalent sounds /b/, /sh/, /f/, and /j/ respectively. For example, sign 9 demonstrates the replacement of the English voiced labio-dental fricative /v/ with its voiceless counterpart /f/.

(9) صالون نيفين للسيدات
Salo:n nifi:n lis-sayyida:t
salon Niveen for women
'Niveen Salon for Women'

Sign 9. Conversion of English /v/ into Arabic /f/: A Women's Salon

c. Orthographic Errors

Al-Athawry (2014: 145) identifies two types of orthographic errors**:** simple errors and serious errors. Simple orthographic errors do not affect the conveyed message of the shop sign. However, serious orthographic errors significantly affect the conveyed message. The second type is not attested in the corpus of this study.

Sign 10 illustrates the incorrect form of adding the plural suffix 'es' to the plural word 'shoes'. This reflects the low English proficiency of some shop owners or sign creators. In this context, Kharabsheh et al. (2008: 720) state that "shop owners do not seem to have cared much to consult language specialist or translators".


Sign 10. Simple Orthographic Error on a Shoe Shop Sign

2. Morphological Features - Abbreviations and Acronyms

Both abbreviations and acronyms were attested in the bilingual Arabic- English shop signs. The abbreviations in sign 11 are written to feature first or family names such as 'Hashim and Jana'. In addition, the conjunction *and* is reduced to its symbol &.

Sign 11. A Shop Sign Showing Abbreviations

3. Semantic Features

This subsection examines the semantic features of the shop signs; namely denotation, reference, connotation, synonymy and discrepancy of meaning.

a. Denotation

Kreidler (1998:299) defines denotation as "the objective relationship between a linguistic form and its referent". A shop`s name, in this sense, can signify an actual object in the real world. Put another way, denotation here refers to a one-to-one relationship between a shop sign and the service it offers. The monolingual Arabic shop sign 12, for instance, can be translated into English as 'Spice-dealer'. According to the dictionary definition, a spice-dealer is a "pepperer or a merchant that sells pepper and other spices" (Collin Online Dictionary, 2018 http://www.collinsdictionary.com/dictionary/english/pepperer). Thus, this shop sign obviously represents a shop that sells spices.

(12) العطار
al-ʕaTTa:r
the spice-dealer
The Spice-Dealer

Sign 12. A Spice-Dealer Sign Denoting its Literal Meaning

b. Reference

Reference is defined as "the relation between a language form and some physical entity" (Kreidler 1998:303). In addition, Kreidler (1998:43) states that reference is the relationship between a language expression (form) and "whatever the expression pertains to in a particular situation of language use, including what a speaker may imagine". Therefore, reference is an act performed by the speaker. It relates to the speaker and his/her intentions and the context it was used in. Thus, reference is not as stable as denotation. A shop owner would normally intend to use an expression (name) to refer to something, bearing in mind that the reader would be able to understand what the intention of the shop`s name actually is. The '5G+' shop (sign 13) refers to the "Fifth-generation wireless, which is the latest generation of cellular technology, engineered to greatly increase the speed and responsiveness of wireless network" (http://searchnetworking.techtarget.com/definition/5G). The actual definition of the shop`s name sends the message that this is an internet shop. However, the intended message of the shop's name is to refer to the newest generation of internet connection that is used on phones, tablets and ipads. Therefore, when shoppers see the symbol '5G+', they can easily infer mobile services offered at this shop.

Sign 13. A Mobile Phone Shop Sign along with a Symbol to Indicate Reference

c. Connotation

Connotation is what a word suggests. It is what`s connected or associated with a word either emotionally or culturally. Kreidler (1998:45) states that "connotations vary according to the experience of individuals but, because people do have common experience, some words have shared connotations". For example, the word 'dove' denotes a small white bird but it connotes peace. Sign 14 is a monolingual Arabic word that connotes ladies. The Arabic word *nawa:ʕim* literally means soft entities. However, *nawa:ʕim* in Arabic stands for women. In fact, there is a famous Arabic TV show on MBC Channel called *'Kala:m nawa:ʕim'* is presented by women to women. Thus, the shop sign tells shoppers, though indirectly, that this shop offers services and products just to women.

(14) نواعم
nawa:ʕim
soft entities
Women

Sign 14. A Make-Up Monolingual Arabic Sign Indicating Connotation

d. Synonymy

Synonymy is "a word equivalent in sense to another word" (Griffiths 2006:26). Synonyms are similar to paraphrases because both represent mutual entailment. In the corpus of this study, synonymy is evident in both monolingual Arabic and bilingual Arabic-English shop signs. The following Café shop sign 15 uses two synonyms *maqha* and *kofishop* connected with the conjunction *wa* 'and'. As is apparent, the first is an Arabic word and the second is a loan compound word.

(15) مقهى وكوفي شوب الميدان
maqha: wa kufi shob al-mayda:n
café and coffee shop the Medan
Al-Meydan Coffee Shop

Sign 15. A Monolingual Arabic Sign Exhibiting Synonymy

e. Discrepancy of Meaning in Translation

Al-Mousa (2012:121) explains that the mismatching between meanings from one language to another is called discrepancy of meaning. The bilingual Arabic-English shop sign 16demonstrates an example of discrepancy of meaning. The Arabic shop name *maTʕam abu xami:s* is totally different from the English one *Alsalam Restaurant*.

(16) مطعم أبو خميس
maTʕam abu xami:s
restaurant Abu Khamis
Abu Khamis Restaurant
'Alsalam Restaurant'

Sign 16. A Bilingual Arabic-English Restaurant Sign Exhibiting Discrepancy of Meaning in Translation

4. Syntactic Features - Word Order

The linguistic construction of a shop sign tend to appear on the micro level, namely words, phrases or compounds but as long sentence. Word-order errors affect the organization of information. The causes for such errors result in applying the linguistic construction of the Arabic language to the English language. The linguistic construction of the Arabic phrase is noun plus adjective; however, in English it is the opposite, i.e. adjective plus noun. Sign 17 shows wrong word-order. In this sign the name of the shop *Saloon Rakan for men* is meant to convey 'Rakan Salon'. As is clear, the Arabic word order was inappropriately transferred to the English translation.

Sign 17. A Monolingual English Sign Exhibiting Word-Order Error

D. Pragmatic Functions

Whatever human beings say or write has a value and pragmatic function. Shop signs are not an exception. This section examines the socio-psychological communicative-pragmatic effects of shop signs. Such an examination may reveal certain aspects of Jordanian culture. Shop owners choose shop names that serve the purpose of promoting their goods and services. The researchers find that Jordanian shop signs have one major pragmatic function, i.e. to promote the services they offer and in order to achieve this, shop owners use different types of references. The researchers discover 12 types of references. For example; naming a dry cleaner 'The Champions' makes reference to a classy group of shoppers who seek the best products and services. The use of this name is likely to send the message that this shop has the best quality in terms of service. Therefore, this shop`s name is classified under the superiority reference. In addition, some shop names can be classified under more than one reference, e.g. 'White Flower' is classified as a color reference and a flora reference. Table (4) below presents the number of shop signs in Balqa Governorate according to their pragmatic functions.

TABLE IV.
NUMBER OF SHOP SIGNS IN BALQA GOVERNORATE ACCORDING TO THEIR REFERENCES

References	**Examples**	**Number**
Superiority Reference	The Prince	36
Place Reference	Petra	24
Social Relationship Reference	Mother	19
Religious Reference	Basmalah	17
Fauna and Flora Reference	Butterfly	15
Ethical Reference	Honesty	9
Optimistic Reference	Happiness	6
Aesthetic Reference	Beauty	5
Color Reference	Black Giant	3
Historical Reference	Saltus	2
Musical Reference	Al Andaleeb	1
Instrument Reference	The Sieve	1

It is evident from the table that superiority reference has the highest number (36), followed by place reference (24), social relationship reference (19) and religious reference (17). It seems that many shop owners resort to the superiority reference in order to show their superiority over other shops that provide similar services. In addition, the high percentage of fauna and flora reference can be attributed to the meanings that color can have and convey. Finally, a good number of shop owners resorted to religious references since many Muslims` shoppers may be induced by such indications. In contrast, color, instrument, and historical references are of low frequency because they do not fit most of the services that shops in Balqa Governorate provide. In the following subsections, the researchers present and discuss shop signs in light of the reference that each carries.

1. Superiority Reference

The quality of being superior is being better than average, or better than others of the same type. The significant use of the superiority reference reflects each shop as the biggest superstore in the area where shoppers can easily find the best service. Therefore, shop owners want to convey that 'we are at the forefront and our services are so exceptional and special that they cannot be found in other ordinary shops'. The bilingual shop sign 18 below demonstrates an example of the use of the superiority reference; the phrase *Al Prince* 'the prince' in this sign is a trigger name referring to a classy group of shoppers who are aristocratic and elite. In addition, this name reflects the desire for luxury. In line with Al-Kharabsheh et al. (2014), naming shops with "glowing" names attracts the attention of customers. These customers may think that they are "categorized among the top, classy, rich and wealthy" (ibid: 97). Therefore, the use of this word to name a hubbly-bubbly shop is probably meant to send the message to customers that ‘you will be treated as an elite customer and receive a five star luxury service'. Furthermore, the use of English demonstrates another pragmatic purpose. It tends to persuade customers to buy the commodities of a shop by associating its products with foreign quality.

(18) AlPrince أراجيل

Al-brins ʔragi:l
the prince hubbly-bubbly
The Prince for Hubbly-Bubbly

Sign 18. A Hubbly-Bubbly Shop Sign Indicating Superiority Reference

2. Place Reference

The data showed that 24 shop signs demonstrated place reference. Using 'place' references seems to give shop owners and shoppers a sense of belonging to the area these shops are found in. In addition, it is probably an easy way for shop owners to find a name for their shops. This subsection is divided into three parts: (1) reference to a place in Jordan, (2) reference related to a landmark where the shop operates and (3) reference to a place beyond the Arab world.

a. Reference to a Place in Jordan

Shop sign 19 refers to a famous place in Jordan. It is, in fact, the most famous tourist site in Jordan, Petra.

(19) البتراء
albatraʔ
the Petra
Petra

Sign 19. An Electronics Shop Sign Demonstrating a Place Reference

b. Reference to a Landmark where the Shop Operates

Naming shops according to landmarks in the related region takes the highest number as mentioned earlier. Sign 20 demonstrates a clear example. The shop creator names his shop *al-masjid aS-Saghi:r* 'the small mosque' that refers to the mosque next to the shop.

(20) المسجد الصغير لتصليح الساعات
al-masjid aS-Saghi:r li-taSli:ħ as-sa:ʕa:t
The mosque small for repairing the watches
The Small Mosque for Watch Repair

Sign 20. A Watch Shop Sign Demonstrating a Landmark Reference

c. Reference to place beyond the Arab World

Referring to a place outside the Arab world takes the lowest number as it sounds strange for a shop owner to name his shop after a city in Spain or the United States for example, when he can name them after cities and places in Jordan. Nonetheless, there are a few signs that have foreign place names as in sign 21 which makes reference to the capital of France, Paris.

(21) باريس للخلويات
bari:s lil-xalawiyya:t

Paris for mobiles
Paris for Mobiles

Sign 21. A Mobile Phone Shop Sign Demonstrating a Place Reference

3. Social Relationship Reference

A social relationship is the connection, association or bond among human beings. It reflects our fundamental need to belong to a social community. Therefore, it fulfills our desire for social interaction and emotional belonging. Relationships cover familial and romantic aspects, as well as friendships. Sign 22 demonstrates the status of motherhood. The phrase '*sitt l-ħaba:yib*' in this sign makes reference to the most beloved family member, the mother. The use of this phrase to name a kitchen store is probably meant to send the message 'if you want to please your mom, visit our shop' or 'if you select any of our products, your mom will be happy'.

(22) معرض ست الحبايب
maʕraD sitt l-ħaba:yib
exhibition the topmost of the beloved ones
The Mother's Exhibition

Sign 22. A Kitchen Store Sign Indicating a Family Relationship Reference

4. Religious Reference

The use of Islamic symbols in shops' names reflects the official religion of the state in Jordan which is Islam. However, the use of Islamic reference is not only to reflect religion but to promote at least the meaning associated with it, viz., "we are good and honest". The phrase 'Basmalah' in sign 23 means 'in the name of Allah, the Most Gracious, and the Most Merciful'. The phrase 'Basmalah' holds special significance in Muslims' everyday lives; it is said at the beginning of any deed with the hope of receiving such reward and blessings from God. Therefore, the use of this word to name a car maintenance shop is probably meant to reflect hope for such blessings and reward in the shop`s services. Though the owner wished to use an Islamic reference, some may think that 'Basmalah' is possibly inappropriate for car maintenance. 'Honesty and professionalism', for instance, may be purported to sound more suitable.

(23) كهرباء بسملة للسيارات
Kahruba:ʔ basmalah lis-saya:ra:t
electricity basmalah for cars
Basmalah for Car Electricity

Sign 23. A Car Maintenance Shop Representing an Islamic Reference

5. Fauna and Flora Reference

The terms Fauna and Flora are of Latin origin. They refer to the animals and plants of a particular region, habitat, or geological period, respectively. Jordanian shop owners employ fauna and flora references significantly when trying to capture the beauty of nature in their shop names. The monolingual English shop sign 24 below demonstrates an example of fauna; the word 'butterfly', used to symbolize beauty, gentleness and smoothness. In this sense, the shop owner attempts to convey to shoppers that the lingerie on sale is beautiful and soft.

Sign 24. A Lingerie Shop Indicating a Fauna Reference

6. Ethical Reference

Ethics refer to well- founded standards relating to right and wrong behavior such as the virtues of honesty, compassion and loyalty. Ethics is concerned with developing a set of rules that govern human actions. Morally right actions will generally lead to happiness and pleasure. Therefore, shop owners refer to morally right actions in order to persuade their shoppers that visiting their shops will bring them happiness and pleasure. Sign 25 demonstrates a clear example of promoting ethics. The shop's name *al-ama:nah* means honesty. The use of this word to name a supermarket is probably meant to tell shoppers that 'we will not cheat you! You will not be cheated or fooled knowingly', hoping that shoppers will be induced by this name.

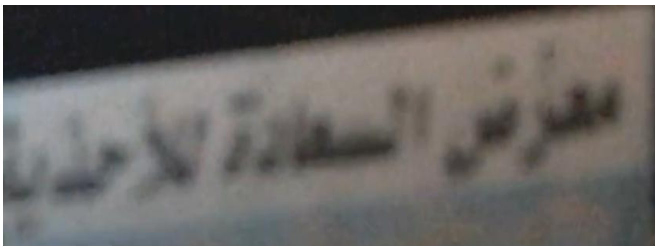
(25) سوبرماركت الأمانة
su:barma:rket al-ama:nah
supermarket the honesty
Honesty Supermarket

Sign 25. A Supermarket Sign Indicating an Ethical Reference

7. Optimistic Reference

Optimism is a psychological attitude that reflects positive, favorable, promising and desirable outcomes. An example of optimism is demonstrated in shop sign 26. The shop's Arabic name, *as-saʕa:da* 'happiness', makes reference to satisfaction, contentment and gladness. The use of this word to name a shoe shop is probably meant to inform customers that 'our services and products will make you happy and pleased'.

(26) معرض السعادة للأحذية
maʕraD as-saʕa:da lil-ʔaħthiya
exhibition the happiness for shoes
'Happiness Exhibition for Shoes'


Sign 26. A Shoe Shop Sign Indicating an Optimistic Reference

8. Aesthetic Reference

The word *al-jama:l* 'beauty' in sign 27 below makes reference to pretty and good-looking things. Consequently, the use of this word to name a clothing shop is probably meant to tell shoppers that 'you will look elegant and/or gorgeous in our beautiful clothes'. The name itself is very suitable for a clothing shop since people usually search for attractive and beautiful clothes. In addition, the use of French may indicate that 'our clothes are modern and of high quality '.

(27) نوفيته عروض الجمال

no:vitei ʕuru:D al-jama:l

clothing shop offers the beauty

Beauty Offers Boutique

Sign 27. A Clothing Shop Sign Indicating an Aesthetic Reference

9. Color Reference

Naming a shop using a color may have a great effect on shoppers. The phrase *al-imla:q al-aswad* ‘the black giant’ in sign 28 makes reference to a giant, black human-like creature. However, the image of the car’s black tires clarifies the metaphor used here. Therefore, the use of this phrase to name a car-tire shop is suitable since it describes the shape and the color of the car’s tires. In addition, the use of the word 'giant' is probably meant to tell customers that 'our tires are much powerful and stronger than other tires’.

(28) العملاق الأسود

al ʕimla:q alʔswad

The giant the black

'The Black Giant'

Sign 28. A Tire Shop Sign Indicating a Color Reference

10. Historical Reference

The shop owner of shop sign 29 has chosen a historical name for his stationary shop *Saltus*, is a Byzantine name for modern Salt. It means 'the valley' or 'the dense forest'. Highlighting a historical reference here is suitable because it reminds people of the ancient history of the place.

(29) مكتبة سالتوس

maktabat sa:ltus

stationary Saltus

'Saltus Stationary'

Sign 29. A Stationary Shop Indicating a Historical Reference

11. Musical Reference

Referring to music may stimulate a specific kind of shoppers. The following monolingual Arabic shop sign 30 demonstrates an example of using a musical reference for naming a shop. The name of the café *‘Andaleeb’* refers to a musician and singer from Egypt known as Abdel Halim Hafez. He is considered to be one of the greatest Egyptian and Arab musicians. His nickname is el-*Andaleeb el-Asmar* 'the black nightingale'. He is also considered Egypt’s first romantic singer. Therefore, naming a coffee shop after this celebrity is meant to stimulate customers and convey the impression that 'if you come in, you will experience a romantic atmosphere full of beautiful and expressive songs from the past'.

(30) كافيه العندليب
ka:fei al-ʕandali:b
café the Andaleeb
Al-Andaleeb Café

Sign 30. A Café Sign Indicating a Musical Reference

12. Instrument Reference

The word *alghurbal* ‘the sieve’ in sign 31 refers to an instrument with a wire-meshed bottom, used to separate wanted elements from unwanted material. Therefore, the use of this instrument for naming a restaurant may suggest that 'this restaurant prepares meals from those ingredients that have been selected after sieving the good or desired elements'. So, the implicit message of this name is that customers can find the best meals here because undesirable ingredients have already been excluded.

(31) مطاعم الغربال
maTa:ʕim al-ghurba:l
restaurants the sieve
'The Sieve Restaurant'

Sign 31. A Bilingual Restaurant Sign Indicating an Instrument Reference

VI. Conclusion and Recommendation

This study investigated the shop signs in Salt. Two shopping streets were selected for the investigation; Prince Hamzih Street and Al Hamam Street. All shop signs totaling 181 were photographed and examined in terms of language choice, language arrangement, specific linguistic features: phonetic, morphological, semantic and syntactic in addition to pragmatic functions.

It should be mentioned that around 88.6 per cent of the signs were monolingual Arabic signs, revealing that Balqa is a city which still predominantly functions using one language. This is not surprising since Arabic is the native and official language of Jordan. The use of monolingual English signs implies that a minimal degree of proficiency in English is assumed to be there in the targeted shoppers in order to understand the sign. Language arrangement is reflected through font size, order and color on bilingual shop signs. The findings revealed that the majority of the signs (57.1%) demonstrated the dominance of the Arabic language over English. In contrast, the percentage of shop signs in which English dominated Arabic was 39.2 per cent. Furthermore, the lowest percentage of language arrangement (3.5%) was given to equal priority. The other languages were ignored because their overall number was insignificant. In addition, the study illustrated specific linguistic features, e.g. phonetic, morphological, semantic and syntactic. The pragmatic functions of shop signs were studied in order to identify how the language is used to address shoppers and how it serves the commercial needs of shop owners. Studying these signs and word choice revealed certain aspects of Jordanian culture. A further study could examine the variables that influence the content and language of shop signs from both shoppers' and shop owners’ perspectives.

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Decoding Sense in Caricatures: A Study in Semio-stylistics

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***Abstract*—Icon, index, and symbol are the trichotomy parts of sign proposed by Peirce. The relationship between sign and object in them generates more and different interpretants. These parts focus primarily on non-verbal communication. Part of that nonverbal genre is caricaturing. Caricatures draw the attention of readers because caricaturists concretize the intended meaning in an overstatement style of drawing. This paper seeks to investigate how Peirce's terms of the sign; icon, index, and symbol are integrated into each caricature to complement the intended meaning of the caricaturists. Stylistically, it asks what are the foregrounding and de-familiarization features of these caricatures? It concludes that caricatures are mere connection between signs and objects results in formulating specific perception about the highlighted phenomena. Moreover, in caricatures there are some idiosyncratic aspects that make them de-familiarized and foregrounded. The researcher collected samples of caricatures from different newspapers to support his arguments.**

***Index Terms*—caricature, semiotics, sign, foregrounding, de-familiarization, index, icon, symbol**

I. Literature Review

A. Semoitics

The relationship between sign and meaning is the main subject matter of semiotics. As a field of Applied Linguistics, any verbal or nonverbal sign that communicates a message is dealt with within semiotics. In his first account about semiotics and sign, Peirce (1867-8) gives three inter-related elements for the sign; the first is the sign, the second is the object, and the third is the interpretant. Sign is the form of sign or the thing that refers to something/ object. Of course, not the whole sign refers to an object but only some parts of the sign refer to it. Peirce calls it "sign-vehicle" (Zalta, 2010). Objects are the concern matter of a sign. Similarly, not every feature of the object is relevant to sign. Only certain parts of an object make sign signifies it (ibid). The interpretant is the idea or the sense constructed in the mind about sign/object relation (Lalor, 1997). For Peirce, an interpretant is central to the content of sign because it focuses on how users interpret sign. Therefore, sign comes in different forms. Whatever has a meaning or communicates a message or anything that represents something is called sign (Atkin, 2005, Farias and Queiroz, 2003). Simply, the relation between sign, object and interpretant is the wide gate of senses that interpret the meaning conveyed by them. Beyond the verbal meaning, Barthes (1972) in his theory of the sign, mainly focuses on non-verbal communication and how it conveys connotative meanings. Photographs, paintings, smells, tastes, and touches are non-verbal signs and they obviously communicate messages. Peirce (1867) said that the interpretant can be presented in one of the three potential ways as a result of the sign/object relationship; icon, index, and symbol. All these three carry the same meaning and refer to the sign/object relationship to generate further interpretants (Zalta, 2010). They have different usages and are the core of studies in the field of semiotics. The first one icon represents a physical resemblance between sign and its object. The paradigm for that is a photo, which resolves the real person. It is a direct imitation of the object. Therefore, the photo of someone is the icon of him. The second one is an index that gives a clear evidence of what is being represented. The sign cannot exist without the presence of an object. For example, smoke is an index of fire and footprints are index of the foot. i.e., hence there is no smoke without fire. This connection is innately known and instilled in our brain. The third part of the sign is the symbol. It refers to cultural or conventional relation between sign and object (Müller 1994 & Atkin 2005).

B. Foregrounding and De-automatization

In stylistics, foregrounding is twined with features beyond the language norms. It is against the background of the ordinary language. Leech (1969) adeptly observes that if anyone wants to investigate the value of a piece of artwork, he must focus on the components of interest and surprise, rather than on the automatic pattern. Such deviations from socially accepted norms are called 'foregrounding'. Foregrounding is utilized to de-automatize or de-familiarize the language of literature. It is noted when literary writers use unexpected regularity (parallelism) or unexpected irregularity (deviation) in a particular context to make linguistic items, symbols, or images stand out from the other surrounding context, images or text as passionate simulacra that represent existential paradigms (Walles, 2001, Leech & Short, 2007). De-familiarization is another stylistic device used to present to readers the common things/ideas in an unfamiliar way in order to enhance their perception of the familiar things (ibid).

These two stylistic tools are not only suited to the analysis of literary texts but also to the scrutiny of the language of different disciplines. McIntyre (2003) assumed that foregrounding theory proffers an essential medium and powerful devices of presentation and analysis in stylistics. It might be employed not only in the analysis of texts but also as a methodology in teaching stylistic analysis. McIntyre thus suggests that when "de-familiarizing a work of art or a text we make it stand out from the norm − it becomes foregrounded " (McIntyre, 2003), and hence, the two theories of foregrounding and de-familiarization are deemed to be intertwined. Later, Jeffries and McIntyre (2010, p.3) maintain, "Stylistics draws upon theories and models from other fields more frequently than it develops its own unique theories. This is because it is at a point of confluence of many sub-disciplines of linguistics, and other disciplines but not seeking to duplicate or replace them". Some authors have applied the theory of foregrounding to the language of advertising (e.g., Bassey Ufot 2017).

C. Caricatures

Semiotics, as mentioned above, focuses on non-verbal communication (signs). Caricatures are one of those genres that communicate ideas with exaggeration and in an abnormal way. They contain some peculiar styles for communication. The caricaturist uses his unique/ idiosyncratic style to present the familiar ideas in an unfamiliar way to increase audience perception of the targeted phenomena. Caricature is originally an Italian word which means to load or exaggerate (Lynch, 1926). It is a regular style of communication in media. It occupies a vast space in almost all newspapers and magazines worldwide. Caricatures are simple hand-drawings that show the features of their objects in a style of overstatement and sarcasm. Caricatures are paintings/drawings (sign) and are intended to convey ideas, themes, and concepts (interpretant) which cannot be easily conveyed through texting. Chalániová (2011:7) said: "I am of the opinion that in the present-day fast commercial society, political cartoons are more easily 'digested' by the public than a page-long expert opinion, simply because they can be 'consumed' within seconds". The message behind caricatures is to inform, educate, amuse, publicize information in a funny way. It records the events of life in a memorable way and discusses some domestic issues in a comical style of speaking. The caricaturists reflect on society. They watch the performance of the power and bring to the surface the officials' cons (Sandbrook, 2010 & Morris, 1992). Bakhtin (1990) says that a painted portrait gives us another person's point of view about something. A picture, just like a literary work of art (sign), consists of an object (a referent) and a perspective taken towards it (interpretant). Caricaturists commonly have big ideas. They use caricatures to convey the maximum intended message to the audience with minimal effort. The readers easily grasp the intended idea with its different layers of meaning at first glance to the caricatures. Caricatures may also be used as signs and as such fall within the purview of study. Caricaturists tend to over-emphasize some features of the object. For example, they show famous people with enormous nose, teeth, lips or ears to let the readers concretize the idea behind such exaggeration. Press (1981: p.77) indicates that "caricatures are low satire, ridiculing individuals and parties". Indeed, caricatures communicate messages from real life to the recipient (Cahn, 1984). As an art, it has a great power to zoom in and criticize social and political issues in society (Edward 1997, Feldman, 1995). These caricatures are either political, educational or economic.

II. Data Analysis

A. Political Caricatures

Political caricature conveys a political message to both politicians and readers alike. A caricaturist draws some features of politicians in an exaggerated style to zoom in what they do in their profession. Semiotically, Pierce's trichotomy analysis of the sign/object relationship can be noticed in all caricatures. For example, the physical appearances of the characters in a caricature refer to the real objects. This is an iconic relation between the sign and the object. Viewed as an index, political events and the behavior of politicians are the causes of drawing these caricatures. The case being thus, caricatures are the results of real political behaviors. Finally, when seen as a symbol, the way the caricatures are drawn and the features that are exaggerated are conventionally praised or belittled by the people who share political, economic, and cultural conditions in the targeted society (Greenberg 2002, Hansen, 2011). The caricatures under study here are samples out of many ones collected. Moreover, the foregrounding and de-familiarization elements of the caricatures will be brought into focus in order to enhance the semio-stylistic sense in these caricatures.

A)

Figure 1: War in Yemen
(Alwatan Newspaper, March 2016, Saudi Arabia,)

This caricature refers to the enmity between Iran and some Arab countries. The former interferes ideologically in the affairs of some Arab countries through their local fans. Yemen is one of them. The Arab coalition launched the military crackdown called “Storm of Determination” against Iran and its allies in Yemen.

The trichotomy parts of the sign are shown in this caricature. First, some elements of the caricature; a man with his turban and attire (sign) represents the leader of The Iranian Islamic Revolution (object). The relation between them is iconic because the person in the caricature resembles the Sheaa spiritual leader. Second, interference of Iran in Yemen (sign) is the reason behind cutting its hand (object) by the Arab Coalition Forces. Therefore, the elements of the caricature; the drone and the cut hand are the result of interference. This relation between the reason (sign) and the effect (object) is the index. Third, the perspective of some Arabs about Iran is negative because of the skeptic and ruining role it plays in the region. This view is conventional and might be changed if Iran changes its policy in the region. So, the relation between the skeptic role of Iran (sign) and the Arab perspective (object) is symbolic. This relationship between parts of the sign and part of the object in the caricature creates unsatisfying stance among Arabs about Iran (interpretant). This perspective is eligible for change if reverse policy from Iran is adopted.

B)

Figure 2: Corruption
(Aljamhuria Newspaper, November 2017, Yemen)

The relation between a corrupt regime and its people is depicted clearly in this caricature. The caricaturist shows the horrible situation people live in corruption. Whatever the people sock away, they pay it to the government as taxes. The basics for life are not available for people. On the other hand, the corrupt in the power lead a luxurious life.

The almost naked and skinny person in the caricature resembles the poor person in reality. The obese one refers to the corrupt government. The abstract relationship between some elements of the caricature (sign) and the real people (object) is iconic. The massive and unfair taxes the poor people pay to the corrupt government results in a big gap in society. The majority of the people suffer and the corrupt become rich and wealthy. This relation is an index. Finally, in the corrupt regime, it is conventional that the majority of the population suffer and live in poverty. However, only a few people live in luxury (interpretant). This means the former is common people who pay the heavy taxes and the latter is the government which does not care about them. This relation is symbolic. If the government changes its policy and care about the poor, this traditional view about it might be more positive.

C)

Figure 3: Religious People and Terrorism
(Alwatan Newspaper 2018, Saudi Arabia,)

Terrorism is a shameful deed and is condemned by all religions and societies worldwide. Some religious people play double standards in society. They deceive innocent people and ask them to protect religion and nation by killing civilians (disbelievers so they believe.) They keep luring them to commit suicide bombings in order to get high position in the hereafter. At the same time, they send their kids overseas to study and get certificates.

From the iconic side, the three individuals in the caricature resemble what actually is the case. The individual with visor and carries the bomb is the terrorist. The man with a light in his right hand flaming the bomb is the one who pushes the person to kill people. Simultaneously, his left hand is hugging his son who has a certificate. The fanatic stance (interpretant) of the guy to suicide is the result of the constant attempting from the religious person to do so. Therefore, it is the indexical relation between reason and effect (sign/object). The suspicious stances of some religious people accumulate this view about them in some society (interpretant). This conventional view is symbolic. It might be altered according to the society's trend.

D)

Figure 4: Athletic Doping Scandal in Russian
(Russian Today Newspaper, July 2016, Russian)

The caricature sheds light on the athletic doping scandals committed by some Russian athletes. President Putin was accused of encouraging such deeds.

The face of the Russian president Putin and the logo of the Olympic games he wears (sign) refers to the real objects. The relationship between them is iconic. Russian athletes won many Olympic medals. After blood tests, some positive doping diagnosis (sign) put them in the blacklist. The caricature shows Putin (Russian athletes) is poor ethically and strong with doping (object). The connection between sign and object is index. The common perspective about Russian athletes (interpretant) is passive because of the doping scandal they did. They need to prove the opposite to change people's minds about them.

E)

Figure 5: The USA and North Korean nuclear negotiations
(Financial Times, March 2018, UK)

America shoulders the responsibility of North Korea denuclearization. Instead of the longtime dispute between America and North Korea, President Trump prefers negotiation to this issue.

The caricature shows Kim Jong-un, Donald Trump, the match court, and the nuclear weapon as a ball. North Korean's president wins the negotiation because he focuses on his goal while Trump is busy twitting. The relation between some elements of the sign in the caricature and the object they refer to is iconic. To show the indexical relationship, the caricature reflects what happened in negotiation. North Korea triumphed over America. The relation between caricature (sign) and the reality (object) is a correspondence in fact. The people worldwide had the impression before the negotiation that Trump could denuclearize North Korea. However, the view reversed. Nothing happened, but a victory for North Korea (interpretant). This connection between (sign) and object is symbolic.

Stylistically, in the caricatures above, some components surprise readers. They deviate from the socially accepted norms. In caricature 1, there are some foregrounded elements such as, the big hand of the Iranian person that extends to Yemen and the Arab Coalition drone that cut the Iranian's hand. The caricaturist de-familiarizes these elements to enhance the idea of action and reaction in both sides. In Caricature 2, there are unexpected irregularities. The caricaturist personalizes the corrupt government as an obese person and people/citizens as a skinny and semi-naked person. This idiosyncratic style of the caricaturist is foregrounding. In caricature 3, it is known about religious people that they guide people to the right path. However, the abstract foregrounding of religious people in the caricature shows them otherwise. In caricature 4, the extraordinary big and tiny muscles of Russian's president are unexpected irregularity/ deviation to show the contradiction between ethic and doping. In caricature 5, the field of the match, ball (nuclear weapon), bats are all foregrounding elements to represent the negotiation. This style of communication in all caricatures are foregrounding because the caricaturists use idiosyncratic styles to present to the readers the familiar thing in an unfamiliar way in order to support and enhance their perception about the issues raised.

B. Social Caricatures

As mentioned earlier, caricatures are loaded with political, cultural and social messages. Social ones criticize unwanted social behavior. Hadjadj (2005) divides social caricatures into three categories; pictorial caricatures, gags caricatures, and illustrative caricatures. They are the mirror of society and they tackle contradictions and ills in the community in a satirical way. Therefore, the real connection between caricatures *sign* and object is iconic. The indexical relation between caricatures *sign* and object is a correspondence in fact. The traditional/cultural relation between some elements of sign and some elements of the object is symbolic because it shows people's general trend about them. All these trichotomy parts of sign/object connections are noticed in the following social caricatures.

A)

Figure 6: Refugees in EU
(Daily China, January 2016, China)

The refugee's crisis becomes a dilemma all over the world. The natural disasters and civil wars give birth to hundred thousands of homeless people. Their life is at risk in their country and similarly, they are not welcomed by EU countries.

The caricature shows the horrible situation of the refugees. They are suspended on ruined bridge, fire is in their homeland and fire is waiting for them in EU countries. Home, refugees, EU, and the ruined bridge are the sign. They refer to the real objects. This relation between some elements of a sign and some elements of an object is iconic because it reflects the reality *(interpretant*). The caricature also has a correspondence in fact to form an indexical relation between the sign and object. The common views about refugees are that they can't go back home, they currently live in bad and inhuman conditions and they are not welcomed by nations they aim to go (interpretant). This conventional relation between sign and object is symbolic.

B)

Figure 7: Bank loan
(Okaz Newspaper, March 2016, Saudi Arabia)

The bank loan is people's nightmare. The three parts of the caricature are; the bank, the borrower and the loan. The bank provides loan for the clients, however, the consequences of that are horrible. It imposes heavy interests on the borrower. He becomes the sustainable income source for the bank for many years.

The fat man represents the bank. The standing man is the borrower and the crock is the loan. The caricaturist writes the word bank and loan to emphasize the iconic relation between them (sign) and the real objects. He also exaggerates in displaying the pockets of the standing man as the cow's teats full of milk (money). The majority of people who are under bank debts complain of the heavy and never-ending interests. This caricature speaks what people suffer from in reality. Therefore, the relation between some sign's elements and some object's elements is indexical, because unless there is complaining, there is no caricature. Culturally and conventionally speaking, those who have bank transactions related to loans always pay high-interest rates (*interpretant*). This relationship between sign (caricature) and object (people perspective) is symbolic.

C)

Figure 8: BA graduate then and now
(Alwatan newspaper. April 2017, Saudi Arabia,)

In the past, BA certificate holders had a privileged status in society. The good quality of education, they got, qualified them to get a job easily. However, at present, the situation has changed. Numerous graduates with low quality of education and similarly, few numbers of vacant jobs make the situation of the graduates horrible.

There is an intertwined connection between caricature as a sign and the real object. The right part of it shows a graduate smiling. He would be someone "big" in society. The left part of it refers to the graduate with so many questions in his mind. No jobs are available. So many rivals in the same field apply for a single post. This relation between parts of the sign and parts of the object is iconic. The indexical relation between sign and object can be noticed in the low quality of education nowadays. It resulted in so many graduates with low quality; on the other hand, the good quality in the past resulted in qualified graduates. In the past, the quality of education is far better than the one today. This is the traditional view of society about the graduate then and now. This relationship between signified (sign) and society view (interpretant) is symbolic.

D)

Figure 9: TV Program Contest
(Abu Nawaf network, https://abunawaf.com)

The plethora of contest programs on TV channels becomes the subject matter of people worldwide. The producers' luring techniques drag a huge number of viewers to participate in the contest via phone calls. Usually, the viewer/ participant holds on for a long time waiting for his turn to answer the questions. Of course, holding on for long drains the balance he has. If he wins a prize, though it rarely happens, he will lose double the amount of money on recharging the balance to holding on and waiting for his turn.

The connection between the viewer and the TV program with two hands(sign) and the reality (object) is iconic. On the other hand, the obsession of a person to win the prize and, simultaneously, spend a lot of money on charging his cell phone balance (sign) is the effect of the composer's luring techniques (object) for the person to participate is an indexical relation. People have a common trend that all TV contents programs are fraud. They take much more than what they give (*interpretant*). This conventional view is symbolic.

Stylistically in the social caricatures discussed above, there are some elements that stand out from the other surrounding ones in each caricature. They are foregrounded. The caricaturists intend to de-familiarize them for the purpose of reinforcing the perception of familiar things. In caricature 1, the caricaturist concretizes and visualizes the psychological and physical suffering of the refugees worldwide. In caricature 2, the people who are under bank debts are the sustainable income interests source for the bank. In caricature 3, the foregrounding elements (at present and past) summarize the statue of the graduates before and at present. In caricature 4, the unexpected irregularity (showing TV program with two hands) is foregrounding because it de-familiarizes the familiar things.

III. Conclusion

Icon, index, and symbol are the significant issues in sign. The relation between sign and object in them generate further interpretants. This paper focuses on signs beyond verbal communication. The caricatures I analyzed above are likewise. The relationship between sign and object in all caricatures results in one of the three ways (*interpretants*). First, it is an icon if the relationship is likeness. Second, it is index if it has correspondence in fact. Third, it is a symbol if it is imputed characters. Stylistically, caricaturists use an idiosyncratic style to convey intended ideas. This style is foregrounding because they use unexpected irregularity/deviation via making certain items of the images stand out from others. They also de-familiarize familiar things to shed light on the intended ideas.

Appendix

Caricature		**No.**	**Sign**	**Object**	**Interpretant**	**Foregrounding elements**
Icon	**political**	1	caricature	Iranian leader	Iranian leader	Long hand and adorn cuts the hand
		2	caricature	Government, people	Corrupt government and hungry people	Hungry man feeds wealthy man.
		3	caricature	Religious man, his son, and a terrorist	Double standard religious people play in society	Religious man is Flaming the bomb in the hand of others and hugging his graduate son.
		4	caricature	Russian's president	Winning games prizes and doping scandal	Monster muscle with doping and tiny one with ethic.
		5	caricature	North Korean and American's presidents, field of match, cell phone and unclear weapon	NK president wins the negotiations	Negotiation is as a ball match. American lost.
	social	1	caricature	Refugees situation	Horrible and inhuman situation of refugees	Fire in both sides, ruined bridge they stand on
		2	caricature	Bank, loan and borrower	Heavy and long interests taken from	Borrower with cow's teats, crock (loan),and fat man

					borrower.	(bank)
		3	caricature	Graduates before and at present	Good social status for graduates in the past, unsatisfying status for graduates at the present	B.A certificate with fat person in the past and B.A certificate with skinny person at present.
		4	caricature	TV program contests	They take more than what they give	TV program contests with two hands
Index	Political	1	caricature	Crackdown against Iran In Yemen	Iran interference in the affairs of Yemen	Long Iranians' leader hand that extends to Yemen, a drone that cut the hand
		2	caricature	The corrupt regime and the people	People suffer and corrupts enjoy	Personalize the corrupt government as an obese person and citizens as a skinny one
		3	caricature	Religious people, their sons and terrorists	Double standards are followed by religious people	Flaming the bomb with hand and hugging his son with the other hand.
		4	caricature	Doping scandals among Russian athletes	They won many medals because of doping.	Enormous and skinny muscles.
		5	caricature	Nuclear negotiation between America and North Kora.	America lost and North Korea won	Match field, nuclear as a ball, Trump and Kim as two teams, Kim scored a goal.
	social	1	caricature	refugees	They left their country going to Europe	Fire in both sides of the bridge, and the bridge itself is ruined.
		2	caricature	Bank loan	Massive interests	Borrower with cow's teats. The bank as a person milks the cow
		3	caricature	Before the graduate was happy, but now he is not happy	Graduate before is better than the one today	A fat person is drawn in the certificate before, and a slim person is drawn on the certificate at present
		4	caricature	Contests' programs are pickpockets	Contests' programs are fraud	Contest program with two hands.
Symbol	Political	1	caricature	Iran interference in Yemen	Skeptic and unsatisfying role of Iran in Yemen	Long Iranians' leader hand that extends to Yemen, a drone that cut the hand
		2	caricature	Corrupt government and poor people	The corruption makes people suffer	Personalize the corrupt government as an obese person and citizens as a skinny one
		3	caricature	Religious people ruin community by their double standard role they do.	People hate some religious people behavior in society	Flaming the bomb with hand and hugging his son with the other hand.
		4	caricature	Russian athletes won many medals	Doping scandal is twinned with Russian athletes.	Enormous and skinny muscles.
		5	caricature	Negotiation between NK and USA over nuclear weapon.	NK won and legalized its nuclear weapon	Match field, nuclear as a ball, Trump and Kim as two teams.
	Social	1	caricature	refugees	Inhuman situation of them	Fire in both sides, ruined bridge they stand on
		2	caricature	Bank loan	Massive interests	Borrower with cow's teats. The bank as a person milks the cow
		3	caricature	Graduate before and nowadays	Graduates before are better than graduates nowadays	A fat person is drawn in the certificate before, and a slim person is drawn on the certificate at present
		4	caricature	Contests' programs	They are fraud	Contest program with two hands.

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Developing Students' Writing through Scaffolding Techniques in a Workshop Forum

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***Abstract*—This study aimed at enhancing students' essay writing skills at the secondary stage through scaffolding techniques in a workshop forum. The participants of the study were 40 students at the first secondary stage in a governmental language school. Qualitative methods were used in data analysis; a sample of students' writings was analyzed in light of the academic writing assessment criteria (Rose et al. 2008). A pre-posttest was administered to highlight progress in students' writing in the three genres. Scaffolding techniques proved to be effective in improving students' writing skills, specifically in the selected writing genres the study focused on which was evident in their second and third drafts. Interviews with high school teachers of English emphasized students need for innovative scaffolding techniques to help them develop as efficient writers. The workshop forum encouraged students to work together as one team and to express their ideas fluently to excel in their writing assignments. Having an authentic reason for writing motivated them to do research and to refine their writing to be good enough to share with others.**

***Index Terms*—scaffolding techniques, writing skills, writing genres, writing workshops**

I. Introduction

Writing has always been a major obstacle facing students who study languages in general and English as a foreign language in specific. Students are required to express their ideas and feelings in a language that they have not mastered. Hence, they have struggled to find ways to achieve fluency in writing and teachers have always dug deep to find innovative teaching techniques to help students become better writers. Students frustration when getting their written work back full of red marks that provided no guidance for them to improve their written pieces needed to be addressed. Researchers worked on finding solutions and teachers are always faced with that challenge; how they could help students improve their writing.

In the context of teaching English as a foreign language (EFL), students who are in the first secondary stage are considered in the intermediate level (B2) according to the European Framework of Reference for Languages (1996). Students at that level:

- "Can write an essay or report which develops an argument, giving reasons in support of or against a particular point of view and explaining the advantages and disadvantages of various options.
- Can synthesize information and arguments from a number of sources.
- Can write short, simple essays on topics of interest.
- Can summarize, report and give his/her opinion about accumulated factual information on familiar routine and non-routine matters within his/her field with some confidence." (The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages, 1996).

Regarding the writing skills, the actual level of the students in most governmental schools is below the defined level for that stage. This assumption was supported by previous research on students at the secondary stage and by the results of analysis of a sample of students' writing. Students find difficulty when they are asked to write about a specific topic especially when they are given no assistance. This could be due to a number of factors among which are: the lack of a consistent method for teaching writing, students are memorizing paragraphs by heart, then recalling them when asked to rewrite about it on the exam. Interviewing teachers also ensured this lack of consistency in teaching writing, which resulted in deterioration in students' writing skills and loss of direction.

Through conducting the pilot study, analyzing students' writing samples and having interviews with English teachers, the research problem surfaced as English teachers didn't follow a defined teaching technique in teaching writing. Most teachers assigned students with a certain topic and gave them a number of elements to talk about without providing them with enough assistance throughout the process of writing. That led some students to feel that writing is such a huge burden they don't have the skills to fulfil. Most teachers focused on the grammatical aspects of writing and did not know how to provide students with needed guidance to improve their written piece. For the above mentioned reasons and for the importance of writing as a core component in the first secondary stage curriculum, this study seeks to answer the following main question:

How can teachers improve students' writing skills?

The following sub questions are derived from the main question:

What are the English writing skills required for first secondary stage students?

What are the English writing skills that the students have?

What is the suggested teaching model which is based on scaffolding that helps to develop students' writing skills in the three defined genres: email/letter, essay, and autobiography?

What is the effectiveness of the proposed model in enhancing students' writing skills?

II. Literature Review

Vygotsky's social theory advocates that learning takes place in a social community where more capable adults provide needed assistance. Scaffolding students in a level above the level they reached proved to be helpful as students work within their mastery level but a little higher, which challenges them to achieve, but does not frustrate them if it is too high, or bore them if it's too low. Studies verified that scaffolding helps students move to the next developmental stage.

Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD):

The social constructivist theory (1978) suggests that mental functions appear on the social plane first with more capable peers or adults. Scaffolding occurs in what Vygotsky calls the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD). It is defined as the distance between what a person can do independently and with the assistance of an adult; the distance between one's current level of development and the developmental level he/she can reach with adult's help. With more practice, the experience is internalized and one is capable of fulfilling the required task on their own and in new contexts. Pearson & Fielding (1991) suggested a model that involves the gradual transfer of responsibility from the teacher to the student. Rogoff (1990) points out that scaffolding facilitates students job as it divides the task for them, while it keeps it a whole for the teacher, which helps students handle it in an authentic way (Pearson, 1996).

According to the National Curriculum Framework for English as a Foreign Language: Secondary Stage (Grades 10 – 12) students are expected to:

"Write creatively, in a range of different forms and media, with imagination and commitment."

Based on the skills specified in the common European Framework of Reference for Languages and in light of the National Curriculum for English as a foreign language, three types of writing are selected for this study. Every type will take approximately three weeks. They are:

1. Essay for or against: Problem solving (provision of a problem, finding solutions) about environmental issues.
2. Writing a letter/email describing a house for sale (Advertisement) (2-3 weeks). Design an advertisement for a journal or a magazine (authentic purpose)
3. Biography (writing about famous people). Students select the topic (politics- art- personal) according to their interest. Then they work towards authentic reason; for example, creating their own magazine.

The scaffolding techniques used are:

Modelling, peer editing, instructor editing, final product (group revision) in a workshop forum.

Scaffolding:

Wood, Bruner, and Ross (1976) defined scaffolding as a "process that enables a child or novice to solve a problem, carry out a task or achieve a goal which would be beyond his unassisted efforts" (p. 90). Other definitions include, "supported situations in which children can extend current skills and knowledge to a higher level of competence" (Rogoff, 1990, p. 93), "what teachers say and do to enable children to complete complex mental tasks they could not complete without assistance" (Pearson & Fielding, 1991, p. 842), others describe scaffolding as "a process whereby a teacher monitors students' learning carefully and steps in to provide assistance on an as- needed basis" (Wharton McDonald et al., 1998, p. 116), or "a temporary supportive structure that teachers create to assist a student or a group of students to accomplish a task that they couldn't complete alone" (Graves, Watts, & Graves, 1994, p. 44). Graves & Graves (2003) added that scaffolding can help students better complete a task with less stress or in less time, or to learn more fully than they would have otherwise, Pressley (2002) defines scaffolding as that which gives support to a building under construction until it is strong enough to stand on its own. The situation is similar when a more capable person gives support to a student until he/she is able to achieve an academic goal. The support is provided only when the child needs it and until the child catches on.

The term scaffolding was first related to the Zone of Proximal Development; then Bruner (1978) used it to describe the verbal assistance given by a mother to her child, which leads to the development of language learning. Scaffolding also refers to the assistance provided by a tutor to a less skilled tutee in problem solving (Hekamaki, 2005). Wood et al. (1976) underline that scaffolding does not stop at the completion of the required task, however it further leads to the development of task competence at a rate that outperforms his/her unassisted effort. Walqui (2006) divides scaffolding into three pedagogical steps: First, the provision of a support structure, second the undertaking of activities, and third, the assistance given through interaction.

Nguyen (2013) points out that the use of scaffolding does not only apply to an interaction between a novice and an expert, but it has extended to include peer collaboration (e.g. De Guerrero & Villamil, 2000; Barnard, 2002) as well as class interactions between a teacher and students (Riazi & Rezaii, 2011). Van Lier (2004) proposes six qualities for scaffolding: First, continuity, which means the repetition of action over time; second contextual support, that means the presence of a safe learning community where errors are perceived as part of the learning process; third intersubjectivity, which includes reciprocal involvement and support; fourth flow, which refers to a natural communication that flows among participants; fifth contingency, this means the kind of support depends on the reactions of learners; sixth, handover/takeover, the role of learners increases as they gain more confidence and skills. Lidz (1991) proposes a list of components for assisted learning, which are summarized in table 1.

Table 1
Lidz's components of assisted learning via scaffolding

1. Influence the learner's actions through interaction, engagement of attention, and goals.
2. Highlight important aspects, mark relevant differences, and elaborate detailed information.
3. Draw on the learner's past experiences and potential future ones.
4. Visualize the learner's work through his/her eyes.
5. Share experiences that may stimulate new ideas.
6. Manipulating the task to facilitate problem solving and induce strategic thinking.
7. Encourage the learner that he/she has done something good to boost self-esteem.
8. Challenge the learner within but not beyond his/her ZPD.
9. Remember that the learning experience is the learners not the experts to avoid competition.
10. Be familiar with the learner's behavior and respond to it appropriately.
11. Give the learner a sense of caring and enjoyment in the task.
12. Find areas of improvement and communicate them to the learner.

Note: This table is an overview of research done by Lidz, C. S. (1991). *Practitioner's Guide to Dynamic Assessment*. New York: Guilford Press.

Genre:

Hyland & Paltridge (2011) define "genre" as "a set of texts that have similar socially recognizable purpose, rhetorical and structural elements. The term is used to distinguish different text types" (Hyland, 2004; Lee, 2012). Genre analysis aims at identifying the language used by people in these types of texts.

Shum (2010) defines genre as types of texts that have common social or communal purposes. He identifies the characteristics of genre as: a staged, goal-oriented, purposeful, cultural activity that refers to language in use.

Genre is also defined as any written or spoken texts that have objectives and "social action mapped onto text- types" Martin, 1985, cited in Shum, 2010, p. 30). Shum (2010) also adds that the study of writing using a genre-based approach underlines the importance of context in understanding writing. Each genre has a different schematic structure to fulfil its social function. Gibbons (2002) highlights the major characteristics for genre as follows: Every genre has a purpose, a particular structure, certain linguistic features, and it is culture specific.

Writing Workshop:

A writing workshop differs from other approaches to writing in many ways. Students in a writing workshop choose the topics they should write about (Avery, 1993). Students make decisions about what to write, when to revise, edit and publish their work. Writing sessions go through three steps: the first is a mini-lesson during which the teacher or a more competent student models elements of good writing, the second component is workshop during which students write on topics of their choice, then discuss elements of their writing with the teacher in a writing conference, and the third component is sharing. During this part students share their writing piece with their writing partner, then the teacher chooses one or two students to share their writing with the rest of the class in the author's role (Calkins, 1994 and Graves, 1994). Discussions and conversations are an important part of the writing workshop (Avery, 1993)

The conversation that takes place in the writing conferences is completely different from the kinds of conversations that occur in many classrooms (Cazden, 1988). As teachers don't dominate class discussions and give students guidance and support as co-learners (Avery, 1993). The teacher assists the student's learning to be able to complete his/her new task, which is termed "scaffolding" (Bruner, 1986). Scaffolding, whether given by the teacher or students, allows students to improve their writing. During peer work, students give each other feedback on their writing. The process of listening to one another's writing with the aim of enhancing it helps students reread their writing for an imagined reader, which research proved makes the difference between a good and a poor writer (Flower &Hayes, 1980; Sommers, 1980). Social interaction between the teacher and the students and the students among themselves is mandatory for scaffolding to take place, which is based on the theories of social constructivism and cognitive apprenticeship (Collins, Brown & Newman, 1989).

Peer Editing:

Research has indicated that mere correction of students writing errors in a foreign language does not lead to enhancement in their writing skills. But when students receive feedback from an expert along with error correction, their ability to correct these mistakes in their subsequent writings improves (Semke, 1982, 1984; Lalande, 1982; Kepner, 1991; Reichelt, 1999, 2001 Paten, 2002; Byrd, 2003; Yang, 2006).

Barnard (2002) uses a workshop methodology in which learners are given training to become experts in peer editing. He claims that this methodology enhances their self-assessment skills and self-confidence to assess others' writings. The results of this study showed significant improvement in the learners' writing as a result of the use of workshop and peer feedback. He recommended these kinds of workshops as he believes they have a huge impact on students writing, and their self-image as writers. Moreover, successful peer- editors learn a number of writing techniques, and gain critical analysis skills that impact their writing skills (Tang & Tithecott, 1999; Paten, 2002).

Both writing workshop projects and peer-editing share the collaborative nature, which studies indicated facilitates writing skills development more than lecturing or any other teacher directed strategies (Mangelsdorf & Schlumberger, 1992; Nelson & Murphy, 1993; De Guerrero & Villamil, 1994; Lockhart & Ng, 1995; McGroarty & Zhu, 1997). Using peer- feedback also creates a sense of commitment, which leads to a richer learning community (De Guerrero & Villamil, 1994). During the feedback debriefing sessions, students usually use peer-advising, clarification and sometimes their first language to help in the revision (Villamil & de Guerrero, 1996). These actions are considered scaffolding writing techniques, which are led by "a long-term sense of direction and continuity, a local plan of action, and a moment-to-moment interactional decision-making" (van Lier, 1996, p. 199).

Writing workshops also allow students to write for authentic audience, which previous studies referred to its importance in raising students interest in writing because they feel that their writing counts. They can imagine their readers, which is thought to influence their writing as they perceive it as a means of communication not an academic task that is used only for assessment (Graves, 1994; Calkins, 1994; Atwell, 1998; Dahl & Farnan, 1998; Elbow, 2002 Black, 2008, 2009; Kelley, 2009).

Kelley (2009) and Black (2009) conducted a study on their college second language students who were enrolled in their writing classes. The students were asked to write children's short stories, which they were asked to read to grade school students. They found out that their students writing improved substantially and also their dedication to creative writing as they were writing for a real purpose and they had real audience that they wrote for.

III. Method

A. Design of the Study

The study uses a quasi-experimental approach using one experimental group. The suggested instructional model uses scaffolding techniques as its basis. The writing skills for first secondary school students were defined through analyzing their writings in the three genres specified in the curriculum description and compared to the writing skills determined by the Common European Framework of Reference for that stage to identify the skills they mastered and the ones they need to develop. The suggested model uses scaffolding techniques that assist students in their writing tasks in the three genres specified in the curriculum: email/letter, essay, and autobiography.

B. Participants

The study participants are 40 students; 10 girls and 30 boys in their first secondary stage in Mustafa Kamel governmental language school, Omrania Zone, Giza governorate. Their age ranges between 16 and 17 years old. The students are in the intermediate language level (B2) according to the Common European Framework of Reference. The students are observed during their English A level writing classes.

C. Instruments

1. A checklist of the writing skills required for first secondary stage school students as listed in the Common European Framework of Reference (CFR). The list was validated by jury members.
2. A pre-posttest to determine students writing skills before and after the implementation of the suggested instructional model. The test was given to jury members to assess its validity. The test was administered to another sample after two weeks and the reliability level has been acceptable at 0.86 on Cronbach's alpha. The test was divided to three sections, each focused on one genre. Students writings were analyzed to define the writing skills students have and those that they lack to be incorporated in the suggested model.
3. An Assessment criterion (an analytic scoring rubric for writing skills was used to assess participants' writings before and after the implementation of the suggested model to measure students' progress in the items tested by the rubric. Items assessed included: genre, register, discourse, grammar, and graphic features (refer to appendix 1 for definitions of terms used in the analytic scoring rubric (Rose et al 2008).

D. The Suggested Instructional Model

The instructional model suggested is based on the sociocultural theory, specifically on incorporating scaffolding techniques in a workshop forum and measuring its impact on their writing. Students were presented with a new genre every three weeks.

First, they were asked to write in the specified genre. They would be provided with an explanation of that genre and its main characteristics, the next step they would be presented with a model to familiarize them with how capable others write in that genre. They would be asked to write their own piece using the vocabulary and resources introduced to facilitate their task. The following step would be to self-correct their writing with the help of a given model and some set criteria. In a workshop forum the students and the teacher discuss suggestions for improvement. Students then were asked to peer correct each other's writings. The final step would be for the instructor to correct students' writing. The three drafts give the students three chances to get feedback on their writing and consequently to improve it. For example, they were first asked to write an email/ a letter on an advertisement for selling a house they own. After following the steps mentioned above, they end up having an improved piece of writing. After three weeks of working on that genre, students were assigned a new task, which involves working on a new genre, this time an autobiographical sketch of someone they admire or look up to. The same process would be repeated in a workshop forum, students' writings were discussed and the three drafts would be corrected first by the student him/herself, followed by a peer correction, and by the instructor.

The scaffolding the students get during the workshops take many forms; provision of eloquent relevant vocabulary, getting various forms of feedback through self, peers and the instructor, and discussions, which lead to the enhancement of their writings.

The third task was argumentative essay that involves problem solving genre; students were asked to write about an environmental problem of their choice. Students were presented with a number of environmental problems to choose from. As is the case with the other two types of writings, these issues were discussed and related vocabulary was introduced, the teacher undergoes a discussion of each problem, explores causes and suggested solutions with the students, provides some resources for students to further explore the environmental problem they choose to write about. Students write their first draft, the instructor provides criteria for correction for students to self-correct, peer correct, and finally the instructor corrects their third draft after having discussions with the student in a workshop forum. Scaffolding students' drafts and the provision of suggestions for improvement lead to the enhancement of students' writings gradually and steadily.

IV. Statistical Results

Comparing the results of the pre and posttests for the three tasks with which participants were assigned showed noticeable improvements in favor of the posttest results. Pre and posttest results are represented in table 1.

Table I
T Test To Indicate The Difference Between Pre-Measurement And Post-Measurement In The Three Task Grades Of The Experimental Group

Domain	Measures	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	t-value	Significance	Indication
Task 1	**Pre**	40	14,08	3,67	12,235	0,000	Significant
	Post	40	21,05	4,21			
Task 2	**Pre**	40	14,38	3,34	11,160	0,000	Significant
	Post	40	21,15	3,91			
Task 3	**Pre**	40	14,80	3,09	15,798	0,000	Significant
	Post	40	21,98	3,13			

Table (1) shows the following:

- The values of (T) were statistically significant in each of the three tasks; the statistical significance of all the T-tests was 0.000 indicating that there are statistically significant differences between the mean of the pre and the post-experimental measurement of the experimental group in the three tasks. The increase manifested in students' posttests results could be explained in terms of the scaffolding provided to students.

Table 2 presents students' writings in the three drafts, each corrected three times once by the student, then by a peer and finally by the instructor in light of academic writing assessment criteria (Rose et al., 2008)

Table II
T Test To Indicate The Difference Between Drafts In The Writing Grades Of Students In The Experimental Group.

Domain	Measures	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	t-value	Significance	Indication
Writing (persuasive essay) (advertisement) Email/letter	**Draft 1**	40	45,40	9,67	13,40	0,000	Significant
	Draft 2	40	53,42	9,07			
Writing Argumentative essay (Problem Solving)	**Draft 1**	40	45,40	9,67	16,55	0,000	Significant
	Draft 3	40	60,60	9,30			
Writing (Autobiography)	**Draft 2**	40	53,42	9,07	15,84	0,000	Significant
	Draft 3	40	60,60	9,30			

Table (2) shows the following:

- The values of (T) were statistically significant in each of the three drafts; the statistical significance of all the T-tests was 0.000 indicating that there were statistically significant differences between the averages of the drafts of the experimental group members. In comparing the average scores of the students in the first and second drafts, the differences were in favor of the second. By comparing the average scores of the students in the first and third drafts, the differences were in favor of the third draft. The second and third differences were in favor of the third draft, which indicates the improvement of the performance of the students of the experimental group from the first to the third in favor of the third draft. The table also summarizes the scaffolding techniques provided to students, who kept working on their three drafts through self, peer and instructor's corrections and in light of the given criteria.

The criteria used are divided into genre, register, discourse, grammar and graphic features (Rose et al., 2008, appendix 1). Genre focuses on the appropriateness of the writing task. It questions whether the writing task follows suitable stages. Register involves field, tenor, mode, and phases. First, field addresses whether the writer understands, explains and interprets the topic in a coherent way. Secondly, tenor examines the objectivity of assessment if the genre involves evaluation. Mode focuses on the appropriateness of the technical and abstract language used. Phases is related to the text organization and its sequence.

Discourse is composed of four components: lexis, conjunction, reference, and appraisal. Lexis evaluates the use and sequence of lexical relations. Conjunction is concerned with the logical relations between sentences and phrases. Reference focuses on whether who or what referred to in the text is clear. Appraisal examines whether the evaluation of ideas, arguments, people, things and texts are used sensibly.

Grammar involves the organization of sentences and if it presents information clearly. The last component in the criteria is graphic features: It underlies the clarity of the layout, the appropriateness of illustrations used, the accurateness of spelling and punctuation.

V. Results and Discussion

The results indicated that scaffolding students' writings led to noticeable improvement in their writing skills, especially in terms of genre, register, discourse, grammar, and graphic features, which are the main components of the assessment criteria used. Regarding genre, the participants' writings were enhanced as students were not following the appropriate stages: introduction, body and conclusion and were confusing some of these stages. After the implementation of the model, this aspect improved as students received explicit instruction regarding the logical stages, had extensive discussions about what each stage involves, and were given some models that demonstrated the accurate use of such stages, which led to increase in students' scores regarding genre.

Register is divided into four components: field, tenor, mode, and phases. As far as field is concerned, a large number of students' writings showed some improvement as their writings became more coherent, well organized and followed logical order. This could be explained in light of the continuous feedback students receive in many forms, which led to awareness of the importance of expressing their ideas in a connected form to make sense for the readers. Tenor also showed improvement as students learned the importance of presenting their ideas objectively through supporting their thoughts with valid arguments based on facts. The model emphasized the objectivity of students' written ideas. Mode has also been enhanced as students were directed to using the appropriate language that suits the topic of their writing and among the scaffolding they receive is the provision of relevant vocabulary that students could use in their writing. Also phases showed some enhancement as students' written work in the second and third drafts was more organized.

The use of discourse relations has improved clearly. Regarding lexis, students use of words has developed remarkably as activities used in the workshops focused on the use of suitable words and the provision of lists of possible lexical relations: synonyms, antonyms, etc. Students have been familiarized with the accurate use of lexical relations through various scaffolding techniques. Concerning the use of conjunction, its use is enhanced due to the continuous feedback they received in different forms. Reference use was clearer as students became more conscious of the importance of using reference correctly to clarify the meaning. Appraisal showed great improvement as the discussion that took place during the workshops emphasized the importance of supporting one's ideas and arguments with facts.

Students use of grammar was enhanced as their common errors were discussed in the workshops and students were provided by models that represented clear presentation of information and good organization of sentences, which helped students to imitate its use and with practice led to its improvement. Finally, the use of graphic features has improved to a good extent especially students spelling and punctuation as students were directed to find out about the correct spelling and were provided with reliable sources that explain rules for accurate use of punctuation marks, etc. Students second and third drafts showed better spelling and more accurate use of punctuation marks.

VI. Interpretations

The results indicated noticeable progress in students writing, which was manifested in increase in students' scores in all defined domains: Genre, register, discourse, grammar and graphic features. The difference was clear between students' pre and posttest results in favor of the posttests'. The results supported those reached by previous studies (Pearson, 1996; De Guerrero & Villamil, 2000; Graves and Graves, 2003; Hekamaki, 2005; Riazi & Rezaii, 2011; Nguyen, 2013), which prove that scaffolding students' writings leads to enhancement on all levels. These results were also manifested in students' three drafts, which showed improvement in each stage. The combination of scaffolding techniques used were varied and gave guidance to students in many forms, which provided them with continuous support and allowed them to self-correct their errors and also to receive feedback from their peers and the instructor. These results coincided with results of previous research that ensured the positive influence of peer editing (Avery, 1993; Tang & Tithecott, 1999; Barnard, 2002) and writing workshops (Calkins, 1994 and Graves, 1994; Dahl & Farnan, 1998; Atwell, 1998; Elbow, 2002; Black, 2008, 2009; Kelly, 2009) on enhancing students writing skills. Having various sources for support allowed students to get many chances to keep working on their drafts and to reach their maximum potential in writing. Besides, working towards an authentic purpose motivated them to work enthusiastically to reach the specified goal and to refine their piece to share among real audience.

VII. Suggested Research

It is recommended that students are not left out without assistance. More scaffolding techniques need to be uncovered to assist students in writing, reading, speaking and listening. The assistance of a more capable adult proved to be helpful at all levels and with all age groups. Researchers need to keep working on scaffolding to discover its impact on students' skills on the short and long run. It also needs to be explored more fully in other areas of language use and with other skills, such as teaching, leadership, mentorship and supervision.

Appendix A. Academic Writing Assessment Criteria (Rose et al., 2008)

Genre	• Is the genre appropriate for the writing task? Does it go through appropriate stages?
Register	• Field: Does the writer understand, interpret and/or explain the topic coherently? • Tenor: Are evaluations appropriately objective if required by the genre? • Mode: Is there an appropriate use of technical and/or abstract language if required by the genre? • Phases: Is the text organised in an appropriate sequence of phases?
Discourse	• Lexis: Is the field well-constructed by technical lexis and sequences of lexical relations? • Conjunction: Are logical relations coherently constructed between sentences and phases? • Reference: Is it clear who or what is being referred to at each step of the text? • Appraisal: Is appraisal used judiciously to evaluate ideas, arguments, people, things and texts?
Grammar	• Are sentences organised to present information coherently? Are written grammatical conventions used appropriately?
Graphic Features	• Is the layout clear, including paragraphs and sections? Are illustrations used appropriately and clearly? Is spelling accurate? Is punctuation used appropriately?

Appendix B. CEFR Common Reference Levels

UNDERSTANDING	**Listening**	I can understand familiar words and very basic phrases concerning myself, my family and immediate concrete surroundings when people speak slowly and clearly.	I can understand phrases and the highest frequency vocabulary related to areas of most immediate personal relevance (e.g., very basic personal and family information, shopping, local area, employment). I can catch the main point in short, clear, simple messages and announcements.	I can understand the main points of clear standard speech on familiar matters regularly encountered in work, school, leisure, etc. I can understand the main point of many radio or TV programmes on current affairs or topics of personal or professional interest when the delivery is relatively slow and clear.	I can understand extended speech and lectures and follow even complex lines of argument provided the topic is reasonably familiar. I can understand most TV news and current affairs programmes. I can understand the majority of films in standard dialect.	I can understand extended speech even when it is not clearly structured and when relationships are only implied and not signalled explicitly. I can understand television programmes and films without too much effort.	I have no difficulty in understanding any kind of spoken language, whether live or broadcast, even when delivered at fast native speed, provided I have some time to get familiar with the accent.
	Reading	I can understand familiar names, words and very simple sentences, for example on notices and posters or in catalogues.	I can read very short, simple texts. I can find specific, predictable information in simple everyday material such as advertisements, prospectuses, menus and timetables and I can understand short simple personal letters.	I can understand texts that consist mainly of high frequency everyday or job-related language. I can understand the description of events, feelings and wishes in personal letters.	I can read articles and reports concerned with contemporary problems in which the writers adopt particular attitudes or viewpoints. I can understand contemporary literary prose.	I can understand long and complex factual and literary texts, appreciating distinctions of style. I can understand specialised articles and longer technical instructions, even when they do not relate to my field.	I can read with ease virtually all forms of the written language, including abstract, structurally or linguistically complex texts such as manuals, specialised articles and literary works.
SPEAKING	**Spoken Interaction**	I can interact in a simple way provided the other person is prepared to repeat or rephrase things at a slower rate of speech and help me formulate what I'm trying to say. I can ask and answer simple questions in areas of immediate need or on very familiar topics.	I can communicate in simple and routine tasks requiring a simple and direct exchange of information on familiar topics and activities. I can handle very short social exchanges, even though I can't usually understand enough to keep the conversation going myself.	I can deal with most situations likely to arise whilst travelling in an area where the language is spoken. I can enter unprepared into conversation on topics that are familiar, of personal interest or pertinent to everyday life (e.g., family, hobbies, work, travel and current events).	I can interact with a degree of fluency and spontaneity that makes regular interaction with native speakers quite possible. I can take an active part in discussion in familiar contexts, accounting for and sustaining my views.	I can express myself fluently and spontaneously without much obvious searching for expressions. I can use language flexibly and effectively for social and professional purposes. I can formulate ideas and opinions with precision and relate my contribution skilfully to those of other speakers.	I can take part effortlessly in any conversation or discussion and have a good familiarity with idiomatic expressions and colloquialisms. I can express myself fluently and convey finer shades of meaning precisely. If I do have a problem I can backtrack and restructure around the difficulty so smoothly that other people are hardly aware of it.
	Spoken Production	I can use simple phrases and sentences to describe where I live and people I know.	I can use a series of phrases and sentences to describe in simple terms my family and other people, living conditions, my educational background and my present or most recent job.	I can connect phrases in a simple way in order to describe experiences and events, my dreams, hopes and ambitions. I can briefly give reasons and explanations for opinions and plans. I can narrate a story or relate the plot of a book or	I can present clear, detailed descriptions on a wide range of subjects related to my field of interest. I can explain a viewpoint on a topical issue giving the advantages and disadvantages of various options.	I can present clear, detailed descriptions of complex subjects integrating sub-themes, developing particular points and rounding off with an appropriate conclusion.	I can present a clear, smoothly-flowing description or argument in a style appropriate to the context and with an effective logical structure which helps the recipient to notice and remember significant points.
WRITING	**Writing**	I can write a short, simple postcard, for example sending holiday greetings. I can fill in forms with personal details, for example entering my name, nationality and address on a hotel registration form.	I can write short, simple notes and messages. I can write a very simple personal letter, for example thanking someone for something.	I can write simple connected text on topics which are familiar or of personal interest. I can write personal letters describing experiences and impressions.	I can write clear, detailed text on a wide range of subjects related to my interests. I can write an essay or report, passing on information or giving reasons in support of or against a particular point of view. I can write letters highlighting the personal significance of events and experiences.	I can express myself in clear, well-structured text, expressing points of view at some length. I can write about complex subjects in a letter, an essay or a report, underlining what I consider to be the salient issues. I can select a style appropriate to the reader in mind.	I can write clear, smoothly-flowing text in an appropriate style. I can write complex letters, reports or articles which present a case with an effective logical structure which helps the recipient to notice and remember significant points. I can write summaries and reviews of professional or literary works.

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Reassessing the Methods of Foreignizing and Domesticating Translation

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***Abstract*—This paper clarifies the frequently used concepts of foreignizing and domesticating translation to the extent that they can be meaningfully evaluated. As it turns out, foreignizing translation is best understood as including more than one method, with each having its own evaluative profile, and domesticating translation should be cleared of confusion with other methods that have historically brought it a bad name. Based on detailed evaluations, the paper briefly proposes collaboration as the proper way forward and also shows how the ambitious strategy of foreignizing, which might be named after the German Romantic scholar Friedrich Schleiermacher, is special and what reasons there are not to accept it. Before concluding, the paper addresses issues most relevant to translating philosophical texts, where terminologies have often already been foreignized through stipulation.**

***Index Terms*—methods of translation, foreignizing translation, domesticating translation, philosophical translation, Friedrich Schleiermacher**

I. Introduction

In translation theory, the distinction between “foreignizing translation” and “domesticating translation” is a popular one. It is also often presented in different forms, such as translating “strictly” versus “loosely”, translating “word-for-word” versus “sense-for-sense”, “moving the reader to the author” versus “moving the author to the reader”, and so on. But whichever form it takes, neither side of the distinction seems to have received clear definition or explication other than vague descriptions that try to capture the general feature. In this line, it is often said that foreignizing translation is the method that stays faithful to the language of the source text, resulting in a translation that looks strange and foreign, while domesticating translation is the method that emphasizes requirements of fluency and clarity in the target language, which makes the author appear native. But clarity is severely lacking in such descriptions if serious evaluations of the respective methods are to be made.

The task of this paper is above all to clarify the concepts of foreiginizing and domesticating translation as formally as possible (Section 2), and to fill out their evaluative profiles respectively (Sections 3 & 4). Based on such evaluations, collaboration between them is proposed as the way forward (Section 5) and reasons are given to show how an ambitious form of foreignizing translation, attributable to Friedrich Schleiermacher, is special and what reasons there are not to accept it (Section 6). Before concluding, attention is paid to issues most relevant to translating philosophical texts, where terminologies have already been foreignized through stipulation (Section 7).

II. Framework and Analysis

To arrive at the clear concepts of foreignizing and domesticating translation, it is useful to stipulate three “naturals” as foundations for following explanation: natural semantic content, natural expression, and natural usage. Here and throughout, “natural” is used in the sense of “native”, and “foreign” or “unnatural” as its antonym.

A *natural semantic content* in a linguistic community is one that people in that community understand and express with linguistic devices comfortably, without intellectual pressure. While arguably all human beings share largely the same spectrum of semantic content since they have largely identical physiological (esp. neural) structures in an evolutionary sense, different communities are sure to have different natural semantic contents due to historical contingencies. Intuitively, different portions of the ultimate spectrum of intelligibility are highlighted in different communities. Typically a natural semantic content in one community may be either natural or foreign in another.

A *natural expression* is a linguistic device, which is often a string of words rather than a single word, commonly used in the community. They are the expressions that people in the community do not find surprising merely by their look (or sound, in the case of oral language), and they are the ones to be expected in a well-composed local dictionary.

This is not to be confused with a *natural usage* of an expression. While the former is exclusively concerned with the syntactic features of the expression, this notion attends to how an expression is connected to a semantic content. Call a usage of an expression “natural” if the expression is intended to express the semantic content that people in the community typically and comfortably associate it with.

It is essential to note that while the standard case is where natural expressions are naturally used to express natural semantic contents, there are other possibilities. For example, a natural expression can be unnaturally used for some unnatural semantic content; an unnatural expression can be unnaturally used for some natural semantic content people already have a natural expression naturally used for; and so on.

This much preparatory work done, it is time to formulate what the central distinction amounts to. *Foreignizing translation*, then, is simply the way of translation that, when faced with foreign semantic contents, *employs at least one unnatural element*, either unnatural expressions or unnatural usages of expressions, or both. And *domesticating translation* amounts to the way of translation *without resorting to any unnatural elements*: both expressions and usages must be natural.

Note that, on this construal, foreignizing translation takes place only if there is foreign semantic content, which is also intuitively correct. For why bother introduce foreign elements if the semantic content is already natural to the target community, (that is, if there is already a natural expression to express it without being used unnaturally) making domesticating translation the apparently undisputable option? But this is not agreed by all, especially ambitious foreignizing translators, whom will be discussed in due course; for the time being, the arguments stick to the more commonsensical.

III. Methods of Foreignizing Translation

As is implied, the method (purportedly singular) of foreignizing translation is in fact a collection of more than one: to express the foreign semantic content, the translator may either (i) use natural expressions unnaturally, or (ii) use unnatural expressions naturally, or (iii) use unnatural expressions unnaturally. Presumably the third option exists only as a theoretical combinatory possibility, and only the first two, which are clearly discoverable in practice, deserve a closer look.

The first option might be dubbed as "bending", as is suggested by Johann Herder, another Romantic scholar, who adopts and praises this method. Chapter 12 of Foster (2010) gives a detailed example explaining how it works.[1] Here is a brief restatement of the example: take the Greek word "*arete*" and the closest counterpart in English "virtue".[2] Despite their similarity in referring to a kind of excellence, they are not the same. For example, "*arete*" applies to pirates or habitual liars, but "virtue" does not; conversely, "virtue" applies to virtuous men who are physically weak, but "*arete*" does not. What does the method of bending do? It simply uses "virtue" in a way as if it just were "*arete*". The translator "bends" the word so that it picks up unnatural usages (allows talks about pirates of virtue) and avoids certain previously natural usages (stops talking about virtuous cripples). "Virtue" now looks like "*arete*" in disguise, hence an instance of "foreignization".

How is such a method to be evaluated? It is said to have the advantages of achieving faithfulness to the source text and enriching the target language.[3] But each claim needs to be examined more closely. First, for the faithfulness claim, if "faithfulness" means the preservation of semantic content expressed in the source language, then this achievement should be acknowledged, for after the expression is bent to the foreign shape, it does indeed preserve the original semantic content, since the semantic content of the bent expression just *is* that of the original expression, by the very definition of bending! But such preservation requires the extra care on the part of the reader to keep in mind that whatever is presented on the page might have been bent to mean something different. In this sense, the best one can say is that the preservation of content is what the method is capable of but not its advantage.

What about the alleged advantage of enriching the target language? Consider again the example of "*arete*". It might be argued that, through bending, the translation enriches English since now "virtue" can mean what the Greek word "*arete*" means, a semantic capability that was missing previously, hence enrichment. But this argument seems to overlook what happens to the original English word "virtue", the naturally used expression. If the linguistic community were to reserve "virtue" to express what Greeks would with "*arete*", wouldn't they need another English word for what was originally expressed by the English "virtue"? And further, if they bent this other word to fill in the slot, wouldn't they need yet another word to express what was originally expressed by this other word? So on and so forth. In this case, it's more accurate to say that such translation *shifts* English semantics rather than enriches the language.

Alternatively, the proponent might argue that bending does not overwrite the original semantics of the English word, but rather adds to it, so that "virtue" can now mean *both* what was originally meant by this word and what "*arete*" means in Greek. But then this would be a case of generating *ambiguities* rather than enrichments. Perhaps the proponent might want to say that adding a new meaning to the original word is a form of "synthesis", so that one can now see the English virtue and Greek *arete* are aspects of a larger concept which is now signified with "virtue", hence an enrichment. But this does not seem to be a case of synthesis, for in synthesis one needs to be able to discern what have been synthesized into this larger concept, while now the speaker is in a complete lack of resources to denote the sub-concepts. So this is more a case of *conflation* than that of synthesis.

The above arguments show that bending, the first method of foreignizing translation, does not have as many advantages as it seems. What's worse, it might suffer from quite a few disadvantages. The most severe problem is the one already touched upon above and complained by many: by either shifting or conflating semantics of expressions, this method badly impairs the readability of the translation. Indeed, sometimes it wouldn't be an exaggeration to call the

[1] Foster (2010). The example appears on pages 399-400.

[2] Note that "being the closest" does not have much bearing on the demonstration this paper is currently concerned, as long as the Greek word expresses a semantic content foreign to English.

[3] As in Foster (2010), p397.

resulting language a third language, distinct from both the source and target. Reading becomes deciphering not without much guesswork. This problem is probably best summarized in famous line by Yan Fu, the 19-20th century Chinese educator and translator:

"If, with faithfulness attended to, expressiveness is not achieved, then such translating is much like not having translated anything."[4]

Moreover, the low level of readability can make the source content appear mystic, which may in turn foster unwanted attitudes among the non-academic readers towards such content. Positive attitudes may evolve into cult following, and negative ones may transmute into resentment and disgust, both of which are irrational and inappropriate.[5] Translation, a noble task that aims at bridging cultures, is thus threatened if not undermined.

Finally, this method, especially if applied widely, causes practical troubles for publishers: it makes quality check much harder, for there is no reliable standard to distinguish between a bent usage and a misusage. What is the publisher to tell a translator who submits a translation full of ungrammatical expressions but insists on their being not only correct and truthful, but also deep and insightful, on grounds that those are merely bent expressions which look disorganized only to the untrained eyes? One cannot reject such work for its unnaturalness, for this feature is perfectly allowed by the method.

Having said these, it might be tentatively concluded that the prospects for bending look bleak, and the second option seems to be calling for attention, namely, to express the foreign semantic content with an unnatural expression used naturally. It may appear odd at first sight to talk about natural usages of unnatural expressions, but no longer so if one sticks to the definition. An expression is naturally used if it is intended to express what people in that community typically and comfortably associate it with, so even though an expression is unnatural, it can still be naturally used as long as it expresses what people typically and comfortably associate it with. For example, the expression "deforeignization" may not be expected in a normal dictionary but one can say, without oddity, that it naturally means "the process that makes something less foreign". Call this foreignizing method "neologism".

The profile of neologism is overall better than bending. First, neologism preserves the original semantic content just as well as bending does, but it has the advantage of not needing the readers' extra caution. Second, it genuinely enriches the target language, for it introduces new words instead of either overwriting old ones or getting conflated with them; the old semantics remains unaltered. And for this very reason, third, neologism may lower readability but the problem is much less serious than it is with bending, and fourth, quality check is easier for publishers, for one can decide its quality by seeing if associating the expression with the foreign content turns out easy.

The biggest difficulty for the method of neologism is rather the very task of finding the new expression itself. While there are almost always several candidate expressions extant in the vicinity that a translator can bend, it is much harder to coin a new expression that can naturally lead the reader to the foreign content, and even if it does, it may also sometimes lead the reader to other semantic contents equally naturally, thus making the new expression ambiguous from the start. Perhaps a good way out is to simply import the entire original expression, leaving it untranslated.[6] But translating by leaving as translated is better seen as a last resort, which suggests that other possibilities are worth exploring.

IV. Domesticating Translation

Domesticating translation is often characterized as the way of translating that makes the target text look like what the original author would have written had the author been capable of the target language.[7] This counterfactual formulation is popular among the translators who are supportive of fluency in translation, but it receives vehement attack from Schleiermacher, who believes such a method is "null and void in itself".[8] He bases his argument on the impossibility of separating an author from the author's first language, owing to the essential shaping power of language on any human being. Now that such tearing apart is a conceptual impossibility, the counterfactual formulation fails as a nonstarter. He presents much scorn and sarcasm in part of his formulation of the argument:

"Indeed, what can be the objection if a translator were to tell a reader: Here is the book just as the author would have written it if he had written in German, and if the reader were to reply: I am much obliged to you, in the same way as if you had brought me the picture of the author just as he would have looked if his mother had conceived him with another father? For if the writer's particular spirit is the mother of works belonging to scholarship and art in a higher

[4] Yan (1931). See his Notes on Translation. (My translation, same below.) Yan Fu as an important English-Chinese translator was also interestingly famous for violating his own theorizing when actually translating, which will be addressed in more detail shortly.

[5] Interestingly, positive and negative attitudes may well feed on each other in a self-reinforcing pattern: the resentment and disgust greatly fuels the cult, which in turn aggravates the former. This phenomenon is discernible at least in some of the practices translating western literary works into Chinese.

[6] See for example Hansen (1992), which simply renders the Chinese term "道" into its pinyin form, "*Dao*", and Frege (1997), which leaves the German word "*Bedeutung*" untranslated, though each may have based the choice of translation on other reasons than those under discussion here.

[7] A close but subtly different version, applicable only to texts with characters that speak out lines, is to translate in a way that the *character* would have spoken, had that character been able to speak the target language. For example, when Martin Luther was defending his way of translating, he said, "because this is what [the angel] is trying to say and this is how he would have said it, if he had wanted to greet her in German." See Weissbort & Eysteinsson (2006) p62.

[8] Schleiermacher (1813), p21.

sense, his national language is the father."[9]

But despite the argument's power in establishing the impossibility of changing an author's first language, one should be careful not to equate this with a refutation of the possibility of domesticating translation. As has been defined previously, domesticating translation is type of translation that expresses foreign semantic contents in the source text using natural expressions in a natural way. But this does not at all require one to imagine any author to be thus-and-so; what is at work here is no more than the three notions of naturalness, which are further defined by psychological states such as comfort and ease. The fact that the actual author as a person is hardly relevant can be shown by how translation is actually practiced. Suppose the author of a book is unknown, or known to be one of a few people but no evidence can show which. Is the translating process thereby disturbed? It doesn't seem so. Similarly, what if in the middle of translating, the author is confirmed to be someone unexpected, would that affect much of what is going on? Not either. Hence the idea of domesticating translation is at least viable.[10]

The definition given above suggests there is only one method of domesticating translation, namely, to express foreign semantic contents with natural expressions used naturally, however, the term has been historically associated with two other methods, each with a different understanding of either what "semantic content" means or what counts as "expressing" it.

The first method takes the "semantic content" to be the "gist" of the source text. As long as the broader stokes, the theme, the motif, the core idea of the original work is maintained, the translation is considered successful. This method then grants tremendous freedom to the translator, so much so that it allows translation to be *restatement*. This method is exemplified by Yan Fu's work among others. In his prefatory notes, he wrote:

"The translation clarifies the deep meanings; therefore in between words and sentences, it reorders and restructures every now and then, and does not stick to word-to-word, sentence-to-sentence stricture. However its meaning shall not go against the original text."[11]

Interestingly, this method has been criticized even by Yan Fu himself. He does not give an explanation for this self-criticism, but the reason is relatively obvious: that frequently in translation, and more so in scholarly translation, the details at the level of phrases are as important as the "gist" the scholars are concerned with. The method of restatement therefore runs the risk of overlooking important contents, which makes the resulting work an essentially incomplete one.

The second method apparently understands "express" as "more or less express" rather than "strictly, faithfully, or simply, *literally* express".[12] This method has the unparalleled virtue of really bringing the author home, but it has serious consequences when translating expressions that carry information revealing fundamental differences between cultures. Call this method "forced ontological mapping", since it maps the foreign semantic contents onto native ones that are close, familiar yet fundamentally different. Imagine a Chinese-to-English translator saying "The 天 [sky, heaven] in the East just is God in the West, so why not use 'God' to translate '天'?"[13] This is a typical case of the very many ones where the foreign content is implicitly *replaced* rather than preserved, hence a failure in translation.

Since this method has an amiable appearance, being fluent and reader-friendly, it may receive a much wider popularity than the previous method, whose error is easier to spot by someone who understands both languages. For this very reason, it may generate more misunderstanding and suppress efficiency in cross-cultural communication, and it well deserves the criticisms that have been made against it. At this point, a careful translator is sure to find Lawrence Venuti insightful in regarding this method of translation as unleashing an "ethnocentric violence of translation" on the source text, producing an "ethnocentric reduction of the foreign text to target-language cultural values".[14] And this is also where one finds Roger Ames' calling for an "interpretive context" appropriate to the source culture much-needed, for example in translation from (classical) Chinese to English and other western languages, "the vocabulary established […] has been freighted by an often unconscious Christian framework, and the effects of this 'Christianization' of Chinese texts are still very much with us."[15]

These considerations then leave available only the option as suggested by the definition: natural expressions plus natural usages for foreign contents. Intuitively, this method of translation carries with it an *analysis* or *explanation* of the original contents, so dub it "translation through explanation". Consider for example Ames' rendering of the classical Chinese "君子" as "exemplary person" or "consummate human being", which can be seen as a product of the domesticating translation policy in this acceptable sense, without mapping it onto something as mundane as

[9] *Ibid*, p25.

[10] Sometimes skepticism against domesticating the foreign contents appear under the guise of "radical translation", which have been discussed by important 20th-century figures like W. V. O. Quine and Donald Davidson. But this paper doesn't seem to be the right place to confront with such cases, since of all the linguistic communities that are implicitly considered here, no one community is foreign in such a radical sense to any other, all being physiologically similar to, reproductively compatible with and evolutionarily continuous from each other.

[11] Yan (1931). Notes on Translation.

[12] "Literally" is used here in the sense of "without being rhetoric". It is *not* intended to mean being inferred from the roots or their combinations within the expressions. So "manage" literally (in the first sense) means "to control, organize or deal with", but it can also be said to literally (in the second sense) mean "to control with hands only". This paper uses the word in the first sense.

[13] Giles (1889) did exactly this. See for example p18.

[14] Venuti (1995), p20.

[15] Ames (2017). See especially page 6 for a list of examples of inappropriate equivalents in Chinese-English translation.

“gentleman” or as religious as “saint”.[16]

This method has the advantage of both preserving the original content, since the translation carries explanation with itself, and achieving fluency, due to its compliance with the naturalness constraint. The only problem is that when an expression (especially a word) is translated through explanation, the very fact that certain semantic contents have been crystalized into one single expression in the source community may be overlooked. The reader may get comfortably lost in fluency without realizing an important aspect of how the world has been “carved up” by that other culture, or more simply its “conceptual scheme”.

V. Taking Stock

It is helpful at this point to take stock and see which way forward serious academic translation should adopt. As is shown above, foreignizing translation can be understood in different ways, but only the method of neologism is practically favorable. It enriches the target language only at the minor cost of relatively but acceptably lowering readability, though it must face the challenge that suitable neologisms are hard to come by. Domesticating translation, when cleared of confusions historically associated with it, is one single method which renders the resulting text with much fluency but at the cost of being less informative about target conceptual schemes. Both preserve the original content.

Given these features, it is not difficult to come up with a collaboration proposal. When the expressions to be translated reflect fundamental ways of understanding the world, foreignizing (as neologism) is preferred, and for the rest, domesticating is preferred. This seems also to capture nicely our pre-theoretical intuitions about translation, only that before theorizing a clear articulation of it is far from available.

A practical difficulty that such a combinatory policy may face is to decide which portions of the text do “reflect fundamental ways of understanding the world” and which do not, for many expressions are plainly ordinary but may potentially contribute substantially to philosophizing. For a well-known example, the extremely ordinary expression “to be” can potentially escalate into debates about Being as such. This flexible feature of language makes it impossible for to predetermine where to draw the line; the only solution left with the translator seems to be to decide project by project with prudence.

VI. Against Ambitious Foreignizing Translation

So far the discussion has been restricted to situations where the translator is faced with foreign semantic content. When no semantic content is foreign, domesticating translation has been assumed to be the default option. But this is not agreed by all, and it’s now time to turn to this issue as promised before. According to the idea of an ambitious form of foreignizing translation, the method of foreignizing is to be applied uniformly regardless of the naturalness of source text. (*How* to foreignize is not touched upon by this debate.) This special form of foreignizing translation might be dubbed “Schleiermacherian foreignizing translation”, since it is arguably the advocating of such uniform application of the foreignizing method, namely the scope, instead of the method itself which is ancient, that distinguishes Schleiermacher from the translators before him. In his now-celebrated 1813 lecture “On the Different Methods of Translation”, Schleiermacher says,

“…[I]t will have to be admitted that an indispensable requirement of this [reader-to-author] method of translation is a feeling for language that is not only not colloquial, but also causes us to suspect that it has not grown in total freedom but rather has been bent towards a foreign likeness…”[17]

Here the foreignness is elevated as a purpose (requirement) in itself instead of some unfavorable style that the translator and reader have to put up with. The strangeness of this requirement is immediately admitted by himself when he says it “seems to be the strangest form of humiliation a writer who is not a bad writer could impose upon himself”.[18] But then why advocate such a humiliation? Schleiermacher’s answer seems to be so that the translator can “transfer this feeling – that they have something foreign before them – to the readers whom he offers a translation in their mother tongue”.[19] But still, why should the translator be obliged to transfer such a feeling? What’s so bad about generating fluency and transparency and not transferring such a feeling, especially if such foreign feeling is not present when the source text is originally presented to its intended reader? Venuti (1995) provides a good answer when addressing this issue, though not without ambiguity:

“Foreignizing translation *signifies the difference of the foreign text*, yet only by disrupting the cultural codes that prevail in the target language. In its effort to do right abroad, this translation method must do wrong at home, deviating enough from native norms to stage an alien reading experience.”[20]

The ambiguity lies in exactly what “signifies the difference” means. For it can mean “to signify the fact *that* there is a difference”, and further it can also mean “to signify *where* the difference consists in”. Based on the principle of charity,

[16] See for example Ames (2017).
[17] Schleiermacher (1813), p16.
[18] *Ibid*, p16.
[19] *Ibid*, p15.
[20] Venuti (1995), p20. Emphasis added.

it is assumed here that the term covers both meanings. So the reason for transferring a foreign feeling consists in the following: (i) it reminds the readers that they are facing a foreign culture; (ii) it helps the readers to see more clearly what the foreign culture is like and how it is different from the target native culture.

But both propositions need a second thought. For the first proposition, despite its truth, there seem to be numerous other more convenient and equally efficient ways of reminding. For example, can't one be easily reminded by directly seeing the foreign culture that is nonetheless fluently and transparently presented? Indeed, one can even be easily reminded by the book cover that states it is a translated work. For the second proposition, it is plainly false. Foreignizing translation lowers readability, and extending the method to natural contents aggravates such lowering effect to the maximal level possible. It certainly blurs up rather than clarifies the image of the foreign culture, let alone the difference of that and the native culture. How, after all, is a tourist to appreciate the foreignness of an alien behind a blurred wall of glass? Understandably, the motivation behind such a move is to resist forms of cultural hegemony, but rectifying a bad mistake with another bad one is perhaps not the most desirable way out.

VII. Philosophical Translation

Different subcategories of translation can face different challenges, for example, literary translation must deal with rhetoric that is deeply involved with the phonological or syntactical features of expressions. In this final section, attention is paid to one issue in philosophical translation, that is, translating philosophical texts, which has been much less discussed compared to literary translations.

The most typical problem in philosophical translation is that certain expressions may have been stipulated (explicitly or implicitly), or "bent", to carry a different meaning than usual, hence already foreignized even to the native readers. Now the translator is faced with one more decision to make: in addition to the choice of *how to translate*, the translator must also decide *which to translate*. Should it be the normal expression, leaving the exegetic task to the reader, or should it be the bent expression, building the task of exegesis into translation itself?

This point has been addressed, though against a rather different background, by Peter Long and Roger White in the paper where they proposed "the principle of exegetical neutrality", formulated as "if at any point in a text there is a passage that raises for the native speaker legitimate questions of exegesis, then, if at all possible, a translator should strive to confront the reader of his version with the same questions of exegesis and not produce a version which in his mind resolves those questions."[21] Simply put, the translator should leave the exegetic burden to the reader. As Long & White (1980) argues (in points 2, 3 and 8 in particular) that exegetically neutral translation best preserves the cross-discourse links: continuity within one writer, the focal point of debates between this writer and academic colleagues, and the reference relation between this writer and secondary works whose opinions differ from one another. If the translator submits an already explained version, the expression in these different texts would come in many versions that appear disconnected, leading to potential confusion.

Here, three more arguments are offered in favor of exegetically neutral translation, in the order of increasing argumentative force. First, if one translates the expression as it is already bent, then many of the metalinguistic sentences are immediately invalidated. Take the classical Chinese term "道", which literally means road, way, path. In much of Chinese philosophizing, especially in Daoism, this term signifies a multitude of notions such as the ultimate reality, the state of being wise, among others. If one translates it as it is already bent, say, with "logos", "truth", or "wisdom", then sentences such as "The word '道' denotes something rather ordinary and concrete in everyday life" and the like would cease to make sense.

Second, most of the time, the technical expressions are intended by the author to retain a connection with what it ordinarily means, so that a metaphor is built-in in every occurrence of the term. Many of the features that roads (especially big and wide ones) have provide a pictorial trigger for the reader to understand what the more philosophically profound and less linguistically articulable may "look" like. If one translates "道" as explained, the concrete built-in guidance of the abstract concept gets lost.

Third, and worst news for translators who wish to undertake the task of exegesis while translating, is: what if the exegesis turns out misguided, which is unavoidable and indeed rather frequent in cross-cultural communication. There are good reasons to question whether "道" really amounts to what the west has traditionally understood as logos, truth, or wisdom, and the room for open question should not be stuffed by translation, making this move another case of forced ontological mapping, which has proved undesirable.

VIII. Concluding Remarks

Globalization has found clear expression in the formulation of regional and global markets, but a process of the same name but in a much more fundamental sense is to yet be expected: a meaningful communication and reciprocal

[21] Long & White (1980). The paper concentrates on the translation of one word only, namely, Frege's "*Bedeutung*", so part of their discussion suits to this specific case alone; the principle was cited to support their choice of translating the word with the natural English counterpart "meaning", rather than argued for in its own right. Beaney (forthcoming) offers a detailed history of how the word has been translated and a criticism of Long and White's choice in this specific case.

enrichment at the level of art and philosophy from different traditions. Good translators seem more needed than ever; they are the quiet but strong, taciturn but eloquent, peaceful but powerful heroes of the epoch, one of tremendous intellectual heritages passed down through history, enveloped in and squeezing against the boundaries of languages, longing for the wider audience outside who are equally longing for them.

It is therefore well worth expecting that more excellent scholars join this historical enterprise, in a way that is best captured in Ames (2017)'s title: better late than never.

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Investigation into and Analysis of the Current Situation of Academic English Writing of HLP Postgraduates: A Case Study from a Chinese University

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***Abstract*—As many scholars realized the significance and urgency of academic English writing research in English-as-foreign-language countries, numerous studies have been conducted on the topic. To date, however, little focused exclusively on multidisciplinary empirical research on High-level Project (HLP) postgraduates' academic English writing in China. The present study intends to explore the general tendency of HLP students' academic English writing. It first investigates the difficulties and writing habits of fifty-one HLP postgraduates in the English training center of a "Project-985"[1] university in China through a questionnaire and semi-structured interviews, and then discusses some problems of the present academic English writing classroom and academic English writing skills that need to be improved promptly.**

***Index Terms*—HLP postgraduates, academic English, academic writing**

I. Introduction

For further implementation of the strategy of reinvigorating China through varied human resource development, promoting the development of high-level universities, and enhancing the ability of service for constructing a creative country, the nation carried out "the project of promoting national government-sponsored overseas education for postgraduate students of high-level universities" in the key constructional high-level universities between 2007 and 2011. The program sends about 5,000 first-rate students to top-notch universities or highly-ranked majors in foreign countries each year to study from well-known supervisors. Approved by relevant state departments, the China Scholarship Council added 74 colleges and universities that "featured the key discipline construction project" at the end of 2011. By 2013, the contracted colleges and universities have basically covered the "Project-211" and "Project-985" universities and colleges and also universities that "featured the key discipline construction project".[2] In October 2015, the State Council issued the *Overall plan for promoting the construction of world-class universities and first-class disciplines*, proposing the "double first-class" strategic decision, which sounded the horn to sprint to international top institutions. In the context of international education, English, as a relatively popular lingua franca, plays an important role as a medium in the international exchanges. Especially in the field of international academic communication, academic English writing has gradually become one of the hot spots of scholars around the world.

In the Social Science Citation Index (SSCI) database, we input the subject terms "academic English writing" to search the correlational studies in the past decade (2007-2016). The results show that the distribution of 790 pieces of literature is mainly concentrated in the United States and the United Kingdom, accounting for 28.987% and 11.519% respectively, followed by China, Australia and Spain, each accounting for 9.747%, 8.481% and 7.595%. Although the number of published papers in China ranks only second to America and Britain, and more than Australia, whose official language is English, the h-index (h-index=12) of literature in China is not as high as that in Australia. Swales (2004: 33) points out that Chinese research strength has not yet been fully manifested in various research indices and databases. In the China National Knowledge Infrastructure (CNKI) database, we input the subject terms "academic English writing" and discovered that the number of correlational Chinese papers in the recent decade (2007-2016) had increased dramatically from ten in 2007 to nearly one hundred (83) in 2016. Particularly in 2007, 2011 and 2014, there were three relatively rapid increases (67%, 88% and 58% respectively)（The search was made on March 12, 2017.）This demonstrates that Chinese scholars have realized the significance and urgency of academic English writing research

[1] In 1999, the State Council approved the Ministry of Education's *Action Plan for Invigorating Education for the 21st century*, which means the construction of "Project-985" was officially launched. Construction of the first phase of "Project-985" was first performed at Peking University and Tsinghua University. See "Project-985" on the official website of the Ministry of Education of the People's Republic of China.

[2] http://baike.baidu.com/item/ Government-sponsored postgraduate program of national high-level universities/819876 (Accessed 19/12/2016).

during that period. Relevant numerous studies have been conducted mainly on the analysis of the requirements of graduate academic English courses or skills (Li, 1983; Cai, 2012; Luo & Chen, 2012; Shen, 2016), current situation of academic English writing teaching (Han & Wang, 2010; Yu, 2014), teaching modes and ability cultivation of academic English writing (Xiong & Yin, 2009; Guo, 2010; Han & Hou, 2012; Li & Zeng, 2015), case studies on the process, teachers' feedback, and publication of academic English writing (Yang & Wang, 2012; Li, 2011; Tian, 2013). However, little has focused on multidisciplinary empirical research on High-Level Project (hereinafter referred to as HLP) postgraduates' academic English writing. In the process of language education policy-making, we need the actual investigation of the present academic English teaching situation of HLP postgraduates in a higher education stage. Especially, students' self-knowledge and self-assessment of current academic English writing instruction cannot be ignored. Thus, the present study intends to fill this void and is designed to find out and discuss some problems of HLP postgraduates in academic English writing, including the difficulties and writing habits of HLP postgraduates in academic English writing, and academic English writing skills that need to be improved promptly.

II. Research Design and Implementation

A. Research Questions

This study mainly explores the following questions through a questionnaire survey and analysis.

(1) What is the general tendency of HLP postgraduates' academic English writing?

(2) What difficulties do HLP postgraduates have in academic English writing? And what are their writing habits?

(3) What are the problems of academic English writing classroom for HLP postgraduates at present? And what academic English writing skills do the students want to improve?

B. Research Objects

As shown in Table 1, there were fifty-one students from the English Training Center of Sun Yat-sen University involved in the survey. Among them, there were 22 boys and 29 girls, accounting for 43.14% and 56.86% respectively. The respondents were located in a narrow age range, between 24 and 26 years old (64.71%). Their academic level was basically full-time doctoral students (90.20%), mostly beginning with Year 2013 or 2014. Their destination of studying abroad was primarily the United States (70.59%). All hoped that they could study abroad as doctoral students; they basically had reached the English level of CET-6 (88.24%). Among them, the subjects of science and technology and natural medicine were a higher proportion (the total ratio is 78.4%).

TABLE I.
FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF PERSONAL INFORMATION SITUATION

Value label	Value	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
Sex	1.00（Man）	22	43.14	43.14	43.14
	2.00（Woman）	29	56.86	56.86	100.00
	Sum	51	100.00	100.00	
Age	1.00（below 23）	1	1.96	1.96	1.96
	2.00（between 24 and 26）	33	64.71	64.71	66.67
	3.00（above 27）	17	33.33	33.33	100.00
	Sum	51	100.00	100.00	
Training mode	1.00（full-time master）	3	5.88	5.88	5.88
	2.00（full-time doctor）	46	90.20	90.20	96.08
	3.00（other）	2	3.92	3.92	100.00
	Sum	51	100.00	100.00	
School year	1.00（in 2014）	25	49.02	49.02	49.02
	2.00（in 2013）	14	27.45	27.45	76.47
	3.00（in 2012）	5	9.80	9.80	86.27
	4.00（in 2011）	2	3.92	3.92	90.19
	5.00（in 2015）	5	9.80	9.80	100.00
	Sum	51	100.00	100.00	
English level	1.00（CET-4）	2	3.92	3.92	3.92
	2.00（CET-6）	45	88.24	88.24	92.16
	3.00（other）	4	7.84	7.84	100.00
	Sum	51	100.00	100.00	
Destination for study abroad	1.00（Britain）	2	3.92	3.92	3.92
	2.00（Australia）	1	1.96	1.96	5.88
	3.00（New Zealand）	0	0.00	0.00	5.88
	4.00（America）	36	70.59	70.59	76.47
	5.00（Canada）	4	7.84	7.84	84.31
	6.00（other）	8	15.69	15.69	100.00
	Sum	51	100.00	100.00	
Valid cases		51	Missing cases		0

C. Research Tool

In this study, a questionnaire on the status of HLP postgraduates' academic English writing was utilized to collect relevant data, assisted by semi-structured interview to analyze and demonstrate the related results in the investigation. In order to ensure the content validity of the questionnaire, we employed Delphi Expert consultation method, engaging five experts in foreign language teaching and consulting to discuss whether the content of each item is consistent with the information to be obtained in the research. The Cronbach's α coefficient of this questionnaire is greater than 0.8, which indicates that the reliability is acceptable. The questionnaire was tested in December 2016. The proportion of boys and girls was about 7:9. A total of 51 questionnaires were distributed in this survey. Then the 51 valid ones were recovered and the ratio of valid questionnaires was one hundred percent, which meets the minimum requirement of recovery ratio 70%. In this study, statistical software SPSS17.0 was used for descriptive (frequency, average, standard deviation) data statistical analysis.

The questionnaire has a total of 54 closed questions and two open questions, including four parts: personal information, difficulties and habits of academic English writing, English writing classroom & writing skills and suggestions. In the first part, the respondents need to answer some general questions, including name, age, gender, English level, the destination of studying abroad etc.. In the second part, the respondents need to answer 19 questions about the difficulties and habits of HLP postgraduates in academic English writing. In this part, the Likert scale was used for measuring 15 questions (Questions 23-24, Questions 38-48, Questions 50-51). The respondents were asked to evaluate their writing habits on a 4-point scale (1 = never; 2 = very few; 3 = occasionally; 4 = often), and each answer to the options were assigned 1 to 4 points. Higher scores make clear that they have particular obvious writing habits. The third part includes 20 questions on English writing classroom and writing skills. The fourth part has two open questions, requiring respondents to fill in recommendations for the improvement of academic English writing instruction and teaching materials.

III. Results

A. The General Tendency of HLP Postgraduates' Academic English Writing

Through the statistics of academic English writing status questionnaires of HLP postgraduates (Questions 1-15), it was found that HLP postgraduates in academic English writing show similar age, close English level, and typical English-speaking destinations of study abroad, which is conducive for teachers to arrange targeted teaching in accordance with their aptitude.

According to the questionnaire (Questions1-15) on the status of academic English writing of HLP postgraduates, it was found that HLP postgraduates were of similar age and close English level and that most of the countries where they would study abroad were native English-speaking countries. This kind of situation is advantageous to the teacher to carry on the teaching arrangement pertinently and teach according to their aptitude. It was found that HLP postgraduates showed similarities in self-cognition of academic English writing.

In terms of self-knowledge and evaluation of academic English writing, as shown in Figure 1, up to seventy percent (70.59%) of the students believed that academic papers were hard to write; some (15.69%) of the students felt that they were extremely difficult; some (13.73%) of the students thought that academic papers were easy to write.

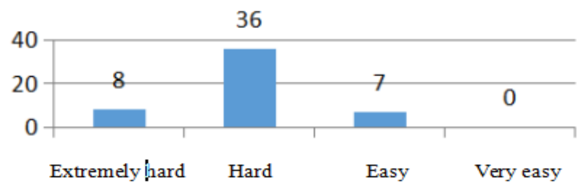

Figure 1. Description statistics of the difficulty of academic English writing

In the aspect of enhancing teaching of the academic paper writing, as shown in Figure 2, nearly half (45.1%) of the respondents believed it was very necessary to do so; quite a lot (35.29%) of the students thought it was necessary to do so; only a few (5.88%) of the students thought it was not necessary to do so.

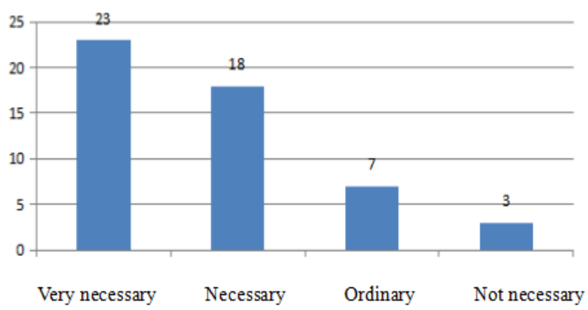

Figure 2. Description statistics of the necessity of enhancing teaching of the academic paper writing

Most students thought that academic English needed to be strengthened in all aspects, but the demands for English academic communication and speech and listening comprehension were higher than that for academic English reading and writing skills(43.14% >37.25% >25.49% >15.69%). See Figure 3.

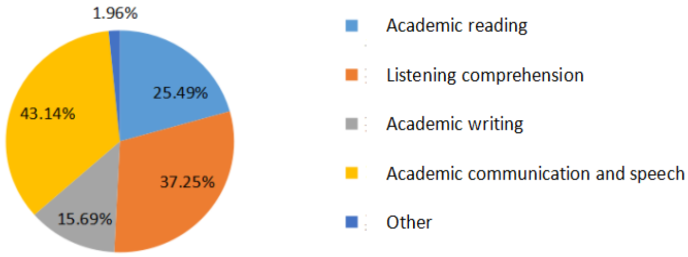

Figure 3. Percentage of the demand for English academic skills

B. *Difficulties and Writing Habits in Academic English Writing*

It is found, in the study, that the difficulties in academic writing mainly lay in vocabulary (52.94%) and writing resources (47.06%) (See Figure 4, multiple topics), and that they mainly employed Internet query (94.12%) when encounter difficulties.

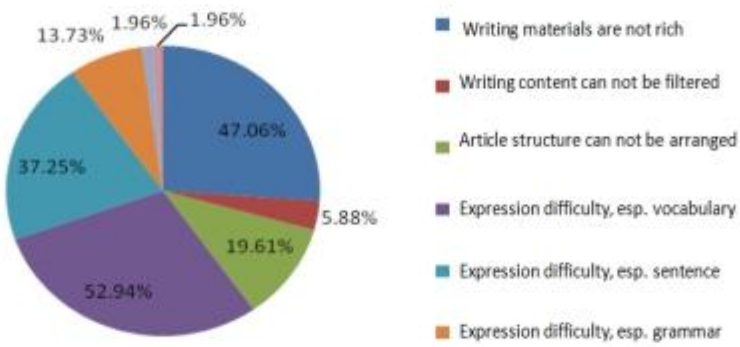

Figure 4. Percentage of difficulties in English writing

In terms of academic English writing habits of HLP postgraduates (Table 2), there were mainly the following two aspects. For one thing, the majority of students tended to exchange papers for checking errors (M=3.3922) after finishing writing. In addition, students would be able to fully examine the completeness of the content and whether the argument was sufficient and so on (M=3.0588); they would mimic the content of model essays and modify them slightly (M=2.9608); they would focus on accumulation of some complex sentences in extracurricular study, such as recitation or taking notes (M=2.9608); they would spend time in conceiving some novel and slightly complicated textual patterns (M=2.9412); they would first check whether there are spelling, grammar or other errors (M=2.9216) after finishing writing by themselves; they would consciously use the complex sentence patterns that they had just learned or seen (M=2.9216). For another, most students rarely paid attention to the learning and accumulation of rhetorical devices in extracurricular learning (M=2.1176); they rarely imitated or used the newly learned rhetorical devices consciously (M=2.2157); students rarely referred to grammar books when they were not certain about grammar (M=2.3333), and hoped that teachers still could interpret grammar in class (M=2.6471); however, many students would look up uncertain words in a dictionary when writing (M=2.5098).

TABLE II.
DESCRIPTION STATISTICS OF ACADEMIC ENGLISH WRITING HABITS

Questionnaire entries	N	Min	Max	Mean	SD
Look up uncertain words in the dictionary.	51	1.00	4.00	2.5098	.78416
See grammar book when you are not certain about grammar.	51	1.00	4.00	2.3333	.73937
First check whether there are spelling, grammar or other errors after finishing writing by yourself.	51	1.00	4.00	2.9216	.82081
Exchange for checking errors after finish writing.	51	1.00	4.00	3.3922	.85037
Sort out the error after teacher's correction.	51	1.00	4.00	2.3529	.84436
Ask your teacher or classmates for content questions.	51	1.00	4.00	2.4118	.69790
Mimic the content of model essays and modify slightly.	51	1.00	4.00	2.9608	.74728
Focus on accumulation of some complex sentences in out-of-class learning, such as recitation or taking notes.	51	1.00	4.00	2.9608	.84760
Consciously use the complex sentence patterns that they have just learned or seen.	51	1.00	4.00	2.9216	.84482
Conceive some novel and slightly complicated textual patterns.	51	2.00	4.00	2.9412	.58006
An outline will be listed before writing to ensure that the structure is clear.	51	1.00	4.00	2.4706	.83314
Fully examine the completeness of the content and whether the argument is sufficient and so on.	51	2.00	4.00	3.0588	.78516
Pay attention to the learning and accumulation of some rhetoric devices in the extracurricular learning.	51	1.00	4.00	2.1176	.71125
Imitate or use the new learned rhetoric devices consciously.	51	1.00	4.00	2.2157	1.04525
Hope teachers still interpret grammar.	51	1.00	4.00	2.6471	.86772
Valid N	51				

C. *Academic English Writing Classroom and Skills*

At present, many Chinese university educators have realized that it is necessary to focus on improving the scientific research writing abilities of HLP postgraduates, especially their academic English writing level, and many key universities have also set up advanced academic English writing course. However, there are still many problems in the current English writing classroom, which is presented as follows.

1. Academic English Writing Classroom

As can be seen in Table 3, the respondents considered that the main problem in the current English writing classroom was that the writing exercises were not enough (51.0%). In addition, some students felt that the writing class was boring (27.5%), as shown in Table 3.

TABLE III.
THE FREQUENCY OF DEFECTS OF ENGLISH WRITING CLASSROOM

	Response		
	N	Percentage	Case percentage
boring	14	24.6	27.5
not enough class exercise	26	45.6	51.0
too little after-class homework	8	14.0	15.7
other	9	15.8	17.6
Sum	57	100	111

In terms of teaching content, the majority of respondents wanted to learn sentence patterns from the English writing class (82.4%), while 52.9% of the respondents wanted to learn writing norms (See Table 4).

TABLE IV.
THE FREQUENCY OF WHAT YOU WANT TO LEARN IN ENGLISH WRITING CLASS

	Response		
	N	Percentage	Case percentage
writing norms	27	29.3	52.9
relevant vocabulary	20	21.7	39.2
sentence pattern	42	45.7	82.4
other	3	3.3	5.9
Sum	92	100	180.4

In terms of teaching methods, a considerable number of respondents wanted to finish writing in class or after school and hand in the composition for teacher's comment, which was hoped to be followed by another round of correcting and handing in the second draft and the third draft... (70.59%). See Figure 5.

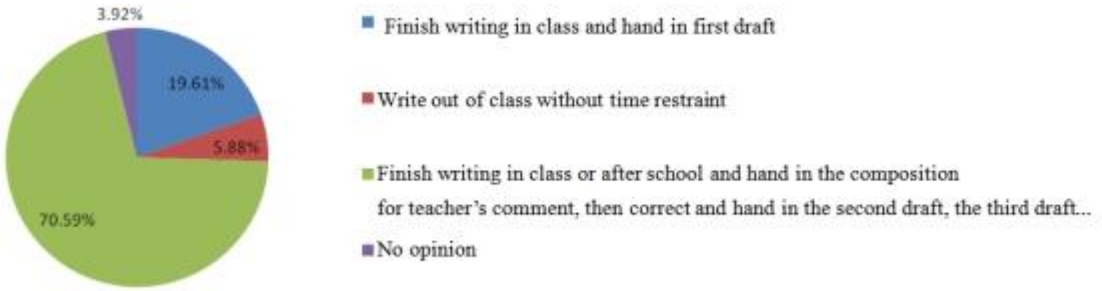

Figure 5. Percentage of teaching methods

In terms of feedback, it can be seen from Figure 6 that most students wanted the teacher to mark errors in the text, and provide modification and suggestion (80.39%); nearly half (41.18%) of the students expected the teacher to mark errors in the text; only 19.61 % of the students hoped the teacher to simply mark that what kind of grammatical mistakes were in the text; no students wanted the teacher to write comments in the text, and then find mistakes on their own or wanted the teacher not to give any tips.

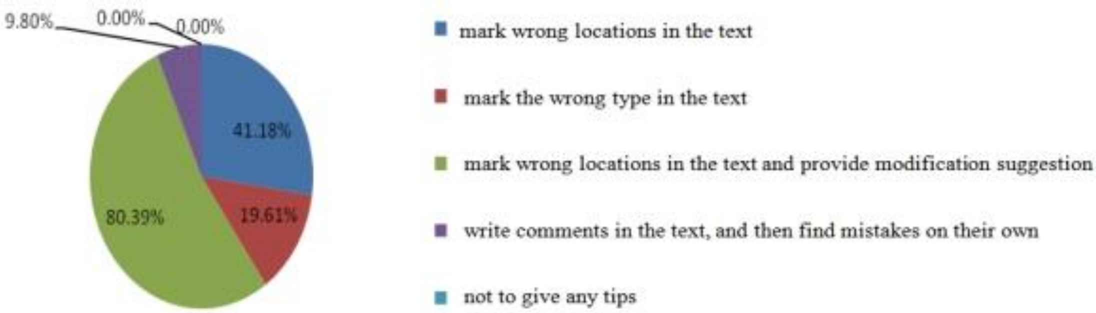

Figure 6. Percentage of teacher's way of pointing out errors in the text (multiple choice)

2. Academic English Writing Skills

The first three writing skills that respondents had the most need to improve were using different sentence patterns (62.7%), writing a powerful introduction (35.3%) and using more attractive vocabulary (29.4%), as shown in Table 5.

TABLE V
THE FREQUENCY OF WRITING SKILLS YOU MOST WANT TO IMPROVE

	Response		
	N	Percentage	Case percentage
spelling	4	3.2	7.8
paragraph	13	10.5	25.5
punctuation	3	2.4	5.9
a powerful introduction	18	14.5	35.3
Write a strong conclusion	10	8.1	19.6
write in time order	4	3.2	7.8
keep to the point	14	11.3	27.5
use more attractive vocabulary	15	12.1	29.4
use different means of expressions	32	25.8	62.7
how to start	7	5.6	13.7
modify	3	2.4	5.9
other	1	.8	2.0
Sum	124	100.0	243.1

D. Suggestions on Improving the Teaching Methods and Teaching Materials of Academic English Writing

In the fourth part of the questionnaire, the respondents filled out their suggestions on improving the teaching strategies and teaching materials of academic English writing, which can be mainly summarized as follows.

In terms of teaching methods, they mainly proposed to strengthen the writing exercises, to increase the explanation of sentence patterns and model essays, and to focus on the correction of compositions. Individual students hoped that the teacher and students could have one-on-one discussion of corrections, and talk more about the structure of an article and writing ideas.

In terms of teaching materials, the students suggested to add practical and scientific research model essays, especially chart types, and to add comments in the model essays, distinguishing between the pros and cons.

IV. Discussion

Question 1: What is the general tendency of HLP postgraduates' academic English writing?

The result that demands for English academic communication and speech and listening comprehension were higher than that for academic English reading and academic English writing is consistent with Shen's (2016) survey on the English learning needs of non-English major graduate students in a key university in Jilin Province. One hundred and fifty-nine (72.6%) of the subjects were interested in oral English, and one hundred and eighteen (53.9%) subjects were interested in listening, which reflected that oral English and listening were still the most desired language skills for graduate English learners. The subjects were interested in academic English reading (116 students, 53.0%) and academic English writing (114 students, 52.1%). In addition, from the perspective of language skills, the result of this study contradicted slightly those of Li (1983) and Johns (1981). Li's (1983) survey on senior researchers in an English workshop shows that the importance placed on practical English skills lies first in reading and listening, then writing and speaking. Similarly, Johns (1981) surveyed 200 teachers from San Diego State University and they thought that students needed receptive skills (both reading and listening) more than productive skills (writing and speaking) for EAP. Through comparative analysis, the reasons for the difference in these results are as follows: (1) The background characteristics of the research subjects were different. Most of the subjects in this study had achieved comparatively high English proficiency of CET-6 or above, so their reading and writing abilities were not poor. And they intended to study abroad but were lack of listening and speaking context training. (2) Academia did not attach importance to academic English writing.

From the perspective of both students and teachers, however, the demand for academic English writing skill was not high compared with other academic English skills. Through interviews with sampling interviewees, the reasons are as follows: (1) Most of the students thought that the experiment was the most important. Since in a team work experiment, one team member was responsible for writing a paper, most students became psychologically dependent and sluggish; (2) Many departments provided writing resources, such as writing templates or writing routine of typical authoritative periodical papers; (3) Some students sought help from foreign tutors to modify their work; (4) Some students directly assigned writing tasks to writing service intermediaries; (5) Many students did not undergo systematic academic writing training during their study and lack confidence in their writing ability; (6) Some students relied entirely on external forces, looking for a third-party agent to write and publish with full help. It was reported that the falsified academic papers by Chinese authors were withdrawn by Springer, publisher of *Tumor Biology* (107 papers, April 20, 2017). The problem was that there was a black-market industry chain for profit in the third-party intermediary commissioned by the authors. They wore the academic cloak of providing language editing services (language retouching, translation services), but they acted as hypocrites of academic fraud ("ghostreviewing"), even executioners, which made the academia of scientific researchers market-oriented, and seriously affected the international reputation of scientific researchers in China. Although the above incident occurred in the medical field, the peer-reviewed fraud of third-party intermediaries has a long history, which is also a global problem in academia. Though the author, third party organization, and academic journal all had more or less responsibility, the consequences of academic misconduct, damaged reputation, and hindered scientific research career can only be borne by the author himself. It is best to avoid such risks and take a warning from it.

Therefore, it is essential to enhance students' understanding of the importance of academic English writing skills and strengthen the moral education of academic integrity for HLP postgraduates. As scientific researchers, they shouldn't only have the spirit of researching in scientific experiments, but also abide by academic morality and academic integrity, and have the responsibility and obligation to disseminate scientific research results in the form of languages and words to every corner of the world for academic peer exchange and learning, constantly promoting the common progress and development of human society.

Question 2: What difficulties do HLP postgraduates have in academic English writing? And what are their writing habits?

It is found that the difficulties in academic writing mainly lay in vocabulary and writing resources (See Figure 4), which is consistent with Cai's (2012) survey on the demand for academic English course. Students find it difficult to have sufficient vocabulary, especially academic vocabulary and quasi-professional vocabulary (85.1%). Therefore, it is necessary for our curriculum design to be improved by adding language input (reading and listening) to compensate for the lack of vocabulary and material shortages in writing. Language input can become the material of language output, and language output activities can further urge students to find more language input content (Geabe & Kaplan, 1996; Hirvela, 2004). Hiverla (2004) stated that we should pay attention to the combination of reading and writing. Teachers of academic writing can assign the students to selectively read the representative academic papers in their subject field and write the reading report in order to realize the combination of reading and writing so as to promote reading-based writing and improve the students' professional vocabulary and the accumulation of writing materials. More than that, in fact, the writing and speaking of language output activities can also promote each other (Weissberg, 2006). At the same time, effective learning strategies and approaches should be employed, such as scaffolding peer review / group discussion, self-help correction software, expert lecture and question answering, so as to increase the interaction between students, and between teachers and students and improve the learning efficiency and learning effect of academic English writing skills, thus avoiding relying solely on network resources to solve difficulties.

The results of the above data in Table 2 show that the academic English writing of the HLP postgraduates is still at a relatively low level. Most of the students tended to exchange papers for checking errors (M=3.3922) after finishing writing. Peer review has a positive effect on students' writing. Storch (2005) indicated that cooperative learning plays an important role in writing: writing tasks can be done better and more efficiently; grammar accuracy and appropriateness are improved; and writing ideas get timely feedback and expansion. However, the students generally lacked an awareness of the language and rhetoric of the written essays (M=2.1176), and they tended to pay more attention to the accuracy of the language syntax (M=2.9216), which were just imitative of the sentence patterns on the surface and ignore their intrinsic functional meanings, hence their writings are mechanical, monotonous and uncreative. In view of this, we suggest that teachers should apply some linguistic theoretical approaches to the analysis of the academic texts, such as three metafunctions (experiential meaning, textual meaning and interpersonal meaning) in Systemic Functional Grammar. According to Fang (2018), "Traditional grammar is essentially a set of normative rules about language, which fails to give students an in-depth understanding of the meaning of language expression and the process of meaning formation". Language is a semiotic resource used to express meaning. Therefore, what language learners need more is a type of "meaning-oriented grammar, namely Functional Grammar" (Fang, 2018). Especially the concepts of discourse cohesion, Theme-Rheme, nominalization and grammatical metaphor are very helpful for students to correctly understand and recognize the essential features of language, to use language functions flexibly and purposefully, and to achieve an accurate and effective communicative purpose — academic English writing.

Question3: What are the problems of the academic English writing classroom for HLP postgraduates at present? And what academic English writing skills do the students want to improve?

On the one hand, as can be seen in Table 3, more than half (51.0%) of the respondents thought that the writing exercises were not enough. In the actual teaching process, because too few classes are scheduled currently, it is very difficult for teachers to complete the teaching tasks within the prescribed term hours. So the teachers in the classroom mainly focus on teaching theoretical knowledge, while opportunities for students to practice writing are relatively rare. In addition, many subjects (27.5%) felt writing classes boring, and the main reasons found from investigation are as follows: (1) For a long time, the traditional teaching mode of our country is to separate the subject knowledge from the language knowledge ability, which brings students double learning pressure, and the classroom dominated by the traditional grammar teaching method is also relatively boring; (2) The theoretical and scientific nature and rigorous language expression of the academic writing genre make the teaching content itself dull. Therefore, Li & Zeng (2015) pointed out that in the writing class, multimedia technology is used to integrate language mode with other modes such as image sound effectively. The construction of multi-modal English writing Class can increase the channels of interaction and communication between teachers and students, and rich multi-sensory contact can help to reduce the difficulty of students' writing and stimulate students' interest in English writing.

When it comes to the teaching content, most (82.4%) of the respondents expected to learn sentence patterns from the English writing class, while 52.9% of the respondents hoped to learn writing norms (See Table 4). Many HLP postgraduates indicated in the interviews that they had not studied academic English writing systematically. In the initial stage of their writing, the most common method was to imitate the language expressions, text structure and writing norms of published journal papers. This is consistent with Tian (2013)'s long-term investigation of a young scholar (Zhao) in a Western university. Because Zhao received little writing support and limited data, "imitation" became his main method to solve difficulties. The "imitation" here is to express one's main ideas by applying the sentence patterns of other people's utterances. Therefore, sentence pattern expression and writing criteria became the most important writing strategies and writing skills for these novices. The findings are consistent with those of the teaching content analyzed above, and sentence patterns have become the most desirable writing skills for these young researchers. Professor Wang, interviewed by Yu (2014), however, admitted that "this method can only solve the problem of accuracy of English expression, but not the problem of 'elegant' writing with rich language and changeable sentence patterns." Then, in accordance with the "student-oriented" teaching concept, although the teaching content of academic English writing involves the professional knowledge of various disciplines, it is actually language teaching that matters, focusing on what genres of discourse structure or language expression are used to construct the content of each discipline. Thus it is necessary to cultivate students' language communication skills in a specific field by learning the discourse structure and language expression of each discipline. We propose that it helps to realize the dynamic cycle model of mutual help and mutual benefit between the discipline content and language skills by: (1) taking the academic content of the discipline as a core based on the real and meaningful language materials of a specific discipline; (2) encouraging the equal cooperation between a language teacher and a professional teacher in the subject field; (3) instructing students to master the academic content of the specific subject on the basis of acquiring the language thinking habits of the particular subject; (4) improving language skills in classroom task-activities of learning subject.

On the other hand, most (80.39%) of the respondents attached great importance to written feedback from teachers, which is similar to the findings of Ferris & Hedgcock (2005: 185). No matter how the teaching methods of writing change, one of the factors is always the same. That is, both teachers and students think that teachers' feedback on students' writing is the crucial and indisputable teaching content. In terms of feedback, as shown in Figure 6, the result is in line with the survey result of Li (2011), who stated that no student wants the teacher to just point out the existence of mistakes without indicating the specific location. Diversely, in the actual essay writing correction practice, however, teachers found that same mistakes would occur repeatedly in the same student's same paper or in different papers of the same student. And the length of general academic thesis or degree dissertation is relatively long. It is not necessary for the teacher to correct the repeated mistakes of the students one by one, which is not conducive to improve the students' ability of self-analysis and correction. In view of the above two aspects, it is suggested that teachers give corrections to the same types of mistakes that students repeatedly make for the first time, and only point out the location and type if they make mistakes again. In this way, students can be trained to analyze and solve problems, so that they can truly master knowledge and have the ability to independently acquire knowledge.

V. CONCLUSION

Through the statistics of academic English writing questionnaires of HLP postgraduates, it was found that HLP postgraduates in the academic English writing showed common in age, English level, and English-speaking destinations of study abroad, which is conducive for teachers to arrange targeted teaching in accordance with their aptitude. In order to solve the difficulties and bad habits of the students' academic English writing in the study, in addition to the in-class guidance, we can provide students with other approaches to learning, such as peer review, essay revision software, expert lectures, reading-based writing, etc., which are beneficial to their accumulation of vocabulary and writing materials, and good for the improvement of their learning efficiency and learning effect. Additionally, examining our current problems of academic English writing classroom and writing skills which are urgent to be improved from the perspective of students, can better guide educators to encourage innovation in education ideas, teaching methods and teaching materials. Due to the limited time and resources, this study has a deficiency in partition degree and less sample size; however, it is hoped that this study can provide reference for future related research.

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Reading Strategies and Reading Fluency: A Case Study of Reading in First or Second Language

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***Abstract*—The ability to read in second or foreign language (L2/FL) is a vital skill for academic and autonomous language learning. This study investigates the reading performance of two TEFL students from different language backgrounds on two English texts and their equivalent Persian translations comparing their reading rate and comprehension in L1 and L2. A combination of think-aloud protocol, interview and observation methods was used in order to figure out the reading strategies used by each participant in the process of reading and comprehending each text. First, participants were asked to model the steps of their thinking when reading the same text and to discuss what strategies and process they went through while interacting with the passage. Then, they were asked to respond some questions at the end of each reading passage. Last, an interview about their reading experiences and strategies is conducted. Findings of collected data from multiple sources were examined in the sense that the overall extracted themes were triangulated. The data were analyzed based on the Uso-Juan, Esther and Alicia Martinez-Flor (2006) framework for key reading strategies. The result showed that there is a positive relationship between reading fluency and reading comprehension. The most effective strategies employed by each participant were also reported. Through critically and analytically reflecting on differences between L1 and L2 reading, language learners can learn how to read so as to get the most out of their academic materials.**

***Index Terms*—first language reading, reading comprehension, reading fluency, reading strategies, second language reading**

I. Introduction

Reading is regarded as a basic skill for second or foreign language academic learners by which they can develop independent learning of another language. Furthermore, there are many technical terms and more complex sentences in reading academic texts, which provide additional information. Many college students are challenged with their study dealing with learning problems for which they are not well-equipped with effective strategies to cope with. Reading is a complex activity that is influenced by many factors such as learning opportunities, motivation, prior knowledge, reading skills, cultural or language differences. Readers have various purposes and they often vary in the cognitive processes, knowledge, resources as well as the amount of emphasis given to these processes and resources. Some differences exist between first-language (L1) and second-language (L2) reading contexts as well as readers which can be linguistic and processing differences, individual and experiential differences or socio-cultural and institutional differences (Grabe and Stoller, 2018). Several studies have examined the role of word recognition in L2 reading. For instance, Favreau and Segalowitz (1983) demonstrated that differences in L2 reading fluency can be due to differential levels of automaticity in word recognition.

How students develop reading in English as a foreign or second language is studied in some research in second language learning. Previous research has shown that first and second language learners use similar strategies while reading (Gass & Selinker, 2001). To decode and comprehend reading passages, L1 and L2 language learners may utilize their knowledge of vocabulary, sounds, meaning, language and textual structure as well as their prior knowledge (Bernhardt, 2000). Some other researchers claimed that there are some differences such as background knowledge and second language proficiency (Gass & Selinker, 2001). L2 learners must develop their linguistic knowledge tackling the transfer effects and using first and second language resources when they learn to read in another language. (Grabe & Stoller, 2002). Therefore, learning to read in an L2 for adults is not an easy task especially when they are from different linguistic, educational and cultural backgrounds. Some learners may develop second language faster than other learners due to many factors that affect acquiring a language such as individual goals (e.g. academic education, careers and employment, etc.), the context of language learning (e.g. learning atmosphere, informal and formal contexts, etc.), language instructions and language proficiency.

Good readers have the ability to make generalization, work readily with abstract ideas and analyze relationships. They utilize their prior experience and topical knowledge with text information, make use of higher level thinking skills and adopt a variety of strategies for reading and reading comprehension when they are reading. Gifted and fluent readers reread, infer, predict, analyze, evaluate and incorporate personal interpretation of the content of what they have read more than a normal reader which may lead to having more control over their process of reading (Fehrenbach, 1994).

The concept of metacognition refers to the learners' knowledge about knowledge (Sternberg, 1984) or awareness of, or control over one's cognitive processes in the cognitive psychology (Flavell, 1979). Learners who actively plan and manage to employ effective strategies and evaluate the effectiveness of different strategies used to perform a task (Brown, 1982; Jacobs & Paris, 1987). Metacognitive strategies make learners engage in the conscious control over selecting, planning, regulating and evaluating their activities according to the given situation. In reading comprehension, readers are considered to be proficient when they have the ability to control and monitor their reading strategies while reading and processing the text and the knowledge to adopt various strategies or to remedy their comprehension where confusion occurs (Wenden, 1998).

In the past few years, reading fluency has given importance which includes both word recognition fluency and accuracy requiring automaticity in processing extended text, appropriate use of prosodic and syntactic structures and a long time to develop (Juan, E. U., & Flor, A. M, 2006).

In L2 settings, improved word recognition fluency and extended exposure to print materials or extensive reading have been proven to be independent predictors of reading ability and reading comprehension over long periods of time (Grabe, 2009; Krashen, 2004; Stanovich, 2000).

A. Reading Speed

Reading speed or generally the rate of word recognition which is known as one of the indicators of reading fluency refers to the total number of words recognized by a person per minute. Researchers have suggested that a skilled reader normally reads in first language at around 250-300 wpm and makes about 90 fixations per 100 words (Carver 1982). It is suggested that for a second language learner who is reading a text containing only familiar words to him/her should be around 250 wpm (Nation, 2009). But some researchers have proven that reading in second/foreign language is even slower than reading in first language.

Numerous studies have investigated the components of comprehension in reading which can be divided into reading comprehension and linguistic comprehension (Dombey, 2009). Linguistic comprehension deals with using the knowledge of vocabulary to understand the text presented orally and reading comprehension deals with using vocabulary knowledge relying on the written information comes to the eye. Some researchers have suggested that comprehension can be an indicator of fluency in silent reading including (Grabe, 2004; Nation, 2005; Yamashita & Ichikawa, 2010). Both fast reading and simultaneously comprehending the text are necessary for a fluent reader.

In many reading fluency instructions, the students are asked to report their speed in reading words per minute as well as to answer the accompanying questions about their reading comprehension in order to obtain information about learners' progress in reading speed and at the same time their comprehension level (Quinn & Nation, 2007).

There is a controversy in the past research associated with the relationship between comprehension and reading speed. In some previous studies (Grabe, 2010; Perfetti, Landi, & Oakhill, 2005; Stanovich, 2000), a strong relationship between comprehension and reading speed in L1 reading has been suggested. On one hand, Nicholson & Tan (1999) and Levy et al. (1997) found that increasing reading speed facilitates comprehension. On the other hand, other researchers have proposed a weak relationship between fluency skills and reading comprehension level (Carver, 1982; Kuhn & Stahl, 2003).

B. Reading Differences in L1 and L2 Settings

There are many ways in which reading in L1 setting can differ from reading in L2 setting. The focus of these differences may rely on some linguistic resources that a reader brings to the situation in which text comprehension takes place. The differences can be:

- Second language learners have a limited knowledge of vocabulary, grammar and text structure when they begin reading and their linguistic resources of second language are smaller than those of first language learners.
- Second language learners have less exposure and then less practice and experience in second language reading.
- Second language learners have distinctive cognitive device involving two language systems such as bilingual lexicon and joint strategic planning that resulted in different reading process from first language learners (Kern, 1994; Koda, 2005).
- Second language learners deal with a range of transfer effects that may either facilitate or inhibit L2 reading process including strategies, goals and expectations. (Dressler & Kamil, 2006; Koda, 2005)
- Second language learners' knowledge of world may vary across L1 and L2 setting and they make use of a compilation of different background knowledge.
- Second language learners may encounter with L2 texts that appear unfamiliar to them requiring distinct cultural or social background knowledge

The aim of this case study is to making comparison between two readers, one of them is a second language learner with Persian as her L1 and the other is an early simultaneous bilingual with Persian and English as her L1, in reading comprehension of materials where the main focus is not on learning English. They must utilize the study strategies wisely and appropriately, they must be able to monitor their comprehension while reading and they must apply alternative strategies when they realize that they fail to understand the text. Therefore, these research questions are to be answered:

- To some extent two readers participating in the research use different strategies while reading in English?
- To some extent two readers participating in the research use different strategies while reading in Persian?
- Is there any difference between two readers in their reading fluency?

II. METHODOLOGY

Creswell (1998) suggests that a key decision point in a qualitative study is the purposeful selection of participants. The purpose of this inquiry is to compare reading process followed by two participants from different language background in order to tap the reading strategies used by them.

So, their profiles are detailed as follows:

Profile of Student 1: An English student who is 30 years old and proficient enough in the foreign language to search for her reading strategies (Persian as L1 and English as FL). She is pursuing her master's degree in TEFL in Yazd University.

Profile of Student 2: A simultaneous bilingual who is in her late twenties (originally from India). After she obtained her bachelor's degree in India, she taught English in some institutions in Iran and decided to further her education. She has completed her master degree in TEFL at Allame Tabatabi's University.

A. Reading Texts

Two English texts and two Persian texts were used in this inquiry. The first reading passage was an academic text with approximately 636 words in length about humor and stress; the other passage including 867 word was a narrative text titled "Lucky Jim". Two Persian texts were translation versions of two English texts.

Both kind of narrative and expository texts were represented through these two passages in that a variety of reading strategies might be used when students interact with them.

B. Think-aloud Protocol

I employed a think aloud method to investigate how participants analyze the texts and what strategies they use while reading selected passages. This technique acts as a primary source of data to gather information about the thinking processes that readers deeply get involved in during reading.

First, I ascribed the data from the think aloud protocol. Next, I modified recursive issues and found common themes for metacognitive reading strategies. Then, I coded obtained data.

C. Interview

In order to elicit information about individual insights and experiences, a semi-structured interview was used. Participants discuss what they employed as the most frequently metacognitive strategies in reading given English texts.

D. Data Collection

Think-aloud protocol, observation and interview were the multiple sources of collecting data in this work. I followed the accompanying steps in gathering data. The participants meet up with each other for four 2-3 hour session. The sessions lasted over 2weeks. Before the meeting, the participants were explained with the tasks they should perform. At the meeting, the researcher completed a questionnaire based on her observation followed by the think-aloud sessions. The researcher began by demonstration her thinking out loud using the short story. First after that, she asked the participants to model her steps of thinking while reading the same text.

Then, two students discussed what strategies and process they went through while interacting with the texts to make sense of them. Further giving their comments, participants read the English academic text on "Humor and Stress" to respond some questions at the end of each reading passage. Last, an interview about their reading experiences and strategies is conducted and the comments are transcribed on each student attempts to make sense of each selected texts.

E. Data Analysis

By using CCM method, in the analysis of think-aloud technique and interview, data were classified and coded in the process of the data collection.

Codes were modified according to reading strategies used by the participants in reading. The investigator reviewed the interview and think-aloud processes in the search for iterative and recurring issues related to the cognitive and metacognitive reading strategies. An analysis of content for every open-ended item is carried out to determine the most appropriate category for each response. Findings of collected data from multiple sources examined, specific themes were extracted in the sense that the overall themes were triangulated.

F. Coding Scheme

Over the last 30 years, many different first and second reading strategies have been identified. I mainly analyze the obtained data based on the following framework with three classifications of reading strategies adopted from (Juan, E. U., & Flor, A. M., 2006). The first classification is known as metacognitive strategies (including purpose-oriented, comprehension monitoring, and strategies that focus on learning from text). The second classification is called cognitive strategies (including strategies for interacting with the author and the text, strategies involving different ways of reading, strategies for handling unknown words, and those making use of one's prior knowledge in some way), as well as social and affective strategies as the last category(including considering factors such as emotions and attitudes).

G. Framework for Key Reading Strategies

The key reading strategies (adapted from Grabe and Stoller 2002; Oxford 1990; Sarig 1993; Pressley 2000; Anderson 1991, 1999) framework of key reading strategies is adapted for comparing strategies used by two participants in this inquiry. (as cited by Uso-Juan, Esther and Alicia Martinez-Flor (2006), p. 305)

III. Result

A. Reading Strategies

The results reveal that there are three broad areas: a) the most frequently used strategies by two readers in reading L2 texts, b) the most effective strategies used by two students in reading L2, c) the development of metacognition in reading L2. To achieve the purpose of reading a text for better text understanding, the readers should develop strategic reading competence i.e. the ability to take control of own process of making sense of the text. In both L1 and L2, skilled readers use various strategies in their attempts to comprehend texts and identify the strategies they use, the most effective strategies they use and the way skilled readers use them is necessary for comprehending written texts.

The analysis of data for finding the most frequently used strategies by two readers in reading L2 texts, the most effective strategies used by two students in reading L2, the development of metacognition in reading L2 was conducted. The bilingual student used a much wider range of metacognitive strategies when reading English texts than the other student and there were some distinctions in the use of specific strategies when the two students were processing the same English texts.

The participants in this inquiry were using similar metacognitive strategies in reading the two types of Persian texts (Table 1).

TABLE I
STRATEGIES USED BY BOTH STUDENTS IN READING PERSIAN TEXTS

Strategies used by both students in reading Persian texts
Evaluating the quality of the text
Evaluating information in terms of whether it leads to one's purpose
Deciding whether the text is relevant to one's purpose
Reflecting on how well objectives were met
Comparing information from one text with that of another
Summarizing what one has read
Making connections between a text and one's prior knowledge
Re-reading
Underlining or marking in text
Making notes about what one has read
Paraphrasing what the author said in order to remember it

Similar evidence of metacognition was seen while they engage in Persian reading tasks including: evaluating the quality of the text, evaluating information in terms of whether it leads to one's purpose, deciding whether the text is relevant to one's purpose, reflecting on how well objectives were met, summarizing what one has read, making connections between a text and one's prior knowledge, re-reading, underlining or marking in text, making notes about what one has read, paraphrasing what the author said in order to remember it. In addition, the ability to assess one's own reading practice also shows the participants' awareness of their own strengths or weaknesses as a reflection in reading skill.

The analysis showed that the most of the strategies fall into three categories:

8 purpose-oriented strategies, 5 comprehension-monitoring strategies, 3 repair strategies and 5 strategies that focus on learning from reading were employed more often by student1.

The transcript from the interview responses and think-aloud procedure indicated that the participant who had learnt English from childhood was more successful in implementing different types of strategies in reading across the two English text types including the metacognitive, cognitive and social and affective strategies.

The student who was learning English at university, stated that she memorize important points or key concepts in order to be able to comprehend the text. She tended to read the passage at word or sentence level, and she sometimes tried to translate the text into her first language for better comprehension of the idea that the author was trying to convey or reread the text if it was not primarily understood.

After assessing data obtained from think-aloud protocol against the two types of English texts, Student2 was supposed to be more skillful and fluent reader than student1. She made fewer pauses while reading both texts in comparison with the other reader. She read them faster with fewer miscues as well. It may be due to the fact that when she was reading the passage, she processed most of the reading comprehension at the same time. That was observable that she read the text easily in such a way that fewer cognitive and more metacognitive reading strategies were needed to be used by her compared to the other participant.

Also, student2 analyzed the texts in larger chunks of words and she commented on them more often than the other reader. It could be deduced from her reflections that she truly figured out the massage of the texts.

It was concluded that the most reading strategies used by her in reading the two types of English texts were strategies such as summarizing, critiquing the text, connecting one part of the text to another, reading selectively, deciding whether or not to read something, constructing mental images to represent the meanings expressed in text, making connections between a text and one's prior knowledge and reflecting on what has been learned from the text (Table 2).

Reflecting on the texts and summarizing are two abilities requiring the students to synthesize the presented massage in the higher-level thinking processes.

Making connection between important ideas from a text and giving attention to supporting ideas to form overall meaning of the reading text are fundamental in higher-level comprehension process in the view of Grabe and Stroller (2002).

Exploiting the prior knowledge to make association with the reading text for full comprehension is considered essential for both readers. The results also indicated that student2 benefited from integration of textual information with her prior knowledge helping her to interact with the relevant topics better than student1. When reading in second language, student1 was faced with some unfamiliar words; hence, she tried to look up the words meanings and to paraphrase all of the text into her own personal understandings.

TABLE II
STRATEGIES USED BY STUDENT 2 IN READING ENGLISH TEXTS

Strategies used by student 2 in reading English texts
Summarizing what one has read
Reminding oneself about the purpose for reading
Deciding whether a text is relevant to one's purpose
Reflecting on what has been learned from the text
Paraphrasing what the author said in order to remember it
Critiquing the author/text
Thinking how to use a text in the future
Interpreting the text
Making connections between a text and one's prior knowledge, paying attention to text structure
Constructing mental images to represent the meanings expressed in text
Skimming for a general idea
Scanning for specific information
Reading selectively
Deciding whether or not to read something
Ignoring certain texts or parts of a text
Thinking about what one already knows about a topic
Connecting one part of the text to another
Analyzing texts into the typical components and language of that genre
Rewarding oneself
Selecting what one wants to read

The data suggested that the most frequently-used strategies by student1 in reading English texts were strategies such as summarizing what one has read, evaluating one's understanding, identifying difficulties in understanding, re-reading, previewing a text, asking questions about the text, Looking for answers to questions about the text and paying attention to text structure (Table 3).

TABLE III.
STRATEGIES USED BY STUDENT 1 IN READING ENGLISH TEXTS

Strategies used by student 1 in reading English texts
Evaluating one's understanding
Identifying difficulties in understanding
Re-reading
Slowing down and reading again
Previewing a text
Predicting the contents of the text
Asking questions about the text
Looking for answers to questions about the text
Using other information in the context to understand an unknown word
Analyzing the structure or parts of a word to understand it
Revising one's prior knowledge that is inconsistent with ideas in the text
Paying attention to text structure
Talking with others about what one reads

During the think aloud session giving information about student2, her reflection usually involved employing a lot of reading strategies to cope with the task demands and adjusting them to overcome the breakdown in comprehension. A set of effective strategies which were repeatedly used by the bilingual student in each text type to increase their comprehension of transactional text extracted from data obtained from the think aloud and interview analysis contains:

- Reflecting on how well objectives were met
- Predicting the contents of the text
- Thinking about what one already knows about a topic and revising one's prior knowledge that is inconsistent with ideas in the text, if convinced by information or arguments in the text
- Verifying whether one's guess about meaning fits the context and one's conceptual knowledge; then revising or seeking alternative explanations
- Evaluating and revising hypotheses that arose while reading
- Summarizing what one has read
- Making associations to ideas presented in a text based on prior knowledge
- Critiquing the text
- Encouraging oneself

B. Reading Fluency

One problem that English readers of other languages are encountered is that they slowly read in English as their foreign or second language (L2). Slow reading for many learners, especially ESOL postgraduate learners may cause limitation in their ability to meet the requirements of their courses and thus lack of the necessary time to read e.g. professional documentation, dissertation, etc.

The link between comprehension and speed in L2/FL reading has not been clearly demonstrated. In this study, student2 read the expository English passage at around 216 wpm and the read the narrative English passage at around 255 wpm. Student1 read the expository English passage at around 127 wpm and the narrative English passage at around 158 wpm. Also, student2 read the expository Persian text at around 195 wpm and the narrative Persian text at around 164 wpm. Student1 read the expository Persian text at around 174 wpm and the narrative Persian text at around 198 wpm. The findings are shown in Table 4.

TABLE IV.
AN EXAMPLE OF A TABLE

Participants	Reading Speed			
	E/narrative	E/expository	P/narrative	P/expository
Student1	255	216	220	195
Student2	158	127	198	174

These findings indicate that the changes in reading speed from English to Persian texts differed for both students against expository and narrative passages. As Table 4 illustrates, reading speed for student2 in reading English passages is similar to a native-like reading fluency. Student1 read much slower in both text types than the student2, although she read much faster in her first language showing the importance of the ability to read a text fluently as an essential component of reading skill. Reading rates were slower for expository rather than narrative tasks in both Persian and English language which can be due to being more cognitively demanding of expository texts in processing. Also, there was more change in reading fluency between two students for the English texts compared to the Persian texts. This result can explained by the fact that student2 is a more fluent reader who is an additive bilingual in both Persian and English.

IV. CONCLUSION

There are three differences between L1 and L2 readers and reading contexts

- Summarizing what one has read
- Individual and experiential differences
- Socio-cultural and institutional differences

What I have learned from the findings of this inquiry is that L2 students have developed metacognition in L2 reading by their experiences during a long period of study. At first of their study, they faced some difficulties in coping with challenging texts, then as graduating they were exposed to large amounts of reading and became capable of using appropriate strategies to increase their reading ability. In late bilingualism, L2 metacognitive reading strategies are developed incrementally through a time-consuming process, whereas they have already been developed for early bilinguals. The metacognitive strategies employed by student2 in reading L2 texts were as a reminder of the metacognitive strategies used in reading L1 texts and those that are used by student2 could be corresponded to metacognitive strategies used in reading L2 texts.

This study compared Persian and English reading speed and performance on two different reading text tasks (expository and narrative) for two students of English who differed in their English background and speaking community in which they had learned English language.

The findings of the this research in accordance with previous studies demonstrated a noticeable difference between first and second language reading rate, also difference across various types of reading text (with various degree of complexity). Both participants were more fluent readers when they read in their first language.

Another explanation for the slow reading rate in English texts for student1 is that she has not developed higher level skills of word processing and there is a gap between her knowledge system of word recognition and word automaticity. Another important finding resulted from comparisons between students' reading rate was the gap in their performance on pairs of tasks with less differentiation in Persian rather than in English texts. For instance, a much smaller difference between speed of reading for Persian expository and narrative tasks was seen (198 wpm compared to 174 wpm for student1 and 220 wpm compared to 195 wpm for student2).

It can be discussed that student1 in this inquiry reads at a consistently low reading rate in English and she is not able to adjust her processing level to the demand of task for reading texts in her second language to the same extent that she can for corresponding reading texts in her first language. This variation in reading rates for student1 in her first and second language reading suggests that Persian speaker participant has not yet been able to achieve her optimum reading rate in learning to read in her second language.

Appendix. Key Reading Strategies

(adapted from Grabe and Stoller 2002; Oxford 1990; Sarig 1993; Pressley 2000; Anderson 1991, 1999) framework of key reading (as cited by Uso-Juan, Esther and Alicia Martinez-Flor (2006), p. 305)

A.1. Metacognitive Strategies

Purpose-oriented strategies:
- Planning what to do next, steps to take
- Reminding oneself about the purpose for reading
- Evaluating information in terms of whether it leads to one's purpose
- Deciding whether a text is relevant to one's purpose
- Comparing information from one text with that of another
- Reflecting on how well objectives were met
- Evaluating the quality of a text
- Checking the time one has available

Comprehension-monitoring strategies:
Assessing comprehension
- Evaluating one's understanding
- Identifying difficulties in understanding
- Summarizing what one has read
- Restating for oneself what one has read
- Reviewing a text after reading is completed
- Repair strategies
- Re-reading
- Slowing down and reading again
- Trying to pronounce words

Strategies that focus on learning from reading:
- Reflecting on what has been learned from the text
- Underlining or marking in text
- Thinking how to use a text in the future
- Making notes about what one has read
- Paraphrasing what the author said in order to remember it

A.2. Metacognitive Strategies

Strategies for interacting with author and text:
- Previewing a text
- Predicting the contents of the text
- Checking/confirming predictions
- Asking questions about the text
- Looking for answers to questions about the text
- Connecting one part of the text to another
- Critiquing the author
- Critiquing the text
- Evaluating and revising hypotheses that arose while reading
- Interpreting the text
- Making associations to ideas presented in a text based on prior knowledge

- Constructing mental images to represent the meanings expressed in text
Strategies involving different ways of reading:
- Reading slowly
- Reading quickly
- Skimming for a general idea
- Scanning for specific information
- Re-reading
- Ignoring certain texts or parts of a text
- Reading out loud (and listening to how it sounds)
- Reading selectively/deciding whether or not to read something
- Reading ahead
Strategies for handling unknown words:
- Using other information in the context to understand an unknown word
- Skipping/ignoring an unknown word
- Waiting to see if more information is provided later
- Analyzing the structure or parts of a word in order to understand it
- Asking someone the meaning of a word
- Looking up a word in a dictionary
- Pronouncing a word
- Thinking about other related words that one already knows
- Thinking about cognates in the L1
- Translating a word/phrase into the L1
- Checking the spelling of a word
Strategies involving prior knowledge:
- World knowledge:
- Thinking about what one already knows about a topic
- Making connections between a text and one's prior knowledge
- Revising one's prior knowledge that is inconsistent with ideas in the text, if convinced by information or arguments in the text
- Knowledge of texts and text formats:
- Using discourse markers to identify relationships
- Connecting one part of a text to another
- Paying attention to text structure
- Verifying whether one's guess about meaning fits the context and one's conceptual knowledge; then revising or seeking alternative explanations
- Analyzing texts (e.g., stories, science reports) into the typical components and language of that genre (e.g., story grammar, steps/components of science experiments)

A.3. Affective and Social Strategies

Rewarding oneself
- Talking with others about what one reads
- Encouraging oneself
- Selecting what one wants to read

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Manifestation of Chinese and American Values in *The Wedding Banquet*

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***Abstract*—This paper mainly focuses on various cultural values and conflicts represented in the film *The Wedding Banquet*. In contrast with the civil marriage ceremony of American style performed in a Registry Office, the Chinese wedding is much more luxurious, filled with lots of over-elaborated formalities that are necessary in Chinese culture. The ceremony itself is considered more important than the notarization. Taking the subject of sexual orientation as a metaphor for larger cultural issues, the film is examined as identity confusion and inevitably, the pursuit of identity reconstruction. Through Wei-Tung's psychological struggles between Chinese traditional values and his homosexual desires, the film explores the possibility of a re-considered perception of identity for an Asian diasporic gay. Given the historical baggage brings with them, the process of the construction of identity for the immigrant is continuously dynamic and ongoing. After the implicit negotiations between ethnicity, sexuality, and patriarchy, the film story moves to reconciliation. This suggests that in such an era of multiculturalism, people had better come to realize their individual identities of diversity and complexity.**

***Index Terms*—cultural values, wedding banquet, homosexual, identity**

I. Introduction

The film *The Wedding Banquet* was directed by Ang Lee in 1993 with the primary plot of interracial romance. The film *The Wedding Banquet* has been honored at film festivals and hailed around the world.The prizes won include the nomination for the best foreign film at the 1994 Academy Awards,the Golden Space Needle of the Seattle International Film Festival and the Golden Bear by the Berlin International Film Festival.[1] It tells a story about a young Chinese immigrant -Wei-Tung's life in America.Simon and Wei-Tung are a gay couple living together in Manhattan.To still the doubts of Wei-Tung's parents,Simon suggests a marriage of convenience between Wei-Tung and Wei-wei,an immigrant in urgent need of a green card.Complications arise when the joyous parents arrive for the wedding and a huge cross-cultural banquet is arranged to celebrate.However,being trickled by the guests in the wedding,Wei-wei seduces the drunken Wei-Tung and becomes pregnant.Simon is extremely disappointed when he finds it out,and his relationship with Wei-Tung begins to deteriorate.After several chaotic scenes of generational and cultural conflicts in the Gao's family,the film ends with a reconciliation:Wei-wei agrees to give birth to Wei-Tung's baby while Mr.and Mrs.Gao return to Taiwan with an acceptance of the gay couple's partnership.

II. Body

A. Different Attitudes toward Family in China and America

"Historically the nuclear family served as the focal point of social organization and production in China and was firmly anchored in the Confucian philosophy of filial piety and the firm belief that the family is more important than the individual (Chao, 1983, p.121-125). The source of power in the family was firmly anchored in male authority patterns. Consequently the Chinese family is patriarchal and loyalty is important. Individuals are not simply members of groups but belong to groups. The traditional Chinese family assumed the nuclear form and consisted of the husband, wife, and their children. The father and his sons were the most important members of the Chinese family, as the male line of authority and inheritance could be traced back in time for progeny, and to future generations, to preserve and continue the male line of descent. Usually when the child comes to the age of marriage, the family elders would try to urge him to find out his proper partner. At the very beginning of the film, Mrs. Gao (Wei-Tung's mother) expresses her worry towards her son, by trying to set him up with Chinese-American women of similar background and interests, through a dating agency, called *Singles Club.* In the tape Mrs. Gao sends to Wei-Tung, she said, "you're not getting any younger yourself. When will you marry? You know, Pa came from mainland to Taiwan all by himself and you're his only precious son. So don't be such a snob! Last week we enrolled you into Taipei's best singles club and they'll send you a computer form for you to describe your ideal woman. All their girls have impeccable backgrounds. They are well-educated, well brought up, elegant and very attractive, like Mrs. Quian's daughter, the one you refused to marry. Please, son. Don't be so choosy." In this sense, marriage is considered a family affair rather than a matter of individual choice. Each family makes every effort to find the right woman to produce the mail heirs that were essential to the preservation of the family name and line of

[1] Please refer to essay titled "Xi yan - Awards " with its author unspecified. <https://www.imdb.com/title/tt0107156/awards?ref_=tt_awd>

descent. The first time Wei-Tung's father sees Wei-wei, he says that, "Good. My investment paid off. She'll make lots of babies". Wei-Tung's life is considered as his father's own property and one reason why he satisfied with Wei-wei is that he thought she will produce many children for the Gao family. Wei-Tung's parents' views stand for traditional Chinese values in general, if not the Chinese culture itself.

Here we see that family is extremely important in Eastern culture, so no wonder why Wei-Tung's parents keep pressuring him to marry. In the film, Simon representing the west is the female in the relationship. Simon can cook, wears earrings and takes good care of Wei-Tung. Though Simon is a good partner and Wei-Tung's parents like him, he cannot produce any children. So, it is made quite apparent that Wei-Tung's parents' traditional ideas and ways of life will clash with the young people's new lifestyle. In Western/American society, identity is more about individuality. Family relationship is based on the autonomy, which means that each person should be treated as an individual first and only secondarily as a member of a group or the occupant of a position in a hierarchy (Wang, 2012). In individualistic culture, people tend to be less aware of others' feelings while self-reliance and independence are highly valued. Sometimes Chinese people would think that Americans do not take care of their elderly parents as well as Chinese do. But the Americans think that they do care for the elderly in a way that does not interfere with the autonomy and independence of the older person (Davis, 2001, p. 213). In the conversation about Simon's family between Wei-Tung's mother and Simon in the film, the characteristic of individualism revealed clearly in Simon. He knows his mother in Boston, while thinks that maybe his father is in Arizona. Talking about brothers and sisters, he says that: "Well, my father, who's quite old now, did have a son by a first marriage but I never met him. He died in the Vietnam War...I have two sisters; both of them live in San Francisco". Obviously, each person is seen as autonomous and separate in American culture. Thus, the different attitudes toward family would cause cultural-confrontation inevitably, especially in the exemplification of the huge wedding banquet.

B. Cultural Connotation of the Wedding Feast

The wedding culture is considered as a vital part of Chinese tradition. The holly marriage is practiced in honor of family value and respect to committed relationship. By holding the wedding banquet, the marriage status of the bride and groom is socially recognized by the people around them. Although young men and women enjoy much more freedom to choose their other half with the development of society, marriages are still chosen based upon the needs of reproduction and honor to some extent. [2]

In the film *The Wedding Banquet,* the tension is focused on homosexuality and generational/cultural differences. The old couple, Mr.and Mrs.Gao, come from Taiwan all for their son's wedding. They take 3000 dollars as gifts from their relatives and give many other special gifts to their future daughter-in-law for taking care of their son, such as natural pearls from Japan, red coral pin from Malaysia, gold bracelet from Old Chang and Mrs.Gao's priceless wedding Chi-Pao gown from mainland, all of which represent fertility and prosperity in Chinese culture. Despite Wei-Tung and Wei-wei's efforts to have a small non-religious marriage ceremony performed in a Registry Office, Wei-Tung's parents are able to plan an excessive wedding banquet with the help of a man who once was a subordinate of Wei-Tung's father in the military. Reluctantly, the newlyweds accept to hold a grand Chinese wedding feast finally for like Mrs.Gao's opinion, marriage happens only once in a lifetime and if there is no formal wedding banquet, what can they tell to their relatives? In her mind, marriage is a matter for others, rather than for young people themselves. So when they meet their old servant, old Chen, in the restaurant, the old couple accept old Chen's suggestion to hold a traditional Chinese wedding ceremony happily:

Old Chen: Young master,when did you marry? I have no gift for you. I must make it up to you.

Wei-tung: That won't be necessary.We just got married today at City Hall. Pa and Ma came for the wedding.

Old Chen: You got married at City Hall?

Wei-tung: That's right. This is our wedding dinner and we ran into you.

Old Chen: Young master, I know I'm out of line but the Commander is very well-known and respected. How could you have been so inconsiderate? I'm only a servant, but even when my third son was married I had a banquet for 200 guests. Allow me, Commander... Hey, I've got an idea! Although you kids want to be modem, what is a wedding without a banquet? So if you don't mind that my place is a bit small and the food not so great, it would please me if I could offer it to the young master for his wedding banquet. We have a party room and there is a hotel above. We can get a room for the newlyweds.

Wei-Tung: That would be too much trouble for you.

Old Chen: No trouble. Old Chen wants nothing better than to plan a banquet. All you have to do is show up. Look at the smile on the Commander's face. Young master, I'm not doing this for you. It's for the Commander. He's been going to other people's banquets for years. Now it's time for him to get back some of the gifts he gave. If you don't let him have this then you're an ungrateful son.

Wei-Tung: Won't this be too much trouble?

Old Chen: Then it's decided. Commander, leave everything to me. It'll be a great banquet! You won't lose face in America!

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[2] For more information about Chinese wedding culture, please refer to essay titled "Complete Guide to Chinese Wedding" with its author unspecified. <http://www.chinabridal.com/etiquette/guide.htm>

No words are more satisfying than these for the old couple at this moment and they get to prepare for the big day joyfully.

The next morning, Wei-Tung kneels to his parents as soon as gets up. This is a ritual for thanking his parents' upbringing. While for the bride, the procedures involved are much more complicated---"hair dressing" ritual is the first one in the morning. A "good luck woman", someone who is blessed with a good marriage, healthy husband and children and living parents, will come to help combing the bride's hair. In *the wedding banquet,* it is Sister Mao comes to help Wei-wei for her hair-dressing. Traditionally, the groom's family also conduct "capping" ritual for the groom at their home. In Chinese culture, these rituals signify that the new couple are reaching adulthood and they are supposed to take on adult responsibilities. When they are ready for these, the bride and bridegroom would come to offer tea for their parents, which is also ceremonial. At this official ritual, parents give their words of blessing and gifts to the newlyweds. The "good luck woman" would say some auspicious phrases to the new couple. In the film, Wei-Tung and Wei-wei kneel to Wei-Tung's parents three times, and each gets a red envelop of money back. After this, both of them are asked to kneel again for lotus soup, for it is said that, "Have some lotus soup, a son will come quickly". A young boy, named Stone, is invited to jump on the bridal bed to bring fertility to the newlyweds. Marriage is representative of the passing down, of delivering offspring, so that the family name could be continued. Thus it is the end of the ritual and the wedding proceeds to the banquet venue.

Traditional Chinese wedding was very strict about the wedding dresses. However, there are some variations in the case nowadays. Usually, there will be three different dresses for the bride at the wedding day. She would start with white dress with veil in western style. Then at the tea ceremony and the banquet, she would change into traditional Chinese bridal dress --- red Cheongsam. The color red is thought to be auspicious, a strong color that can drive away evil spirits. Finally, before the bride leaves the banquet, she would change into a cocktail dress to see the guests off at the door. In this sense, this last dress is also known as "going away" dress. In the film, Wei-wei did change her dress many times in this big day.

The food served in the wedding banquet in the film also very abundant. Certain typical Chinese wedding food are served, which include fish, roast suckling pig, chicken cooked with red oil, lobster and desert bun with lotus seeds stuffed inside. The pronunciation of fish, *yu*, sounds like the word for riches or abundance, meaning the newlyweds will be blessed with large amounts of wealth. Roast suckling pig is served whole, symbolizing the purity of the bride. Chicken also means phoenix, cooked in red oil with the wish for a wealthy life ahead for the new couple. Lobster literally means "dragon shrimp" in Chinese. At wedding banquet, having lobster and chicken together means that the dragon and the phoenix are harmonious together, and the Yin and Yang elements in this family are well balanced. Alcoholic drinks are necessities at a wedding banquet, and the bride and groom often toast to each table of the banquet. They will usually be teased and join in games at the banquet. In the film, Wei-Tung and Wei-wei are compelled to toast all guests, as who shout that "Just can't toast an entire table and just take a short sip. You must toast a full glass to each of us. We all come from far away". The carnivalesque performances designed become an exotic tour of the taste for non-Chinese audience.

C. Who Is the "Other": Orient or Occident?

If it is as true as Foucault (2010) declares that "power is everywhere; not because it embraces everything, but because it comes from everywhere" (p.93), the power relations in ethnicity construction in the American cultural supermarket then is rather complex and subtle because there various forms of cultures clank and clash in everyday huddle and hustle. In such a cultural supermarket, ethnicity can be demonstrated in peaceful multiculturalism coexistence, in discrimination or in violent inter-ethnic confrontation (Conrad, 2002). In the "Melting Pot" style, ethnicity must be discarded and rejected while mainstream culture must be adopted and acquired; and when it comes to the modem multicultural era, the cultural difference is respected or even elaborated, and cultural choices become more diverse and personal-related.

In the film, though many American guests come to attend the wedding banquet as friends, the Chinese still cannot actually enjoy the consent or identification from them. Asians has been thought to be racially undesirable, a race that could never be successfully assimilated into the mainstream of American life for more than a century. All the Americans rely on the Western knowledge for their judgment on China. So even American culture establishes a cultural supermarket and encourages multicultural coexistence there, it can never avoid the double-edged nature of cultural norms, which authorizes the cultural insider and marginalizes those newcomers from outside.

Basically, according to Elaine Kim (1982), there are two kinds of stereotypes of Asians in American popular culture: the "bad" Asians-sinister villains and brute hordes who cannot be controlled and must therefore be destroyed-and the "good" Asians-helpless heathens, loyal sidekicks, docile servants, and seductive female sex partners who pose no apparent threat.[3] In both cases, the images of the Asians portrayed by Anglo-American mainly serves as a foil for the Anglo: when the Asian is cruel and duplicitous, the Anglo is presented indirectly as righteous and humane; when the Asian is a agreeable and obedient inferior, the Anglo is projected as kind and important. The comical, cowardly servant placates a strong and intelligent white master; the helpless heathen is saved by a benevolent white savior; the clever Chinese detective solves mysteries for the benefit of his ethical white clients and colleagues. What both the "bad" and the "good" Asians have in common is that they define the Anglo as physically, spiritually and morally superior.

[3] Refer to Elaine H. Kim, (1982). Images of Asians in Anglo-American Literature. Asian American Literature: An Introduction to the Writings and Their Social Context. Philadelphia: Temple University Press. pp.3-22.

This marginalization of ethnicity, as Shohat (1996) argues, “reflects the imaginary of the dominant group which envisions itself as the ‘universal’ or the ‘essential’ American nation, and thus ‘beyond’ or ‘above’ ethnicity”(p. 215).To separate the “Center” from the ethnic “other” and to universalize the American “Center”, the domination culture must work out an ontological and epistemological distinction between “the Orient” and (most of the time) “the Occident” (Said, 1977). In multiculturalism, where cultural diversity is encouraged and cultural identification is respected, cultural distinction is invisibly promoted and intensified. Even though multiculturalism advocates the peaceful coexistence of dominant and ethnic culture, it can never eliminate the logic of binary oppositions and the marginalization of ethnicity. Once the ethnic form of other cultures becomes a threat or challenge to the “Center”, it is misinterpreted or suppressed by the host culture, or reinvented to its own taste. The American people’s “insatiable appetite” for lurid stories about Chinese made almost every area of Chinese life a popular topic in American life and culture for generations (McClellan, 1971, p.13). Chinatown, which has been considered as a den of vice peopled by opium addicts, tong assassins, and slave girls by the Americans for a long time. This stereotype about Chinatown strengthened already widespread misconceptions about Chinese in America and so caused many misunderstandings. According to the popularly accepted mythology, no matter how “American” the Asian might seem, he was ultimately an unassimilable alien. That is because race stereotypes essentialize or ignore specifically human qualities and thus there are no “favorable” stereotypes. “Good” Chinese are simply friendly to whites, and “bad” Chinese are hostile. Both are grotesque parodies, portrayals in a vacuum, and both serve to emphasize the inherent superiority of the white race. Barbaric Asian hordes can be seen as masses of helpless heathens; all are faceless, lacking in individual identities, and both are defined by the white hero that subdues or saves them. The popular image of the Asian woman is that they are warmly sensual, imbued with an innate understanding of how to please her man and how to serve him. In this sense, the Chinese are treated as the “Other” to the Americans. The “Other” helps the Americans to know who they are because the “other” provides an example of what they are not. Kian Woon Kwok (1996) describes the importance of the “Other” to the construction of social identities:

> “Identity is a relational concept; it implies a relationship between one group and an Other or Others, whether real or imagined, whether clearly specified or not. Thus, part of the process of identifying “us”is to make the Other out to be different. In some instances, the Other is clearly specified and the relation is that of “us” vs. “them”. Thus “us” is identified by how “they” perceive “us” as “their Other,” and a more conscious position is taken to counter *their* perception of us if it is negative and to confirm it if it is positive. In either case, when this is done, the group consciously or unconsciously builds its self-image through the perception of others”.(p.25)

The construction and adoption of a racial and ethnic social identity represent a constant negotiation between self and other identification, which indicates the implications attached to possible identities and bounds. Alejandro Portes and Dag Macleod (2010) describe the process as a symbolic interaction between ethnic minorities and the host society that involves a dizzying loop: “what they think your ethnicity is influences what you think your ethnicity is, to say nothing of what they think you think your ethnicity is”(p.14). The orientalist ideology explains this in a special way that the western “Center” to conquer and control the oriental “Other”. Orientalism, as Said (1977) elaborates, is

> “Ultimately a political vision of reality whose structure promoted the difference between the familiar (Europe, the west, ‘Us’)and the strange (the orient, the east, ‘them’) ...when one uses categories like Oriental and Western as both the starting and the end points of analysis, research, public policy...the result is usually to polarize the distinction---the Oriental becomes more Oriental, the Westerner more Western---and limit the human encounter between different cultures, traditions, and societies” (p.22).

Orientalism, emerging out of an epistemological need to differentiate “Us” from “Them”, has become a special form of ethnocentrism and racism. Accordingly, how to understand the different rituals in Chinese wedding banquet determines the American construction of the Chinese race in its own discourse. In the operation of power discourse-Chinese culture as the powerless “Other” cannot truly and truthfully define and identify itself, hence becoming a floating signifier waiting for the Western “Center” to define and redefine.

In the film, the process of cultural confrontation makes Wei-Tung realize the dubility of his own cultural identity. For all Chinese, especially for the old generations in the film, all the Americans are their cultural “other” because they cannot understand the traditional rituals of wedding. And moreover, when finally does Wei-Tung confess his secret, his mother, Mrs.Gao considered that homosexuality as a kind of “sickness” and it is Simon led his son astray. “Simon led you astray?...Why? You did have girlfriends in college! You are quite normal at that time.” Different apprehensions of each other culture lead to misunderstandings. Every culture in the formation of its civilization is not impregnable to the “Center-Other” binary logic and will develop on the basis of its opposition with “the big Other” and “an unshakable belief in a consistent Other, an Other without gaps, an “Other of the Other”(Wu,1991,p.179). This “Center-Other” cultural relations become more complicated in the trend of globalization. Fanon(2008) once commented that “in the soul of those colonized, an inferiority complex has been created by the death and burial of its local cultural identity” (p.18). To the immigrants in *The Wedding Banquet,* they may still believe they are the “Center” and the Americans the “Other”, but the reality in the cultural supermarket will surely shake and destroy their ethnocentric illusion. All of them must give up some of their rights, values, and traditions for gaining what they want. Looking first at Mr.Gao, at the last scene of the movie, he puts his hands up as in surrender to the American security guard in the airport. This act means the surrendering of his Eastern identity so as to be adapted into Western culture and get his wishes realized. For Wei-wei, though at last she decides to keep the baby, she says that she sacrifices too much for the green card: "Maybe there are more important things in life than hiding in America. We are so selfish. For our own interests, we planned this bogus marriage. We let Simon down your parents, too. If we continued, we'd let the kid down, too".

So it is the distinction or positioning of "Center" and "Other" determined by the power of discourse. It is always two-way directional, although the host culture often has the privilege. As Richard (1999) points out, "the representation of white people serves the interests of white people...it allies whiteness with power, intelligence and enterprise, with will and control (of self and others) (Beverley,1999, p.135). The discursive and ethnocentric representation in fact is not a western monopoly but rather a universal phenomenon in every culture. So neither Orient nor Occident is the "Center" or the "Other".

D. Negotiation of an Asian Diaspora Queer Identity

Structured as a domestic tragicomedy, *The Wedding Banquet* also explores the protagonists' struggle to recognize their gay identity as individuals. As Smith (1997) defines individual identity as: "it is not of a common denominator of patterns of life and activity, much less some average, but rather of subjective feelings and valuations of any population which possess common experiences and one or more shared cultural characteristics (usually customs, language or religion)" (p.171-91). Quite contrary to the collective identity, the "individual identity" shifts the focus to the subjective world and emphasizes the individual choice of identification. But when confronted by the shaping power of the dominant culture, he is not always passive and helpless but is instead more or less privileged with the right to choose and identify with, especially in the case of immigrants who are dislocated from their born culture. In other words, individual identity is the sense of "self", "the essential core of who we are as individuals" and "the conscious experience of the self inside" (Kaufman, 1996, p.68). And this individual identity is, to a large extent, subject to the construction of subjectivity which refers to "the conscious and unconscious thoughts and emotions which constitute our sense of 'who we are' and positions within culture"(Woodward,1997,p.39). In this light, a certain complex relationship exists in the triangle between identity, subjectivity and culture. Identity is constructed in the formation of subjectivity, and the construction of subjectivity cannot escape the shadow of culture, which not only inflicts the necessary shaping for subjectivity but at the same time provides a certain level of freedom under its normative regulations. In one word, "identity is formed at the unstable point where the 'unspeakable' stories of subjectivity meet the narratives of history, of a culture"(Hall,2000,p.135).

However, when it comes to the immigrants, identity problem, the tranquility in the Identity-Subjectivity-Culture triangle is disturbed as the composition of power relations within is correspondingly restructured. When Chinese immigrants are still at home, they are subjected to Chinese culture and that dominants every corner of their minds. Under such a condition, their individual identity overlaps with their collective identity and they never have cultural identity problems. However, after they arrived in America as immigrants and are dislocated and exiled from the born culture, the discordance between two identities appears, and the individual identity is highlighted in the new environment. The host culture encourages them to take a new life, but the past cultural memories still linger in their inner mind. Thus, the two cultures compete each other for the control of their subjectivity and the subject becomes "the site of a discursive battle for the meaning of their identity," and "their interpellation as subjects within any single discourse can never be final"(Easthope,2004,p.68-9).

For Wei-Tung, the central protagonist of the film *The Wedding Banquet,* these elements are in conflict. As both diaspora and gay, Wei-Tung becomes "an anomaly", consequently there is no fixed identity for him. His identity-orientation process is engaged in negotiation between his ethnicity, sexuality, and his father's patriarchy. This dilemma shows that the process for an immigrant to construct his new identity is entangled with his past memory, which will continually inflects the present, controlling its future trajectory. Wei-Tung is a Chinese American coming from a wealthy but traditional Chinese family. He is the cherished, only son from a culture which takes only the males as permanent members of a family. Whatever decisions Wei-Tung make will reflect on his family, bringing shame or pride to his ancestors as well as descendants(McGoldrick,2004).

Wei-Tung lives with two identities. On the one hand, he successfully managed to be assimilated into the western culture. In America, Wei-Tung is a promising realtor. He drives Mercedes-Benz, reads *World Trade and Fortune,* works out at a fitness club regularly, and owns an expensive Manhattan brownstone in mixed neighborhood. He appears to revere his parents, carefully storing each item sent to him from them. He pretends to have the "normal" sexual orientation as what his parent expected, in order to protect them while he participates in a loving, stable homosexual relationship. All of these show that he has evolved into the trajectory of American identity at the beginning. On the other hand, no matter how much Wei-Tung loves and respects his parents and carefully keeps all of their tokens and gifts, he dares not to tell them his real sex orientation. However, by protecting his parents from this very knowledge, it is very difficult for Wei-Tung to reconcile himself to his own identity. According to Zastrow and Kirst-Ashman (1994), a "...gay person with a heterosexual facade is burdened with pretending to be someone he or she is not. Such pretense can violate individual dignity and freedom" (p.543).

As for individual identity, Rutherford (1990) once said, "each individual identity is the synthesis not only of existing relations but of the history of these relations" (p.19). At the crossroad between history and future, and trapped in such an identity dilemma, Wei-Tung has to make a choice of his individual identity and reconstruct his subjectivity in the clash of the two contradictory identities. As an immigrant in a new place, he certainly should make some sacrifice of his past life and adapts himself to the different cultural norms. So he picks up English language and American lifestyle, and toils day and night on the way to his American dream. He seems reached this goal until the unexpected coming of his parents and the holding of the huge wedding feast. As a Chinese, Wei-Tung has the responsibility to carry on his family line, just like what Anzaldu (1999) says, "I am a turtle, wherever I go I carry 'Home' on my back"(p.893). He stuck in a dilemma. It is impossible for him to go back to be a traditional obedient son and there is no home to return. The "home on his back" is just what he imagines, for that "migration is a one-way trip", and there is never a historical home to return to (Hall, 2000,p.134-135).

Obviously, we can sense the exilic temperament of the immigrant's identity imposes great pressure on Wei-Tung. Since many cultures have had, and unfortunately continue to have, an overwhelmingly homophobic view, it is not surprising that Wei-Tung keeps this sexual orientation as a secret, is afraid of his parents' reaction and the familial ramifications that his "coming out" would bring(Klein &Michael,1998). For Wei-Tung, there is tremendous pressure to carry on the family line; therefore, by admitting to his parents that he is a homosexual, Wei-Tung carries the additional burden of letting down his ancestors and the future descendants that will never be. And though the huge wedding feast did bring him back to the memory of Chinese culture, the source of his past identity, it cannot provide a final and definite solution to his identity crisis in America, and can only leave him an imagined and metaphysical "home" to identify himself with. In either case, he would remain in a state of imagined identification. The awkward position is, as Said (1977) explains, "you cannot go back to some earlier and perhaps more stable condition of being at home; and, alas, you can never fully arrive, be at one with your new home or situation (p.39). For Wei-Tung, it is hard for him to be the good son while also being at peace with being homosexual. He suffers the fragmentation of identity and the confusion of role. No matter how obedient he shows to his parents, he can never return to his past and assume his past unitary and stable identity as a Chinese.

In order to better understand the difficult situation Wei-Tung is in, we need to examine why Chinese culture refuses to accept homosexuality. The core Chinese cultural value is collectivism which gives great emphasis to the survival of their lineage. Having a son to carry out their family name is critically important for most traditional Chinese. Consequently, Mr. and Mrs. Gao suffered a major meltdown when finding out that their only son is a gay. They expect much for him, and expect it rigidly. These expectations cause him interpersonal conflicts; hence "coming out" becomes Wei-Tung's most difficult developmental challenge (Zastrow and Kirst-Ashman,1994). Minton and MacDonald(1993) conceptualize "coming out" as a "life-spanning developmental process that eventually leads to personal acceptance of a positive gay self-image and a coherent personal identity" (Laird,p.304). Wei-Tung dares not to speak out the truth to his parents, for which he believed would prevent his self-actualization and personal growth. As he confessed to his mother that, "I was afraid you couldn't take it. It's been 20 years. I've been living a big lie. There has been so much pain and joy. I've wanted to share with you, but I couldn't. Sometimes I wanted to tell you everything but I couldn't burden you with what has been with me so long". This is a big strike to his mother and she thinks that it is Simon led Wei-Tung astray and set many examples that Wei-Tung did have many girlfriends when he was in college. For most Asian parents, "gay" is something exotic, there is simply no necessity to give a thought about it because it is only a problem for white people: it is a white disease. In this context, it is no wonder why Wei-Tung's mother cannot accept this fact that her son is homosexually oriented.

So living between two cultures and keeping certain distance from both, the immigrant suffer from the lack of belongings. Potentially, the exilic situation of immigrants' identities means the birth of an entirely new hybrid identity instead of the old collective ones, if the individual identity transcends traditional thinking and thinks beyond the framework of binary opposition. The new hybrid identity is not the simple overlapping of two collective identities, but as what Homi Bhabha (2004) describes: "an emergence that turns "return" into "reinscription" or "redescription"(p.227). In this sense, the exilic identity is not something between the two collective identities, but something outside of them or even something against them. With its ambivalence produced within the rules of recognition of dominating discourse, the hybrid identity resists against the grains of both cultures and their collective identities as it articulates the signs of culture difference (Bhabha, 2004,p. 153).

In this sense, it is "the exile of identity" that encumbrances the reconstruction of the Chinese immigrants subjectivity and make the immigrants suffer in the clashes between the two collective identities. The immigrant as only a temporary site of identity will eventually evolve towards either of the two collective identities, but it can never orbit in their trajectories for long. The only destination for him is exile or hybridity. If Wei-Tung confessed his gay relationship at the very beginning and adopted a kind of new thinking towards identity problems, he would have realized the potential hybridity in the meaning of exile and would have accordingly changed his way of communication with his parents, and if that had been the case, everything would have been quite different.

III. Conclusion

In the American cultural supermarket, the Chinese immigrants like Wei-Tung and Wei-wei are willing to embrace the freedom of choice and enjoy the diversity of culture and the fluidity of identity, and at the same time bring with them their native cultural segments from the periphery into the American core and greatly enrich American culture. In the film, the Chinese way of wedding banquet and the case of homosexuality induce the strong confrontation between Chinese and American cultures and their respective ethnic identities. As a subject of both cultures, Wei-Tung has at first meant to carefully balance himself in between, and this binary thinking of identity impedes the reconstruction of his immigrant subjectivity and makes him suffer in the clashes between two collective identities. Fragmented between the born and adopted cultures, the reconstruction of Wei-Tung and Wei-wei's consciousness cannot be complete and unified because their identities can only remain an unstable site of confrontation and communication in such a situation. The fragmentation of subjectivity determines that Wei-Tung and Wei-wei can only be Sino-American cultural hybridity; any partial orientation towards either culture will result in the crisis of cultural identities. While for the Americans, their "hybridity-phobia" and resistance to hybridity is the main barrier in their adopting new attitudes toward cultural identity problems, therefore to be a strong hindrance to a fair understanding to the Chinese culture. Finally through the temporary dislocation of the born culture and the momentary cultural projection into the ethnic Chinese culture, American culture will be able to succeed in its liberation from hybridity-phobia and learn to accept and appreciate the ethnic forms of culture alien to it. In this sense, diaspora culture is an everlasting, never-stopping process, and the relationship between the diaspora culture and the host culture is a negotiation. The aim for the long process of negotiation is not a world without difference, but a world without estrangement.

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On Nominalization Metaphor and Its Discourse Function

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***Abstract*—According to systematic-functional grammar, nominalization is an important source from which grammatical metaphor derives. Starting from the concept of nominalization, this paper, based on a great number of examples, attempts to discuss the following three issues: definition of nominalization; classification of nominalization and its discourse function, and points out that the use of nominalization can add objectivity, conciseness, precision, cohesion and coherence to English discourse.**

***Index Terms*—nominalization, grammatical metaphor, discourse function**

I. INTRODUCTION

Nominalization metaphor is one of the most common features in human daily language use, and is the main manifestation of conceptual metaphor in systemic functional grammar metaphor. Due to the accuracy, objectivity and scientificity of EST texts, nominalization metaphor has become one of the important features of EST language. The study of the characteristics of EST from the perspective of grammatical metaphor theory in systemic functional linguistics provides a new perspective for the study of EST discourse. This paper intends to discuss the phenomenon of nominalized metaphor in scientific English discourse from the perspective of systemic functional linguistics, and analyze the textual function of nominalized metaphor in scientific English.

Halliday put forward the concept of grammatical metaphor for the first time in his book an Introduction to Functional Grammar published in 1985 to explain the complex relationship between the form and function of language. Since then, a large number of related articles have emerged at home and abroad, covering the nature, type, function, manifestation and action mechanism of grammatical metaphor. According to the viewpoint of systemic functional linguistics, the language system consists of phonology, lexicogrammar and discourse semantics, which are the relations between symbol and being symbolized or embodied. Specifically, phonological layer is the embodiment of lexical grammar layer, and lexical grammar layer is the embodiment of discourse meaning layer (Zhu, 2006, p.83-90). There are two ways to embody it: congruent form and non-consistent form. Halliday believes that grammatical metaphor is not only the variation of vocabulary, but also the variation of grammatical components and grammatical structures. He also called the "literal" meaning with strong metaphor-"inconsistent" as "metaphorical form". In the process of communication, the speaker decides whether to express himself metaphorically or consistently according to the situational context. It can be said that metaphorical use is a semantic choice. Halliday divides grammatical metaphor into conceptual metaphor and interpersonal metaphor. The main manifestation of conceptual metaphor is nominalization in language (Zhu, 2004, p.342). Starting with nominalization grammatical metaphor, this paper discusses the definition, types of nominalization and its constructive function for discourse.

According to the viewpoint of systemic functional linguistics, the language system consists of phonology, lexicogrammar and discourse semantics, which are the relations between symbol and being symbolized or embodied. Specifically, phonological layer is the embodiment of lexical grammar layer, and lexical grammar layer is the embodiment of discourse meaning layer [1]. However, this embodiment is not always one-to-one and sometimes one meaning can be embodied in several forms and one form can embody several meanings. Halliday divides the expressive relationship between vocabulary, grammar and semantics into congruent form relation and incommensurate form relation. The so-called consistent relation refers to a natural relation between semantic and grammatical categories, while the non-consistent relation refers to the non-naturalization of the relation between semantic and category. For example, in the transitive system of conceptual function, if the process is embodied by verb phrases, the participants are embodied by noun phrases, the features are embodied by adjectives, and logical relations such as time or result are embodied by conjunctions, this is a consistent relation. If the process and characteristics are embodied by noun phrases and the logical relationship is embodied by noun phrases, verb phrases or prepositional phrases, this is the non-consistent relationship, namely metaphorical expression. Hu Zhuanglin, a well-known linguist in China, believes that nominalization refers to the metaphorical process and characteristics. Instead of representing the process or acting as a garnish by clauses, nominalization reflects participants in the form of nouns [2].

II. Definition and Types of Nominalization

A. Definition of Nominalization

Nominalization is a common phenomenon in English usage. Quark et al. (1985) have defined nominalization from the perspective of part-of-speech conversion. They regard nominalization as "a noun phrase corresponding to clause predicate in morphology" (Quirk, 1985). Some people also regard nominalization as a linguistic phenomenon in which verbs or adjectives are used as nouns. Langacker believed that nouns are symbolic structures that can assign semantic poles to things. They show a group of related entities, not the relationships between entities (Langacker, 1991). Modern linguistic dictionaries define nominalization as the process of forming a noun from some other part of speech or the process of deriving a noun phrase from a bottom clause. We believe that nominalization is a process in which the process (the consistent form of its lexical and grammatical level is a verb) and the characteristic (the consistent form is an adjective) are metaphorically transformed so that they are not processes or modifiers in clauses but objects embodied in the form of nouns (Hu, 2004, p.171). In essence, the process of nominalization is the process of linguistic form or grammaticalization. From the perspective of semantic function, nominalization is to regard a certain process or feature as something, and part-of-speech conversion is only one way to realize this phenomenon (Zhu, 2006, p.83-90).

B. Types of Nominalization

Professor Zhu Yongsheng, a famous linguist in China, divides nominalization into the following three types: regard process as things; regard characteristics as things and evaluation as things.

1. See a process as a thing

Think of the process as something that can be represented by verbs or nouns. In the consistent form, the process is embodied by verbs, while in the non-consistent form, the process is embodied by nouns or noun phrases. In other words, the speaker regards the process as a thing.

For example :

1. (A) The witness *described* the murderer in great detail.
   (B) The witness gave a detailed *description* of the murderer.
2. (A) We can *improve* its performance when we use super-heated steam.
   (B) An *improvement* of its performance can be effected by the use of super-heated steam.
3. (A) The floods considerably *eroded* the land.
   (B) There was considerable *erosion* of the land from the floods.
4. (A) First, John *reviewed* how the dorsal fin *evolved*.
   (B) There was a first *review* of the *evolution* of the dorsal fin.
5. (A) A perpetrator grossly *violates* human rights.
   (B) A gross *violation* of human rights by a perpetrator.

The italicized parts in example (B) above are all converted from verbs in example (A). This transformation belongs to Halliday's conceptual metaphor. This kind of metaphor has the following three functions: (a) by recategorization, the original dynamic process is transformed into static state, which provides a different abnormal way for people to recognize the world, such as the (B) sentence in the above examples; (b) Through the dynamic process of nominalization, the grammatical features of English noun phrases containing several modifying elements are utilized, that is, the conceptual meaning of noun phrases is greatly or even infinitely expanded through the multi-structural modification of noun phrases, so as to achieve the purpose of concentrating information or classifying things, such as Consensus in Example 3(B) and First Review in Example 4(B); (c) Using the feature that English noun phrases can not contain personal pronouns, the writer is made more objective by grammaticalizing the agent and hiding the implementer. For example, in Example 3(B), the implementer (John) in Example 3(A) is changed into the environmental component from the floods by nominalization in Example 4(B), and the implementer (John) in Example 4(A) is completely omitted by nominalization in review.

2. Regard features as things

To regard features as things can be embodied by adjectives or nouns and noun phrases. In the consistent form, the process is represented by adjectives, while in the non-consistent form, the process is represented by nouns or noun phrases. That is to say, the speaker regards features as things.

Examples:

6. (A) She was *narrow-minded* and I don’t like it.
   (B) I don’t like her *narrow-mindedness*.
7. (A) He was *hungry* to be successful.
   (B) He was born with a *hunger* to be successful.
8. (A) Because *technology is getting better*, we are able to write work report faster.
   (B) *Advances in technology* are speeding up the writing of work report.
9. (A) It is doubtful how *accurate* the experiment results are.
   (B) The *accuracy* of the experiment results is doubtful.

The italicized parts in the above example (B) are all converted from adjectives in example (A). This transformation also belongs to Halliday's conceptual metaphor category. Different from the previous category, in this kind of transformation process, a certain feature of the thing itself is transformed into the thing, which transforms the originally static and abstract relationship into an entity that can be grasped, such as the (B) sentence in the above examples. It should be noted that once a certain feature is regarded as a thing, the nominalization reflecting these things will change from a feature to an environmental component, such as hunger in example 7(B), or directly into a participant, such as narrow-mindedness in example 6(B) and accuracy in example 9(B), while the carrier of some features will become a modifier of the participant, such as she in example 6(A) and her in sentence 6(B), thus weakening the component of the carrier in the clause information structure.

3. Regard evaluation as a thing

The evaluation can be seen as something embodied by modal verbs, modal adverbs or nouns. In the consistent form, the evaluation meaning is embodied by modal verbs or modal adverbs, while in the non-consistent form, the evaluation meaning is embodied by nouns. That is to say, the speaker regards evaluation as something.

For example:

10. (A) We achieved what we *could*.

(B) We achieved what our *potential*.

11. (A) You *can* go to see the film now.

(B) You have got my *permission* to go to see the film now.

12. (A) That’s what we *should* do.

(B) It is our *obligation* to do that.

13. (A) You *must* pay the bill.

(B) It is your *responsibility* to pay the bill.

This kind of phenomenon is different from the first two. It belongs to the category of interpersonal metaphor mentioned by Halliday. It can be seen that modal verbs not only have different meanings, but also have obvious differences in the speaker's attitude. For example, could in 10(A) indicates a capability, can in 11(A) indicates permission, and should in 12(A) indicates an obligation. Must in 13(A) shows the strongest intensity, while could shows the weakest intensity. It should be noted that these modal verbs have the characteristics of informal style and colloquialism, while the corresponding nominalization is very formal and serious. Because such differences will lead to different interpersonal meanings, it will affect the establishment and maintenance of interpersonal relationships among discourse participants to a certain extent, thus affecting the ultimate realization of communicative purposes (Zhu, 2006, p.83-90).

III. Textual Functions of Nominalized Grammatical Metaphor

According to Halliday's point of view, in the process of nominalization of process, features or modal verbs and modal adverbs, in addition to maintaining the original consistent meaning, metaphorical meaning as " things" has been added. Nominalized grammatical metaphor is widely used and relatively complicated in written texts. That is to say, if more nouns or noun phrases are used in a text, the text belongs to a written text, whereas if nouns or noun phrases are used less, the text belongs to a spoken text. Wang Jin-jun counted the total number of small sentences and nominalization structures in five different types of texts through corpus. he concluded that the proportion of nominalization is proportional to the formal degree of text types, that is, the higher the proportion of nominalization, the higher the formal degree of text, and vice versa (Wang, 2003, p.74-78). According to statistical data, the nominalization ratio of scientific and legal texts is the highest, reaching more than 70%, while the nominalization ratio of news English texts is quite different from that of scientific and legal texts, but the nominalization ratio of news English texts is as high as 13% than that of novels, and there is almost no nominalization structure in fairy tales and fables. This is enough to show that nominalization ratio is closely related to text type. Generally speaking, the more technical a text is, the more frequently it is nominalized. In other words, the more nominalization is used, the more technical and formal the text is. The textual function of nominalized grammatical metaphor is mainly embodied in the following aspects: conciseness, formal function, objective function, cohesion and coherence.

A. Concise and Formal Functions

Nominalized grammatical metaphor makes the original clauses "packaged" into part-of-speech phrases, and several clauses "packaged" into one clause. The number of sentences in the text is relatively reduced, but the amount of information contained in each sentence is relatively increased (Zhu, 1994, p.8-13). Therefore, it can be said that under the condition of the same amount of information, the use of nominal grammatical metaphor can make the text structure more concise and compact, and express more information in a more refined language.

For example:

14. (A) In the early days when engineers had to make a bridge across a valley and the valley had a river flowing through it they often built viaducts which were constructed of masonry and had numerous arches in them; and many of these viaducts became notable.

(B) In bridging river valleys the early engineers built many notable masonry viaducts of numerous arches.

The above two sentences A and B convey roughly the same meaning. A sentence is consistent and B sentence is metaphorical. Through comparison, we can see that although the information is roughly the same, the length is quite different. A sentence uses a large number of clauses with up to 45 words, and its structure is complex and slow. While sentence B uses nominalized metaphor, packing a large number of clauses into noun phrases with only 15 words. The whole sentence is concise, compact in structure and few in number, which shows how concise it is.

15. (A) She became powerful and popular in phenomenal way, and she became powerless and unpopular in a fantastic way and then she was made politically powerful and popular again even more rapidly and remarkably less than four years before she was assassinated in the autumn of 1984.

(B) Her phenomenal rise to power and popularity was followed by a fantastic fall and then by an even more rapid and remarkable political resurrection less than four years before her assassination in the autumn of 1984.

Example 15(A) is colloquial, (B) is written, and (B) contains four clauses, describing the political ups and downs of Mrs. Gandhi until her assassination. the clauses are connected by the conjunction and. In the (B) sentence, only one clause is used, and no coordinate conjunction is used. Instead, nominalization metaphor greatly increases the vocabulary density and enriches the text, making it more formal.

B. Objective Function

Nominalized grammatical metaphor is a process of changing other parts of speech into nouns, especially verbs and adjectives. The result is to "materialize", "olidify" or "statize" the action process or characteristics. In the consistent form, the verb embodiment process usually requires participants, and sometimes requires other additional limiting elements, such as complements, etc. However, in the metaphorical form, nominalization metaphor covers both participants and processes. Therefore, English nominalization can make the process originally embodied by verbs be embodied by nouns. When this process (material process) becomes a participant in another process (relational process), participants related to the old process (material process) can be omitted, thus making the expression more objective and true (Jiang, 2008, p.162-165). In interpersonal metaphor, nominalization of modal verbs or modal adverbs can also increase the objectivity of discourse.

For example:

16. (A) If you *expose* the item for long, it will rapidly deteriorate.

(B) Prolonged *exposure* will result in rapid deterioration.

The subject ***you*** of the expose in the sentence (A) is highly subjective, while in the nominalized sentence (B), after using exposure, the subjective participant ***you*** in the sentence (A) is omitted, making the semantic expression appear more objective and true.

17. (A) You can surely *rectify* this fault if you insert a slash at that time.

(B) *Rectification* of this fault is achieved by insertion of a slash.

In sentence 17(A), modal ***verb*** can and modal adverb ***surely*** are used to stimulate interpersonal meaning and reflect the speaker's subjective judgment. The nominalization in (B) helps the speaker emphasize the objective facts and makes the text appear more fair and objective.

C. Cohesion and Coherence Function

Nominalized grammatical metaphor can make the cohesion of the text closer and more appropriate, and make the text more coherent. The textual cohesion function of nominalized grammatical metaphor is usually embodied by " thematic-rheme" cohesion (Fan, 1999, p.2-8). That is to say, a part of the rheme in a small sentence acted by a verb, after nominalization, can act as a part of the rheme in the next small sentence, and can be used as a main rheme, rheme or a constituent of the main rheme and rheme.

For example:

18. (A) Academically, the fact that insects could be sterilized by exposure to X-ray had been known since 1916, when an entomologist by the name of G.A. Runner reported that cigarette beetles could be sterilized by exposure to X-ray.

(B) Academically, the fact that insects could be sterilized by exposure to X-ray had been known since 1916, when an entomologist by the name of G.A. Runner reported such sterilization of cigarette beetles.

The 17(A) sentence is consistent, and its cohesion means is realized by repeating the former clause embedded in the sentence ***that insects could be sterilized by exposure to X-ray***, including the verb sterilize. Although the cohesion of the text is achieved, the sentence is long, cumbersome and unclear in level. 17(B) is a metaphorical form with a nominal structure. The clause before the verb sterilize in the sentence is embedded as part of the sentence rheme, and its nominal form ***sterilization*** is part of the next clause rheme. Due to the use of nominal metaphorical structures, the cohesion of subordinate clause complexes is compact, concise and distinct (Guo, 2010, p 76-79).

19. When radiation falls on a surface, some of the radiation is reflected and some is absorbed. The absorptivity of a surface is defined as the fraction of the light incident on the surface that is absorbed, and a black body is a surface that has an absorptivity of unity. That is, it absorbs all of the radiation that is incident upon it.

There are six clauses in the text. The themes of the first three clauses are radiation, some of the radiation and some. The messages they convey are about the reflection and refraction of radiation. The theme of the fourth clause, the absorption, is transferred from the rheme of the third clause, that is, the rheme of the third clause becomes the theme of the fourth clause through nominalization, and the focus of the text also shifts to the definition of radiation. From the perspective of information, the known information interacts with the new information. is absorbed is the new information in the third clause. the absorptivity of a surface serves as the theme in the fourth clause as the old information to guide the emergence of the next new information, thus realizing the cohesion and coherence of the two clauses (Liu, 2008, p.153-155). It can be seen that nominalized grammatical metaphor can make discourse organization more compact, reasonable and concise.

Nominalization metaphor can make the cohesion of the text closer and more appropriate, thus making the text more coherent. The application of nominalized metaphor makes it possible to construct scientific and technological terms and expand the discussion layer by layer. The high degree of abstraction of the empirical meaning in scientific English texts is due to the fact that scientific texts are the language field of a specific text. They publish scientific research results, promote inventions and inventions, and disseminate scientific and technological knowledge through a series of concepts and propositions. The author often abstracts the attributes, characteristics, actions and processes of relevant things into nouns or noun phrases with higher the information density level. Such nouns or noun phrases can serve as the theme of the text and lead the following development. The textual cohesion function of nominalized metaphor is usually embodied by "thematic-rheme" cohesion. That is to say, a part of the rheme in a small sentence acted by a verb, after nominalization, can act as a part of the rheme in the next small sentence, and can be used as a main rheme, rheme or a constituent of the main rheme and rheme. The thematic structure and the information structure of the clause together make the whole text "focused", deepening in content and expanding in structure, thus realizing cohesion and coherence of the whole text.

IV. Conclusion

Nominalization metaphor is the main feature of scientific and technological discourse and an effective and important means of grammatical metaphor. It plays an extremely important role in scientific and technological discourse. People usually use words to express quantity, such as how many things have been done or how much weight has been occupied, etc. At this time, they need to use words to express quantity. Nominalization metaphor is the best way to embody this quantity. It transforms processes, features, modal verbs and modal adverbs into things, which have the double semantic features of consistency and metaphor, thus affecting the meaning of clauses and texts. Proper use of nominalization can make the discourse appear more objective, formal and concise, and the discourse is more accurate, cohesive, more reasonable and compact, greatly enriching the language system. Nominalized grammatical metaphor is an important feature of formal style. In normal circumstances, the degree of formality in a text is proportional to the frequency with which nominalized grammatical metaphor is used. There are a large number of nominalized metaphors in formal styles such as scientific texts. Therefore, mastering the textual functions of nominalized metaphors in scientific texts can deepen the understanding of the deep semantics of scientific texts, lay a good foundation for the accurate understanding of scientific texts and provide better services for the translation of scientific English.

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Speech Level Shift in the Domain of the Elderly Care in Japan by the Indonesian Caregivers

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***Abstract*—This study aimed at identifying the phenomenon of speech level shift in the domain of the elderly care in Japan and finding out the rationale of the shift. Speech level in Japanese language is defined as the formality and politeness level in an interaction, which in lingustics is related to the use of formal or non-formal forms at the end of an utterance and is usually said as honorific expressions. Speech level shift is a shift from one speech level to another. The subjects of this study were 68 Indonesian caregivers who worked in the nursing homes in Japan. The data were collected in three areas, namely Osaka, Yokohama and Toyohashi. They were collected by recording the speech events between the caregivers and the elderly. The findings of this study indicated that speech level shifts took place in the interaction between the caregivers and the elderly. There were two types of speech level shifts used by the caregivers, namely plus level shift and minus level shift. They took place in the contexts of formal and nonformal speeches between the two speakers and were done by the caregivers to enable the elderly understand their speeches faster.**

***Index Terms*—Japanese honorific language, speech level shift, politeness, formal language, non-formal language**

I. Introduction

The existence of Indonesian, Vietnamese and Chinese caregivers in Japan in the present time is emerging due to the increasing number of the elderly which then becomes a social issue in the country. The data from the study results by Aging Research Centre indicated that approximatey in 2030 the number of Japanese citizens aged over 60 years old would be 36, 67 million people (31,8% of the total population). In 2050, the number would be 37, 64 million people (Hirose, Merlyna, 2018, p.2). As a consequence, there is an increasing need of caregivers for the elderly. However, the dispatch of Indonesian caregivers to Japan every year does not fulfill the high demand. The requirement of competence in communicating in Japanese is the most prominent factor which influences it. This fact made the writer interested in choosing this theme. The writer is interested in examining how the Indonesian caregivers communicate in Japanese in the environment and culture different from their places of origin.

Cook (2011, p.3658) explains that speech level shift takes place as the speaker as the active agent chooses the politeness strategy of whether he/she wants to use the honorific forms or not and to make sure the message that he/she wants to deliver can be understood well. In the last 15 years, the topic of speech level shift in Japanese has been discussed by many linguists (for examples Barke, 2011; Cook, 1996, 1997, 2008, 2011; Ikuta, 1983; Okamoto, 2009, and others). The data of the prodecessors were collected from telephone conversations, conversations during meetings or interviews, films and other data that contained speech level shift. Those studies revealed that in a conversation, speech level was chosen based on the situation.

In several domains in life, we absolutely have to pay attention to the use of politeness as it is related to interpersonal relationship. Also in the domain of service for the elderly in Japan, politeness plays a very important role, considering the interactions that take place are between young caregivers and elderly people. The results of the preliminary studies that the writer conducted in 2017 revealed a reality different from the honorific concepts of Japanese. The caregivers, who were young people, in interacting with the elderly did speech level shift many times. Many rules of politeness in Japanese honorific concepts were violated. Yet, the speech level shift done by the caregivers when interacting with the elderly did not threaten the elderly's faces. The conversations flowed smoothly among the two interactants. This made the writer interested in examining the phenomenon; about how speech level shift takes place and what types of speech level shift are used by the Indonesian caregivers. Those are the two main problems discussed in this article.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Japanese Honorific Language

Kabaya (2009), explains that communication situation in honorific Japanese actually consists of two important variables, which in Japanese language are known as *ningen kankei* (人間関係) ‘interpersonal relationship’ and *ba* (場) ‘place’(p.3).

In line with Kabaya (2009), Rahayu (2017, p.10-13) explains that communication doers consist of speakers, writers, listeners and readers. When conducting communication, there are a few aspects that need to be taken into consideration, such as the position of the speaker (O1), the interlocutor (O2) and the person who they talk about. Also added by Rahayu (2017, p.10); the places where the speeches take place, the goals of the conversations and the topics of the speeches also influence the choice of languge of the communication doers. In Japan, someone’s position really determines language choice in speeches; it can be *keigo* ‘polite language’ or *futsuukei* ‘common language’. Both speech levels have language choices as markers. Based on the rules of the use of *keigo*, if the intention is treat the interlocutor to be superior to the speaker, *sonkeigo* is used. Meanwhile *kenjougo* is used to lower the condition or the action of O3 (Suzuki, 1998; Kabaya, 2009).

In Japanese language, speech level is divided into two main groups, namely polite language (*keigo*) and non-formal language (*futsuukei*). Table 1 below will explain levels of speech in Japanese language.

Keigo

Tsujimura (1992, p. 4-5) explains that *keigo* can be defined as the words to show respect. Further, it is explained that *keigo* is the form of special speech used by a speaker due to his/her respect towards the interlocutors and the third person being talked about. In line with this, Hirabayashi and Hama (1992, p. 5) state that *keigo* is the type of polite language that is used to make the language used by the first person (the speaker or the writer) sound more polite to respect the second person (the interlocoutor or the reader) and the third person (the person who the first and second persons talk about).

TABLE I.
SPEECH LEVEL IN JAPANESE LANGUAGE

Speech Level		Explanation
Futsukei		The language used in non-formal situation, among close friends, towards interlocoutors who are younger or speeches from people of superior positions to people of inferior positions.
Keigo	*Sonkeigo*	The language used to respect the interlocoutors/the people that are the topics of the conversations by their actions or conditions.
	Kenjougo	The language used to lower the actions or the conditions of the speakers to respect the interlocoutors/the people who are the topics of the conversations.
	Teineigo	The language used in formal situations (*teineigo* has definite markers, they are the copulas *desu* and *~masu* with all the variations).

Source : Rahayu (2017, p.13)

In addition, according to Suzuki (1998, p.23), *keigo* is determined by social factors. 敬語は、話す相手やその場、状況、役割、なってきます。年齢、上司、先輩、親しさ、立場の違いによって使い分けていきます。’*Keigo wa, hanasu aite ya sonoba, joukyou, yakuwari, nado ni yotte kawattekimasu. Nenrei, joshi, senpai, shitashisa, tachiba no chigai ni yotte tsukaiwaketeikimasu’.* Polite language is determined by the position of the interlocoutors, the condition/situation and the atmosphere of the interaction, the age and the superiority/inferiority status of the interactants, and the place of the conversation.

Keigo is determined by the parameters as follow:

1) Age.... old or young, senior or junior
2) Status .... superordinate or subordinate, teacher or student
3) Sex...male or female
4) Familiarity..... insider or outsider
5) Language style.....the language used for daily conversation, the language used in a talk or a lecture
6) Private or public ......meetings, ceremonies, or other activities
7) Education .....whether the interactants are educated or not

The variety of polite Japanese language is divided into 3 types, namely *sonkeigo* “exalted terms’, *kenjougo* ‘humble terms’ and *teineigo* ‘neutral terms’ (Niyekawa, 1983, p.225). The non-formal variety (*futsuukei*) is not included in the polite language. The consideration of the use of *keigo* is the speech context, including the first, the second and the third persons involved.

Tsujimura (1992, p. 7) also divides *keigo* into those three further groups. The same explanation is also given by Kaneko (2014, p. 17) 敬語のグルプ、大きく分けると、敬語は三つのグルプがありす。尊敬語と謙譲語と丁寧語というグルプを使っています。*Keigo no gurupu ookiku wakeruto, keigo wa mitsu no gurupu ga arimasu. Sonkeigo to kenjougo to teineigo to iu gurupu o tsukatte imasu*。'*Keigo* is divided into three groups, namely *sonkeigo, kenjougo* and *teineigo*'.

Sonkeigo

Kaneko (2014), gives limitation that *sonkeigo* is polite language variety that is used for the interlocutor (p.17). The objective is to show respect directly by treating the interlocutor or the third person to be superior to the speaker. 相手をすることに使う。相手を高めて、直接的に敬意を表す。*Aite o suru koto ni tsukau. Aite o takamete,chokusetsuteki ni keii o arawasu.* '*Sonkeigo* is used for the interlocutor, to treat him/her to be superior to the speaker and to show respect towards the interlocutor.

Kenjougo

Different from the language variety intended to treat the interlocutor to be superior to the speaker, *kenjougo* is also used to treat the speaker to be inferior to the interlocutor, whose objective is to show respect directly to the interlocutor. Kaneko (2014, p.34) states that 自分がすることに使う。自分を低めて、間接的に敬意を表す。*'Jibun ga suru koto ni tsukau. Jibun wo hikumete, kansetsuteki ni keii o arawasu'. 'Kenjougo* is used for the speaker himself, to treat him/herself to be inferior to the interlocutor and indirectly show respect to the interlocutor'.

Teineigo

The variety of polite language used in formal situations is called *teineigo.* This type is intended to give sense of being polite so that the speaker will be considered polite by the interlocutor or the third peson who they talk about. Kaneko (2006, p.23) describes it as '分全体を丁寧な漢字にする' 'sentences that entirely show polite language'. According to Kaneko (2006, p. 2014), *teineigo* is marked by *masu* and *desu.* The same explanation is also given by Tsujimura (1992). He states that the use of *teineigo* form is marked by the use of copula *desu* at the end of a sentence, the verb form *~masu*, the pattern [*~degozaimasu*], and the adding of prefixes *o/go* to nouns, for example *[otegami], [go renraku]*, etc.

B. Politeness

Studies on language politeness are pragmatic studies as they are related to the factors determining the choice of language in social interactions. The language choice has impact both on the speaker and the hearer (Crystal, 1987, p. 120).Wardhaugh (1987, p.267) states that politeness in language is a language behaviour that takes solidarity, power, familiarity, the relationship status between the participants, and appreciation. Politeness in language is also determined by the awareness of social habits.

According to Ide (1982, p.357), two important factors in Japanese politeness expressions are the grammatical rules which are systemized in the morphological forms of the language that tell about the degree of politeness and the social rules of the people. In addition, there are four main factors that need to be considered in the study of politeness in Japanese, namely social status, power, age, and formality. Ide (1982) proposes three basic rules which are generated from those four factors (p.366). Those three rules are that people should be polite towards people with higher status, they should be polite towards people who have power, and they should also be polite towards older people. The last rule is closely related to this study as the problem investigated is related to the communication between the caregivers and the elderly.

In line with what has been stated by Ide, et al (2016) that the function of politeness in Japan is as a basis of the continuity of communication or in other words whether a conversation will continue or not is dependant on the realization of the politeness in the communication between the speaker, the interlocutor and the person being talked about, Masato (2008, p. 4) also states that politeness in Japanese is as follows. ポライトネスは、対人関係の基本的な構え一具体的には相手と自分の｛距離の遠近—を伝達する手段となる。*Poraitonesu wa taijin kankeino kihontekina kamae- gutaitekini wa aite to jibun no(kyori) no enkin o dentatsu suru shudan to naru :* 'what is meant by politeness is a basic attitude in humans relationship, which is a way to tell the distance beween the speaker and the interlocutor, whether it is close or distant.'

In Japanese language, politeness in language is marked by the use or the choice of polite language (*keigo*). Sutedi (2007, p.83) states that in Japanese there is an option of using polite language (*keigo*) to show respect in interactions with other people. *Keigo* is defined as the type of language used appropriately according to the interlocutor and the situation as well as the atmosphere of the conversation to show respect to the interlocutor (Masao, 1985, p.131). The same explanation is also given by Nuibe (2006) in his article, that *keigo* is the expressions said to express 'respect-humiliation', 'familiarity-distance' based on a speaker's relationship with the interlocutor or the consideration of the first person regarding the status, power, respect or disrespect, and the familiarity-distance between the speaker, the interlocutor, and the person they talk about as well as all things related to him/her (p.98-100).

C. Politeness

Speech level shift started to take place in Japan when the standard Japanese language started to be implemented in the era of Meiji in the 19th century. Many linguists have discussed about this phenomenon. In the beginning, studies on speech level shift were published in English by Makino (1983, p.2002) and Ikuta in 1983. Both scientists learnt that shifts in language styles often took place in Japanese language. Makino in 1983 used speaker-oriented principle to explain the changes that took place, and divided the orientation into two different mechanisms; from the speaker's and the interlocutor's sides. The speaker-oriented mechanism was in the form of motivation to express high subjectivity level and presuppositions (Makino, 1983, p. 143), while the interlocutor-oriented mechanism was when the information was directed directly to the interlocutor. Makino in 2002 then focused on the changes from the use of formal to informal expressions and conducted in-depth analysis on the psychological motivation for a few shifts. Makino said that the shift took place because the speaker wanted to express ideas to the interlocutor. In his analysis which aimed at understanding the different mechanism that influenced a language shift, the social and interpersonal factors were not fully revealed. Ikuta (1983) states a different opinion; that shift is related to distance. Ikuta explains that the formal type adds distance and non-formal type reduces distance.

Yoshida and Sakurai (2005) who base their researches on casual conversations state that Japanese speakers shift to index their role identities. They argue that speakers are very creative in using the polite language when conversing with friends or family members to mark their socio-cultural identities. This study needs to be noted as it shows that in informal situations, factors like status and age difference is irrelevant to language style shift. Their observation is very crucial to understand this phenomenon and stresses the need of differentiating formal and informal interactions. There are two types of shifts, namely plus level shift and minus level shift.

D. Plus Level Shift and Minus Level Shift

General level shift means that honorific forms, especially the forms of *masu/desu* as a part of verb form in the predicate, are not used in certain interactions and change to simple forms (minus level shift). Level shift also includes shift from common form to *masu/desu* forms (plus level shift). Studies on level shift currently attract more attention, or in other words are new kinds of studies in researches on politeness, and challenge the politeness concept. Minus level shift means that the people that interact basically use polite forms of language, but simple forms occur from time to time to index certain psychological shifts. Ikuta (1983), after examining a TV interview, reported that the participants normally used the *desu/masu* forms, but the interviewer used simple form to show "empathy" to the people that he/she interviewed. Maynard (2001) studied a TV drama where two people fell in love and the shift indicated the up and down of their emotion. He finally concluded that the *da* form (the simple form) indexed "familiarity, tolerance, and fun". Applying the same technique, Takeda (2011) reported that minus level shift took place when the speaker expressed his/her feelings, showed empathy towards others and emotionally involved in other stories. Different from those three linguists, Makino (2002) examined the data from a round table discussion. The aim of his study was to find out the index of the non-formal form towards the low involvement of the speakers and the interlocutor. He called this "direction of inner communication" (Makino, 2002, p. 123).

Takeda (2011) also found out that the non-formal form took place when the speaker gave the impression that he/she talked to him/herself. This is in line with "innate mode" as stated by Cook (1996b) and "inner thought" as stated by Saito (2010). Chin (2003) examined the conversation between two young adults of the same age who just met and reported that common form took place often when the speaker thought about appropriate words to say or tried to remember something when he/she spoke. Saito (2010), after examining data in forms of non-formal language between subordinates with the superiors at the working place, reported that the non-formal forms took place when they highlighted information (for example giving opinion, clarifying superior's commands)

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

The subjects of this study were 68 Indonesian caregivers who worked in three regions in Japan, namely Okayama, Toyohashi and Yokohama. They came from Java, Sumatra, and Bali. All of the informants had JLPT N3 and national nursing lisence. Their mother tongue was Indonesian. Among the 68 caregivers, 5 of them were male. The age requirement of being respondent is between 18 until 30 years old. In one day, they worked for 6 hours, depending on the shift at the nursing homes where they worked. While the elderly chosen as informants were those who were 65 until 105 years old and had been in the nursing home for more than one year.

B. Data Collection

Data collection was conducted using a few methods. The first method was observation method, which was conducted by applying recording technique; by recording the interaction between the Indonesian caregivers and the elderly. The data resulted were in forms of utterances of the Indonesian caregivers. The second method was interview, which was done by conducting in-depth interviews with the caregivers and the elderly. These in-depth interviews aimed at finding out the things related to the research topic that were not answered by the data in the forms of the utterances. Interviews with the elderly were conducted to find out the responses of the elderly towards the utterances said by the Indonesian caregivers. The third method was distributing questionnaires to 68 informants who were the subjects of the study. The data expected to be collected by distributing the questionnaires were the types of vocabulary choice used by the caregivers in the speech situations and the caregivers's reasons of using those vocabulary.

C. Data Analysis

The data which were collected by recording the conversations of the Indonesian caregivers and the elderly were transcribed, glossed and classified based on the research questions that the writer wanted to answer. The analysis of the utterances was then done by linking the meanings of the utterances with the speech context.

IV. RESULT & DISCUSSION

The example of data analysis below would tell about how the phenomenon of speech level shift took place. The discussion will be divided into two parts, namely plus level shift and minus level shift. Each type of level shift will be explained with one or two data analysis. In Japanese language, speech level shift is speech level shift at the end of sentences. Analysing speech level shift will enable us to better understand the functions of several elements related to politeness. As speech level shift is a dynamic phenomenon in conversations, we have seen it from global and local perspectives. In global level, we have seen the frequency of the occurrence of speech level shift in all utterances in conversations and by every speaker. In local level, we have seen the factors that influence the occurrence of the shift and the function it carries in the conversations.

Minus Level Shift

D01
The Interactants :
CGI : Rosa (20 years old, years of service: 2,5 years, female)
PL : Yamamoto (85 years old, male)
Location : Dining Room
Situation : Serving breakfast for the elderly
Date : 14 April 2017
The Speech Context : *Caregiver* (-P), Meeting Intensity (-D), Imposition Level (+R), Formal Situation

CGI :やまもとさんお茶ぬくいのがいいですかつめたいのがいいですか。(a)
Yamamoto san, ochanukui no ga ii desuka, tsumetai no ga ii desuka.
Mr. Yamamoto, would you like to have warm tea? Or cold tea?
PL :あついのがいい。
Atsui no ga ii.
I'd like to have hot tea.
CGI :あついのがいい。(b)
Atsui no ga ii.
The hot one?.
PL :ぼけ　あつい。
Boke atsui.
Very hot.

Speech Context/Situation: part of conversation (01) was an interaction between an Indonesian caregiver and an elderly at the dining room during breakfast. The caregiver started the conversation by offering tea to the elderly and she asked whether he wanted hot or cold tea. The analysis is that in the domain of elderly service, formal language is mostly used by all interactants, while in certain speech contexts, the non-formal language is also often used by the caregiver when interacting with the elderly. According to Usami (2001), the use of utterance without politeness marker functions as a strategy to avoid admission of hierarchical relationship between the speakers and the interlocutors. When the Indonesian caregiver talked to en elderly patient, utterances without politeness marker were often used to remain neutral. However, when talking in situations involving patient's privacy, the caregivers displayed tendency to use formal language.

It can be observed from utterances (a) and (b) that the Indonesian caregiver in both utterances used speech level at the end of the sentences. In utterance (a) when offering the elderly whether he wanted hot or cold tea, the Indonesian caregiver asked by using formal language (*teineigo*). After listening to the response of the elderly that chose hot tea, in utterance (b) the Indonesian caregiver confirmed the elderly's choice by saying an utterance without politeness marker or without copula (*desu*) and question word (*gimonshi*) *~ka*. In Japanese language, the question word (*gimonshi ~ka*) can be replaced by using rising intonation like in utterance (b).

Analysis on Plus Level Shift

D02	
The Interactants	:
CGI	: Indonesian cergiver (24 years old, years of service: 3 years, female)
PL	: Kimura (79 years old, male)
Location	: Dining Room
Situation	: The elderly enjoying his leisure time
Date	: 19 April 2017 (14: 30)
The Speech Context	: Caregiver (-P), Meeting Intensity (-D), Imposition Level (+R), Formal Situation

CGI :寒い？ (a)
Samui?
Cold?
:きむらさん、寒いですか？ (b)
Kimura san, samui desuka?
Mr. Kimura, is it cold?
PL : (nodding)

Utterance Context/Situation: conversation (02) above took place in formal situation at the dining table when the elderly was enjoying his leisure time and watching TV after having lunch. The Indonesian caregiver approached an elderly who seemed to be feeling cold.

If we examine utterances (a) and (b) of the Indonesian caregiver, it can be seen that speech level shift took place at the end of the sentences. In utterance (a) the caregiver used non-formal language (*futsuukei*) when asking 'if the elderly patient was feeling cold or not?', indicated by the use of adjectives without copula ~*desu* and the question word ~*ka*. However, when the question did not get any response from the elderly, in utterance (b) the caregiver changed his utterance with formal language and he added an article by saying the patient's name with +*san*. From the result of the interview, it was known that the caregiver initially wanted to get an immediate response from the elderly so he used non-formal language in utterance (a). Yet after receiving no response, the caregiver called the elderly patient's name and repeated the question in utterance (a), but this time he added the patient's name in the beginning completed with the article ~*san*. The purpose of the shift from utterance (a) to utterance (b) by the Indonesian caregiver is acceptable and often done when repeating question or when confirming something important. Both examples of analysis enable us to understand better the reasons behind the choice of the utterance type and the occurrence of the phenomenon of speech level shift in the domain of the elderly care.

The results of the analysis indicated that the main factor determining speech level is the content of the conversation. Both interactants in the domain of the elderly care in the communication process used speech level that already suited the conversational rules in the work of the caregivers. The relationship between both interactants can be understood by seeing three social factors, namely social distance (D), power (P), and the imposition rank (R). Those three factors can be examined to see the role that a speaker can play in his/her linguistics behaviours. The use of appropriate speech level is determined by the hierarchical relationship between the speaker and the interlocutor, the context of the conversation, the context of the situation, etc. The degree of familiarity is regarded the same as sosial distance in politeness strategy, while hierarchy is regarded the same as relative power.

Among the three social factors proposed by Brown and Levinson, social distance and power did not give significant effect on the occurrence of speech level phenomenon. The one that gave big effect was the context of the situation of the speech that influenced the rank of imposition of a speech. In other words, the social distance between both interactants was really low. This indicated that the high frequency of the occurrence of speech level shift phenomenon in the domain of elderly care was caused by the fact that in the domain of the elderly care, distance or power did not significantly give effects on the choice of speech by the caregivers. The one which gave effects was the rank of imposition (R) on each context of the speech situation of every interaction between both interactants.

From the results of the interviews with the caregivers, a few reasons of the caregivers related to the use of the speech level were revealed. The intentions to deliver the message of the speech promptly, to make the elderly feel comfortable by using the language that made them feel like a family member, and to give understanding about the time for doing something were the reasons of the use of minus level shift. While the use of plus level shift took place when the caregivers tried to explain the benefits of an activity of to give explanation to the elderly.

V. Conclusion

In this study, there were two kinds of speech level use revealed, namely plus level shift and minus level shift. There were some reasons behind the occurrence of both shifts. The reasons of using minus level shift were the intentions to deliver the message of the speech promptly and to make the elderly feel comfortable by using the language that was usually used to talk with a family member so that the elderly would not feel awkward or embarrassed. While the reasons of using plus level shift were the caregivers tried to explain the benefits of an activity or to give explanation to the elderly.

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An Analysis on the Factors Affecting Second Language Acquisition and Its Implications for Teaching and Learning*

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Abstract—**Affected by the overwhelming impact of globalization, many people have realized the importance of mastering a second language and begun to learn it. While research on second language acquisition has been under the way for a long time on a large scale. With the development of second language teaching, many researchers and educators try to find out the factors affecting second language Acquisition (SLA). SLA is a complicated and systematic process, which will influenced by many factors that affect and interact each other. This essay will make a further analysis on the social factors and individual factors in the process of SLA, with the expectation that it can bring implications to teachers as well as learners.**

Index Terms—**SLA, factors, implications**

I. Introduction

With the rapid pace of globalization, there are more opportunities for cooperation between countries and communication between people all over the world, as a result of which many people, besides students, are eager to master an second language, featuring the learning of English. It's not easy for Chinese to learn a second language and to use it properly, because there are many factors which will affect our second language acquisition. This essay will analyze the political, economic, cultural as well as technological factors and the factors of age, motivation, character as well as attitude, which are divided into two groups respectively--- social factors and individual factors. On when we realize the factors affecting our learning, can we tech and learn more efficiently. Thus it will also offer help to both teachers and learners.

II. The Definition of Second Language Learning

Second language acquisition can be defined as a kind of language leaning that people learn, besides their mother tongue, inside and outside classrooms. By learning the relative principles of the second language and improving the ability to use it, learners can master the language and can use it properly.

The research on SLA is based on that of mother tongue acquisition. The differences between them lie in the fact that SLA generally goes on out of the environment of the target language and on the premise that learners have mastered their mother tongue. Nowadays, it's a trend to master a second language, which is a proof of one's competence. Therefore, how to learn a second language well and how to make the best use of those factors affecting SLA are really important to learners.

III. Differences between Language Acquisition and Language Learning

One point we should know better is that "acquisition" differs greatly from "learning". Language acquisition refers to a subconscious process in which people acquire the language through social communication and then use the language properly, which is quite similar to the process they acquire their mother tongue. With the acquisition of the language, people can communicate easily, which is a natural process and features the natural usage without learning studiously.

Language learning is a conscious learning process, usually obtained in a fixed setting, mainly in school settings. In the process of language learning, people focus on the rules of the language and the conscious learning of the systematic knowledge of grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation, etc, instead of the practical usage. People always can not have a fluent communication with such kind of learning.

To Krashen, learning doesn't equal to acquisition, and it's only function is to monitor and edit the output information of a learner (Krashen, 1982). Obviously, language acquisition is more important than language learning, and the former should be final goal of the latter.

From the theories above, it can be concluded that it will be more efficient for students to acquire rather than learn a second language. The process of SLA is the psychological process in which learners actively participate, and also the

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process in which learners store, process, and then use what they learn. However, we have to create a better language environment and language output to realize the process of SLA.

IV. Factors Affecting Language Acquisition

There are many factors which can influence SLA, including internal factors and external factors. Internal factors, known as individual difference factors, are composed of learner's age, attitude, personality, motivation, and first language proficiency, and the like. While external factors, so-called social factors, usually refer to the political, economic, cultural, and technological environment. Let's have a detailed look at these factors.

A. Internal Factors

1. Age

Keller thought the learner's ability of learning language and motivation are two main factors in a successful language acquisition, while the ability of learning language has much to do with the age of a learner. Age factor is an important physiological factor in both first language learning and second language learning, which has attracted much attention of psychologists, linguists, and educators. They have spent lots of time and energy trying to analyze the relationship between age and SLA from different angles. It's generally believed that children have the advantage over adults in SLA, which has still been hotly debated in terms of learning motivation.

Based on many researches, Cazden holds that children, teenagers, and adults will experience the same learning period, during which they have to deal with language data (Cazden, 1988). However, in terms of learning speed and achievement, there are great differences between them. Generally, adults can do better on the initial stage for their better cognitive ability; while children can do better in pronunciation and standard accent, and after a long period of learning they can be more likely to succeed in acquiring second language and communicating with it. Different people hold different opinions, but the importance of age factor in SLA can not be ignored.

2. Attitude

In most theories, attitude is defined as a reaction to one thing or a kind of thing. In SLA, attitude consists of three parts: cognitive part (the belief in something), emotional part (the degree of likes and dislikes of something), and the part of conation(the intention and action to do something). Attitude seems to be the phantom mental state, but in SLA, it is the tendency of learner's cognition, emotion and action in learning target language, so attitude really plays an important part in SLA. In the process of bilingual research, Baker has emphasized the significance of attitude (Baker, 1988). Attitude includes positive one and negative one. With positive attitude, a learner will be active in communicating with the people speaking target language, which will promote the SLA. Holding a negative attitude, a learner tends to refuse or be afraid to contact the people speaking target language, which will definitely hinder the development of SLA and the improvement of the communicative ability.

Of course, attitude is not hereditary, instead, it will affected by the environment, while it is relatively steady. Larsen-Freeman and Long ever mentioned factors affecting attitude: parents, friends, teachers, learning environment, etc.(Larsen and Long, 1991). At present, in China, English is the language, widely taught and learnt. The attitude of Chinese learners exerts a big impact on its learning efficiency. Besides the factors affecting attitude mentioned above, the main factor affecting the attitude of Chinese learners is the learning experience in class. So teachers should improve the teaching and learning efficiency in class by making English class more interesting and attractive.

3. Personality

Personality factors consist of self-esteem, anxiety, depression, spirit of adventure, extraversion and introversion, etc, which will have an effect on SLA and will make much difference to learning efficiency. Psychologically speaking, personality can be divided into extraverted one and introverted one. Compared with an introvert, an extravert is more likely do better in SLA, because extraverted personality endow the learner with optimism, better socializing ability, and strong desire to communicate with others, especially the person speaking target language, which will help create more opportunities to practice the target language for a learner. While the introvert often miss the chances for language learning and practice, because the introverted person tends to be inactive in networking, language learning and communication, which are all obstacles to SLA. The extravert often shows optimism, spirit of adventure, self-confidence, while the introvert is always shy and afraid of making mistakes, and lack self-confidence. It is additionally added that many Chinese learners are introverted ones, who are always too shy to be active in SLA. Only when a person is not afraid to make mistakes and is ready to explore, can he/she achieve what he /she wants in SLA. According to the research by Krashen, it can be concluded that different personalities exerts an impact on whether the learner can speak fluently in oral English in SLA (Krashen, 1981). Everything cuts both ways, so does personality. An extravert in SLA is likely to pay little attention to basic form of language and always lack the endurance in deep thing and research, which an introvert often can do well in. So we can see that these two different personalities have both an active and negative effect on SLA, but in general extraverted personality can do better than the introverted one in SLA.

4. Motivation

Motivation is an internal process that stimulates an individual's activity and helps them to maintain the effort to realize their expected goal (WEI Fang-fang and HE Hua-qing, 2013). As an internal impetus, motivation can promote the learning process, and can inspire and guide learners' learning. There is no doubt that motivation plays an important role in a second language learning. To some extent, whether the learner ‘s motivation is strong or not directly affects the learning efficiency. Learners with definite motivation are always active in participating in foreign language learning, which often results into high learning efficiency. On the contrary, learners with weak motivation always take a negative attitude in the learning process, and they tend to spend less time and energy in a second language learning, which often lead to low learning efficiency.

Motivation has been the focal point of the research of SLA for a long time. Skehan holds that motivation appears to be the second strongest predictor of success, trailing only aptitude(Skehan, 1989).After the research on the relationship between motivation and SLA, Gardner and Lambert propose Gardner and Lambert proposed that there are two main types of second language learning motivation: integrative motivation and instrumental motivation(Gardner and Lambert, 1972).

Integrative motivation features the strong desire of learners to mingle with the people speaking with target language, and the learners’ appreciation of a second language and people as well as culture related.

Learners with integrative motivation see SLA as the goal of their interests, which they will be active to achieve. While learners with instrumental motivation regard SLA as a utilitarian goal, which will be achieved by finding a job, passing exams, improving their social status and income, …everything can help them to be qualified for the future job or life. This kind of motivation is particularly obvious for nursing majors in Medical University, who needn’t pursuit a further study and can obtain a job after their graduation as a qualified graduate. So SLA is just a tool for them to gain other benefits. They are inactive in class activities and seldom communicate with their foreign teachers after class. As to integrative motivation, clinical majors are a case in point: most of them will pursuit postgraduate study or study abroad, so they pay little attention to fulfilling one goal, instead, they focus on improving their comprehensive abilities of English. They are always active in class activity and all kind of English activities after class, for example, Oral or writing English contest. And they like to contact their foreign teachers and want to be approved by them. We can see the differences of two types of motivation from the performances of these two majors.

5. First Language Proficiency

First language (L1) refers to a learner’s mother tongue. The proficiency of his/her mother tongue will impact greatly the learning efficiency of SLA, because language transfer often happens during the learning process of SLA. Language transfer , first put forward in 1950s, refers to the fact that in the process of a second language or foreign language learning, learners tend to handle the information of target language with the sentence structure and communication strategies of their mother tongue because they don’t know or are not familiar with the target language.

In SLA, it can be divided into positive transfer and negative transfer. When mother tongue has a positive effect on a second Language learning because of the similar components between them, positive transfer happens, which can help learners to master and practice a second language. Due to differences between two language, mother tongue often exert a negative impact on SLA, which is called negative transfer that is an obstacle to language learning. Positive transfer and negative transfer often coexist in the process of language learning. Though negative transfer has a negative effect on SLA, it can help us realize the factors hindering language learning, in which negative transfer will change into positive transfer.

Since language transfer is inevitable, we should take the advantage of the positive one to improve learning efficiency of SLA, and try to find out the reasons for negative transfer to turn it into positive one. Then language transfer will be a good way for learners to master a second language.

B. External Factors

Language drives from social life and social environment, and it develops with the development of our society.

1. Political Factor

With the implementation of the Reform and Opening policy, it’s much easier for people to go abroad and to keep up with the latest news abroad, which aroused a strong passion for a second language or foreign language learning among Chinese people. Meanwhile, almost all schools and universities began to reform and innovate curriculums, especially English course. It’s reported that Beijing Foreign Study University will add more minority languages to adapt to political development of China. And the upsurge of enthusiasm for English learning has helped non-governmental educational institutions spring up, typically represented by Crazy English Educational School and New Oriental English School. The liberal political policy provides an excellent environment of a second language learning for people.

But, we have to see that among the craze for English, there are unreasonable parts, which is illustrated obviously by the appearance of “aphasia for Chinese culture”. Here “aphasia” implies two points: One, when learning English, many Chinese learners don’t catch chances to get Chinese culture involved into the learning process, which make the learning divorced from local culture. Two, After learning English, many Chinese learners lose the ability to properly express their Chinese culture in English. The reason for “aphasia” may be that many people are just unreasonably crazy for a second language without the total understanding it and they didn’t correctly hand the relationship between their mother tongue and a second language, which definitely exert a negative impact on SLA.

Political situation exerts a subtle influence on SLA. If two countries are hostile to each other, people of these two countries will hold hostility and prejudice to each other, too, which certainly hinder them learning from each other about their culture and language.

2. Economic factor

A country's economic strength plays a significant role not only in its politics but also in its culture. In the financially underdeveloped countries, people always tend to neglect the importance of their culture, so-called social anomie. It is illustrated by the strong desire of some people to learn about different cultures and different life styles of other countries, which is a driving factor affecting SLA, for example, people who want to immigrate to American will spare no efforts to learn English. Of course, countries with strong economy can spend more on education, A second language learning included.

Individually speaking, to get a job or offer a guarantee of the job is the main motivation to learn or acquire a second language. In China, many people learn English with economical orientation--- mastering English can help them get more opportunities to obtain a job in transnational corporations, where they can be better paid.

3. Technological Factor.

The development of economy will promote that of technology. The writer will set America as an example. As one of economic powerhouses, America advances in science and technology. Computer has been an indispensible practical tool in people's daily life, while over ninety percent of computer language(/program) came from American Microsoft Corporation, which forces many users to learn English in order to better operate computer or enable themselves to handle the problems appearing in the running process.

In 1840s, there was a global craze for learning English. According to a research, most parents in many countries will help their children to choose English as a compulsory course, and many countries asked primary schools to set up English course while more and more overseas students study English abroad. English schools or institutions have sprung up world-widely and offer more positions for people to teach English, which has promoted the upsurge of English learning.

V. Implication for Teaching

At present, SLA happens mostly in classrooms, where teachers pay much attention to vocabulary and grammar while learners seldom have the chances to practice what they learned. After analyzing the factors affecting SLA, we may find out much enlightenment for teaching and learning.

A. Teaching Enlightenment

1. To Create Language Environment

Based on the analysis of the factors affecting SLA, we can conclude that in the teaching process, teachers should focus on students' acquiring instead of learning a second language. The process of SAL is a psychological process in which learners actively participate and what learners learned will be stored, processed and practiced. Only by creating a better language environment and language input, can the process of SLA be realized. Therefore, in order to improve the efficiency of language teaching, teachers should attach importance to creating language environment. First, teachers can introduce more about the culture and custom of the target language to attract learners' interest in SLA; Second, teachers should create a pleasant environment for learners to reduce learners resistance in a second language learning. For example, through multimedia, teachers can make language learning more interesting; Third, teachers should hold or encourage learners to hold more activities related to language learning, which can help learners to practice what they have learned.

2. To provide more comprehensible input

Language learning is mainly achieved by getting a lot of understandable input, which is mainly composed of listening and reading.

According to the comprehensible input hypothesis proposed by Krashen, if we want to make the best use of language input in SLA, we should process the meanings of it and make the materials input interesting and understandable, which can help learners master the language imperceptibly. In classroom, it is teachers who are responsible for providing students with comprehensible input besides the expression of grammar.

3. To Pay Much Attention to the Feedback on Learning

Feedback from teachers on learners' learning is a kind of assessment, which consists of oral compliment and criticism. Through feedback, learners can know exactly the efficiency of their language learning, which can help them to correct the wrong and enhance the right in the future learning. Authentic feedback on learners hard work is of help to improve their language learning, and the sense of achievement is the motivation for the improvement of learners in SLA.

B. Learning Enlightenment

1. To Set Up a Specific Goal

Learners with specific goals are more likely to be better motivated in a second language learning. Because learning motivation is the intrinsic driving force which will directly promote a learner's learning process and efficiency. For example, if the goal of a learner is to study abroad, he or she should learn more about cultures and customs of the country speaking target language, which will also motive him/her to practice oral English more by join activities like Oral English Contest and to be active in communicating with his/her foreign teachers in class. If a learner aims at passing CET4/6, he/she should focus on writing ,reading and translating, which accounts for over 60 percent in CET$/6.

2. To hold a positive attitude

Since people differs a lot from each other, so-called individual differences, it's natural that the learning efficiencies will be different among different learners. A learner should realize the individual differences and accept them. When a learner doesn't achieve what he or she expected, he/she should find out the reasons and go on with his/her learning step by step instead of being overanxious, depressed or even giving up. Only when learners look at individual differences in a right way and learn according to them, can learners obtain their own achievements in a second language learning. Holding a positive attitude means not only accepting individual differences but also actively handle the problems occurring in the learning process.

3. To Improve First Language Proficiency

As is mentioned in the former part of this essay, first language proficiency what kind of language transfer, positive or negative, happens in SLA. When their first language is poor, their mother tongue will exert an negative effect on their second language learning, which makes them proceed slowly or even fail in SLA. Thus, first language proficiency is the basis of one's SLA, for the reason of which one should learn one's mother tongue better and know better about the differences between first language and target language, which helps positive transfer happens and cushion the negative one. As a result, the achievement in SLA will be remarkable.

4. To Carry Out More reading

Many studies have found that reading can help learners to improve their pragmatic competence and widen their scope of knowledge, which will lay a good foundation for future learning.

Reading can be divided into two kinds: extensive reading and classified reading. Extensive reading refers to reading a large number of materials of target language, including cultural background, short humorous stories, literature works, technological essays, and so on, because it's hard to find the articles without language context. Nowadays online reading are popular and has become important contents of modern consciousness, which can help learners to keep up with the latest news of target language, to update their pragmatic knowledge data, and improve their abilities of practicing a second language. Classified reading means that learners read a certain category of articles with purpose. It can help learners with high levels can summarize what they've learned in the learning process and to some extent offer a rapid way to improve accuracy in language usage.

VI. Conclusion

There are many factors affecting SLA, which are inter-connected, interacting and inter-promoting. Fortunately, in recent years, many educators and linguists, home and abroad, have done many researches and have put forward many constructive suggestions. As a foreign language educator, he or she should know better about the individual differences and teach learners according to their aptitude. Language teachers should facilitate a second language learning with the help of multimedia, internet platform, mobile communication devices, …everything available. As learners, they'd better put factors affecting SLA, individual and social, in perspective, and take the advantage of them to succeed in Second language acquisition.

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Comparison and Contrast of the Translations of *Gone With the Wind* Based on Norms

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***Abstract*—In this article, by using Gideon Toury's theory of translation studies and focusing on norm, the author intends to analyze two commonly accepted editions, Fu's version and Huang's version of *Gone with the Wind*. Consequently, it is proved that controlled by a specific translation norm, translators tend to take a specific translation strategy, so when evaluating all translated texts, the translation norms at that time should also be taken into consideration besides some set standards.**

***Index Terms*—descriptive translation studies, translation norm, Gone with the Wind**

I. Dispute of Chinese Editions of *Gone with the Wind*

Every classical English literary work will be translated into different translations by different translators at different times. Therefore, if people, especially college students, want to read the translated versions of English literary classics, they may be confused about which translation or which is better.

Gone with the Wind, written by Margaret Mitchell, an American writer, was published in 1936, which is a case in point. In China, the film, adapted from the novel, was released in Shanghai in 1940 and was hailed by Shanghainese during more than forty days of screening. A few months later, the first edition of the novel, translated by Fu Donghua, was published in Chinese and republished in 1979 (Fu, 1979). Decades after it was introduced into China, Fu's version dominated its translation. From the 1990s, many translators began to retranslate the novel. So far, it is estimated that there are at least eight versions.

Inevitably, articles about *Gone with the Wind* emerge one after another on translation issues.

For example, there are three articles using skopostheorie of German functionalism to evaluate two versions. Among them, Wen Jun (2003) took the versions of Fu Donghua and Huang Huairen as an example in his essay *A Functionalist Critique of Two Chinese Translations of Gone with the Wind*, saying that the essence of translation mainly depends on the purpose or task of translation, so Fu adopted domestication and Huang used foreignization, therefore their translations have different own advantages and disadvantages. However, Wen Jun neglected that the functional approach is mainly applicable to practical writing, and the translation of *Gone with the Wind* is more inclined to literary translation.

"Translation is not only a kind of language transfer, but also a kind of cross-cultural communication. We should pay full attention to the macro-cultural factors involved in the process of translation," Feng Qinghua (1998) said in his *Studying Translation from the Macroscopical Viewpoint of Cultural Communication*. So he used historical and descriptive methods to analyze Fu's translation and Daikan's translation. He said that the specific socio-cultural environment and vernacular language at that time influenced and restricted his translation, but his translation was recognized by the readers at that time, so his version belonged to the past, and we should respect his translation. Although the new objective conditions now require a new version of the novel to adapt to a changing socio-cultural environment, there is no absolute domestication and foreignization in terms of the translated version. In fact, according to the descriptive translation studies, Feng's "specific sociocultural environment and vernacular Chinese at that time", "new objective conditions" and "changing sociocultural environment" can be regarded as translation norms for a period of time. Of course, his point of view tells us how to evaluate translation from a historical perspective, not absolute static. Why do different translators in different periods translate the same work in different ways, and why are different versions treated differently in different periods? With Gideon Toury's translation norms, the problem will be better explained and the mystery of choosing which version will be clearer.

II. Analysis of Different Editions by Using Translation Norms

Israeli scholar Gideon Toury is concerned about what translation is achieved in certain cultures, what are the functions of these translations, and what kind of prescription culture will contribute to translation studies. He focuses on translation, especially literary translation, will have a certain impact on the development of specific cultures, and he emphasizes on the position of translation in a particular culture and its influence on translation strategies and the whole translation process.

According to Toury's norm, we know that in different times, the norms of translation are different, translation then will become a relative concept. The same is true of the translation. We should not use the same criteria to evaluate all the translated texts, and we should also take into account the translation norms at that time.

This paper selects the versions of Fu Donghua and Huang Huairen (the first sixteen chapters) and makes a comparison and contrast from the perspective of translation norms. Mr. Huang's version can also be considered a representative of foreignization among other versions of the same period, although the Fu's version is regarded as a masterpiece of domestication. The following section will undoubtedly prove this argument.

A. The Translation of Characters and Places' Name

This, of course, is the first and the most obvious point of difference. Obviously, in Fu's translation characters seemed to be Chinese, they all had their family names, the first names exactly in Chinese way. And the places in the novel also were translated just like the city in China, so when Chinese readers read this novel, they would think the story takes place somewhere in China, they would find it familiar and easy to understand. While in Huang's translation, he strictly translated them according to their pronunciation, which definitely is in accordance with his assertion "Fu's translation has no connection with the geographic characteristics of that area, his way of translating names should be corrected now". (Huang, 1991, p.3)

B. The Translation of Literary Quotations

Since it is the translation of a foreign novel, then there certainly would have literary quotations, something that only belongs to its own country. Towards this point, the two translators adopted different ways, that is, for most of them, Fu simply did not translate or used other similar Chinese proverbs to replace them, but Huang translated most of them directly without changing the original meanings. Here are some examples:

(1) As always since childhood, this was, for Scarlett, a moment for adoration of Ellen, rather than the Virgin. Sacrilegious though it might be, Scarlett always saw, through her closed eyes, the upturned face of Ellen and not the Blessed Virgin, as the ancient phrases were repeated, " Health of the Sick," "Seat of Wisdom," "Refuge of Sinners," *"Mystical Rose"*—they were beautiful words because they were the attributes of Ellen. (Mitchell, 2002, p61)

(2) She had often heard of people *cutting off their noses to spite their faces* but heretofore it had been only a figure of speech. Now she knew just what it meant. (Mitchell, 2002, p114)

(3) They might be dying in thousands but, *like the fruit of the dragon's teeth*, thousands of fresh men in grey and butternut with the Rebel yell on their lips would spring up from the earth to tae their places. (Mitchell, 2002, p220)

In the above three examples, towards literary quotations, they adopted different ways. For the first one, *Mystical Rose,* Fu just translated it as 神秘的蔷薇 with no other explanation, for the proverb *cutting off their noses to spite their faces*, Fu just used a Chinese proverb 吞了毒药去药老虎 to replace it, and for *like the fruit of the dragon's teeth*, Fu did not translate. As for Huang, he used the same way to treat literary quotations, namely, made the direct translation of the lines with notes, for the first one, he added the note "基督教认为玫瑰是'尽善尽美'的象征，常用以赞颂圣母玛利亚，称之为'神秘的玫瑰'", and for the second one, he added the note "西谚，喻害己以害人", and for the last one he added that "按日尔曼神话，腓尼基王子种下龙赤，化为武士，互相砍杀."

Again what Fu did was to make the story easy to be accepted by Chinese readers, and what Huang did was to "keep the foreign color", "try as much as possible to keep the original works' figure of speech without borrowing proverbs and phrases from Chinese". (Huang, 1991, p.4)

C. The Difference of Language

The two translators translated the novel at different times, one in 1930s and the other in 1980s, so the question of language reality must be raised. In 1930s, vernacular Chinese was gradually accepted after the May 4th Movement of 1919, but it had not been fully developed, and could not be fully, freely and properly used. Besides, the literary Chinese that prevailed in feudal society could not extinct, still had a certain impact. Consequently, Fu's language in the translation was half the vernacular Chinese and half classical Chinese. Then about fifty years later, when Chinese language was fully developed, Huang retranslated the novel in modern language, so there would be not the same language style they use.

(4) " Young misses whut frowns an' pushes out dey chins an' says, 'Ah will' an' 'Ah woan' mos' gener' ly doan ketch husbands," prophesied Mammy gloomily, "Young misses should cas' down dey eyes an' say, 'Well, suh, Ah mout' an' Jes' as you say, suh.'" (Mitchell, 2002, p51)

(5) Then, after a discreet pause which gave Gerald's splutterings time to die away, she knocked on the door and handed the dress to her mother. (Mitchell, 2002, p62)

(6) Although born to the ease of plantation life, waited on hand and foot since infancy, the faces of the three on the porch were neither slack nor soft. They had the vigour and alertness of country people who have spend all their lives in the open and troubled their heads very little with dull things in books. (Mitchell, 2002, p2)

Fu translated "Ah (actually it is 'I')", "well, sir" into"俺", "是啦，您那"，and turned "splutterings time to die away", "the three", "born to the ease of plantation life" into "让父亲的唾沫星子干一干", "两位哥儿和一位小姐", "打出娘胎就有人从头到脚的服侍着". And comparatively, Huang translated these words differently, as "我", "是

的，先生", "待杰拉尔德气急败坏的话音逐渐消逝", "这三个男女青年", "出生于庄园主家庭，从小就有人侍候长大". From the language they use, we could easily confirm their language characteristics that I mentioned above, Fu's is mixed with classical Chinese and vernacular Chinese, is freely humorously used. When we read his translation, we would figure out this is a novel written several decades ago. In contrast, Huang's is rather like what people say now, but a little formal.

D. The Translation of Long Sentences

In English novels or articles, sentences tend to be rather long. Towards the long sentences, Fu generally broke the sentence structure, reconstructed the logic order, and translated them into short Chinese sentences. On the contrary, most of the time Huang just followed the sentence structure of the original text without changing its logic order, and finally it turned out to be long Chinese sentence in the process of translation. In fact, not only for long sentences, their translation strategies for the comparatively short sentences are basically the same. Moreover, in English, the modifiers of a central word also tend to be rather long. At this point, Fu just rearranged the modifiers, making some of them construct another sentence, but in Huang' s translation, things would be different, he usually followed the sequence of the modifiers and made them all stay where they were.

(7) True, he never made love to her, nor did the clear gray eyes ever glow with that hot light Scarlett knew so well in other men. (Mitchell, 2002, p21)

(8) If I can just see him privately before supper, perhaps I'll find out the truth—that it's just one of the twins' nasty practical jokes. (Mitchell, 2002, p20)

(9) He did not know that he had taken nearly ten years to arrive, for it never occurred to him that his neighbors had eyed him askance at first. (Mitchell, 2002, p43)

Towards "nor did the clear gray eyes ever glow with that hot light Scarlett knew so well in other men (Mitchell, 2002, p21)" Fu broke it into two parts, translating "Scarlett knew so well in other men" , the modifier of "hot light", later, the Chinese translation became "他的眼睛也从不曾流露过那种热烈的光，像思嘉在旁的男人身上看见的"; Huang made the modifier "Scarlett knew so well in other men" still modify the central words "hot light", the Chinese translation was still a long sentence "他那澄澈的灰色眼睛也从来没有流露出斯卡利特在别的男人眼里常见到的热切的光辉".

For "perhaps I'll find out the truth—that it's just one of the twins' nasty practical jokes (Mitchell, 2002, p20)", Fu made a judgment of the relationship between "perhaps I'll find out the truth" and "that it's just one of the twins' nasty practical jokes (Mitchell, 2002, p20)", used "因而" replaced the dash, then the translated sentence became "或许可以探出事情的真相，因而证明他哥俩方才的话不过是跟她开开玩笑的". Huang followed the sentence structure without changing the dash, and made the translation as "说不定就可以弄明白真相—即不过是两兄弟的又一次恶作剧罢了".

And as for "He did not know that he had taken nearly ten years to arrive, for it never occurred to him that his neighbors had eyed him askance at first (Mitchell, 2002, p43)", Fu broke this sentence into two Chinese sentences, reversed the sequence of the first part of the sentence, and split the other part of the original sentence into three parts, finally the translated sentence became "他这做本地人的一步工作，是差不多做了十年才完工的，但自己却并不知道。因为他初来的时候，那些邻舍家都对他侧目而视，这情形是他始终不曾想起过的". And Huang still obeyed the original sentence structure and did not make any changes, and at last the Chinese sentence was "他并不知道他几乎花了十年时间方才得到当地人的认可，因为他始终没有觉察到他的邻居们最初对他是侧目而视的".

In conclusion, Fu broke the long sentences, withdrew the modifier, and made them into short Chinese sentences, while Huang kept all the modifiers, especially attributes, modified the key word without any pause, therefore it turned out that Huang's translation followed the structure of the original sentence and was rather long sentence.

E. Full Translation or Partial Translation

Many sentences that Fu translated are not full translation, they are changed in different aspects: the most obvious one is deletion, from the deletion of several words to the deletion of paragraphs; then there is an addition, that is, adding the information that the original text does not have; finally there is the change of the meaning of the original text. On the other hand, Huang (1991) said in his preface "the translator should keep the integrity of the original work, which is the responsible attitude the translators should have. Any deletion or change of the meaning would diminish the characteristics of the original work". Therefore, it could be imagined that in Huang's translation, he tried to convey all the information to the readers. For example, there are four paragraphs on page forty-seven and forty eight that were not translated, and again four paragraphs without being translated on page thirty-six and thirty-seven of the English original in Fu's translation. As for the partial translation and changed translation, cases exist everywhere.

(10) Scarlett knew these hurried preenings were being made with an eye toward meeting his wife with the appearance of a gentleman who had ridden sedately home from a call on a neighbor. She knew also that he was presenting her with just the opportunity she wanted for opening the conversation without revealing her true purpose. (Mitchell, 2002, p24)

(11) Scarlett could not imagine her mother's hands without her gold thimble or her rustling figure unaccompanied by the small Negro girl whose sole function in life was to remove basting threads and carry the rosewood sewing-box from

room to room, as Ellen moved about the house superintending the cooking, the cleaning and the wholesale clothes-making for the plantation. (Mitchell, 2002, p34)

In example ten, Fu did not translate "with the appearance of a gentleman who had ridden sedately home from a call on a neighbor (Mitchell, 2002, p24)" and "without revealing her true purpose", he only translated part of the sentence. And in example eleven, Fu also omitted "rosewood" and "whose sole function in life", at the same time he added "所以她不能坐定在哪一个地方做针线的", which was not written in the original text; for the first part of the sentence, he just changed the sentence structure and the meaning of original sentence. In contrast, Huang translated all the information without any change and omission.

From the examples of these five aspects of differences, we can see that generally Fu's translation is domesticated and Huang's translation is foreignized. However, there were still many sentences towards which they just took use of both the domestication and foreignization.

III. Illustrations of the Two Versions With Toury's Theory of DTS and Translation Norms

In accordance with Toury's theory that translation is a norm-governed activity (Toury, 2001), we know that translation norms are not the rules people made, but the objective requirements people have towards the choices of source texts, translation strategy and the acceptability of the target texts in a certain period or a particular society. While translators must be influenced by these objective requirements and would consciously or unconsciously perform some kind of translation behavior. Obviously, there must be different translation norms in different periods, which exert a subtle influence on the translators. Now let's take a look at the requirements set by the translation norms during these two different periods.

A. Fu's Translation

First, the movie version of the novel *Gone with the Wind* was released and cheered before Chinese readers knew of it. So before the translation, people already had their ideas, of course, influenced by the film. Anyone who saw the film knew that it was just a love story; and with the two protagonists' outstanding acting, the movie was also believed to be a true adaptation of the novel. However, because of its own characteristics, the film could not contain all the contents of the work, some of which would certainly be abridged, such as, the psychological description, some dialogues, some background materials, all of which were important in the novel, because these contents would show that the novel was not only a love story but also about American history. (Feng, 1998).

Moreover, Fu's translation was started and completed in 1940s, when the literary works and classics of the former Soviet Union are the main sources of translation, such as, Zhu Shenghao translated Shakespeare's work, Meiyi translated *How the Steel is Refined*, Li Jianwu translated *Madame Bovary,* etc. All these works were of instruction and artistic quality, and their translation undoubtedly promoted the development of New Vernacular Literature Campaign and enriched people's minds. So when people combine translation's social function with social reality, the so-called useless light literature of the same time would inevitably be impacted. Therefore, the light literature would not be analyzed thoroughly, maybe readers of that time just thought it as the topic of conversation during their free time. *1949-1966: Translation and Publication of American Literature in China,* written by Sun Zhili (1995), made a detailed categorization of the translation and publication of American literature during that time, and also proved the above-mentioned point of view.

As a result, the above two factors influenced Fu's viewpoint towards *Gone with the Wind*, and he said in the preface of his version, "… after reading the novel and seeing the movie, I thought although it could not be treated as the classic, it still could not be regarded as lavatorial as the popular novel does—its popularity is quite understandable," "for the redundant description and analysis of psychology which I think are irrelevant to the development of the plot, I just delete them by paragraphs". (Fu, 1979, p1)

Besides, there is the question of language. Not only Chinese is different from English, even the same language in different time period would show different characteristics, because language is in the constant process of evolution, especially when the people who use this language have a tolerant attitude towards the foreign culture. We should notice that the recognition of vernacular Chinese was after the May 4th Movement of 1919. But it was not well developed, so it could not be used adequately, freely and appropriately. Some translators claimed that translators should "create new modern Chinese", like Qu Qiubai (Chen, 1992, p312); while some pointed out that we should enrich vernacular Chinese with the structure and vocabulary of foreign language, like Lu Xun (Chen, 1992, p312). However, it takes time to improve our language with the advantage of a foreign language, which is just one of many ways. Many translators chose to influence and enrich vernacular Chinese through translation, and still many others chose to turn to classical style of writing. For example, famous translators Zhou Zuoren and Fu Lei both said that by translating foreign literature one could learn from classical style of writing (Chen, 1992, p396), and even the language of most of Lu Xun's translated work was mixed with classical style of writing. So we could conclude that at that time the reality of Chinese language urged translators to benefit from Chinese classic style of writing and expressions of foreign language. From Fu's translation, it is obvious to see that he preferred to make good use of advantages of classical Chinese.

Anyway, the requirements of that time, the translation norms, assumed that the translator should fulfill a function specified by the community and has to do so in a way that is considered appropriate in that community. So under the influences of such translation norms, Fu employed domestication as his translation strategy, which was also the mainstream of this period, further proven by *China's Literary Translation: from Domestication to Foreignization* (Sun, 2002).

B. Huang's Translation

Huang's version was published in the 1990s, so the background was certainly different from that of Fu's. After the reform and opening up, the Chinese people have come into contact with more foreign cultures, and cultural exchanges have become more frequent. More and more translators have pointed out that we should try our best to introduce Chinese culture abroad, and we should also strive to introduce foreign culture into China. As Sun Zhili (2002) said, in the last two decades of the twentieth century, the translation of foreign literature in China was the fourth prosperous period. So many translators started to translate or retranslate many literary works, among which *Gone with the Wind* attracted much more attention. After about 50 years, Chinese language developed greatly. Just as Huang (1991, p3) put it in the preface to his version: "Since *Gone with the wind* was introduced into China, there has been only one version of the novel, that is, Fu Donghua's translation." "Language itself develops incessantly, and one version of a literary work could only last for about forty or fifty years. And there are many parts of the translation that are unacceptable, so it is necessary to retranslate." In the preface, Huang mentioned some unacceptable points in Fu's translation, namely, the translation of characters' names and places' name, the deletion and rewriting of the source text, and the false translation.

All in all, just because of these social norms, literature norms and translation norms, translators adopted different ways of translation. The above examples extracted from the first sixteen chapters of the two editions of *Gone with the Wind* have best illustrated these points perfectly.

C. Other Aspects of the Two Versions

There is another concept worth mentioning here, the initial norm, which in translation involves a basic choice between adhering to the norms realized in the source text, reflecting the norms of the source language and culture, and abiding by the norms commonly found in the target culture and language. Adherence to source norms determines a translation's adequacy with respect to the source text; adherence norms originating in the target culture determines its acceptability within that culture (Baker, 2001, p164). Obviously, even the most adequacy-oriented translation involves shifts from the source text; in fact, the occurrence of shifts has long been acknowledged as a true universal of translation (Toury, 2001, p57). So there is no absolute domestication or foreignization.

In addition to the fact that language is determined by the linguistic realities of the times, the translation strategies used by the two translators are the opposite of the main translation methods, that is, in the translation of Fu, some sentences follow the structure of the original sentence and the superficial meaning of the original sentence; In Huang's translation, there are many sentences which are different from the original sentence structure, and these sentences are translated into its connotative meaning. Besides, for literary citations, Fu also made notes for some of them, i.e. in the first sixteen chapters Fu made twenty-four notes, and in Huang's translation, there are fifty-one notes.

Therefore towards any translation, we could not easily say which one is better, because the translation strategies are determined by social norms. Furthermore, translation strategies also would be influenced by the translator's own language proficiency, language habits, translation routines, etc., which again would form a certain kind of society and culture.

IV. CONCLUSION

Translation is conceived as a norm-governed activity in Toury's theory (Toury, 2001). Norms refer to the translation of general values or ideas shared by a community—as to what is right and wrong, adequate and inadequate—into performance instructions appropriated for and applicable to particular situations, specifying what is prescribed and forbidden as well as what is tolerated and permitted in a certain behavioral dimension (Toury, 2001). From Toury's explanation, we understand that translation norms are not the rules people made, but the objective requirements people have towards the choices of source texts, translation strategy and the acceptability of the target texts in a specific time period or a particular society. While translators must be influenced by these objective requirements and would consciously or unconsciously perform some kind of translation behavior. Obviously, different time periods would definitely have different translation norms, which exert a subtle influence on translators. Therefore, different translator would take different translation strategies adherent to the mainstream of his period of time.

The point is that in order to evaluate the translated text, it is necessary to analyze the translation norms which influence the translator's translation strategies from the historical point of view. Using this theory, we find that there is no absolute domestication or foreignization, and there is no need to decide which version is better. Considering the differences in the translation norms between the two versions, we know that Fu's version is more popular and acceptable in his time, and Huang's version is preferable under contemporary conditions. Either of the versions is a successful product the translator completed in terms of mainstream and translation norms of his time.

Consequently, translators would be affected by some objective requirements, that is, the translation norms people have in selecting translation materials, translation strategies as well as acceptance of the target text, and then translate source text in a certain way. Therefore, controlled by a specific translation norm, translators tend to take a specific translation strategy. So, translation norms should be taken into account when evaluating all translated texts besides some set standards.

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Social Media in EFL Context: Attitudes of Saudi Learners

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***Abstract*—This study investigates the impact of Social Media (SM) on students' attitudes towards the process of learning EFL from the learners' perspectives. The hypothesised model is developed through social learning theory proposed by Vygotsky (1978). The sample population of this research consists of 228 undergraduate students (153 females and 75 males) enrolled in the Department of English Language at Najran University in Saudi Arabia. The instruments used to gather data from the participants included a self-designed online electronic survey and semi-structured interviews. Results show that Najran University students believe that SM positively improves their understanding of English. Moreover, students agree that SM is a good platform to improve their proficiency in English. They also reported that SM changes their attitudes towards English positively. The findings also indicate that SM is a good platform for students as it provides opportunities for learners to study foreign languages. As SM tools grow and new generations get attached to them, additional studies on the adoption of these tools must be conducted to support students' learning.**

***Index Terms*—social media, learners' attitudes, Saudi University students, EFL**

I. Introduction

In contemporary society, technological advancement has had a tremendous impact on the younger generations to the point that it has become an integral part of their lives. The adoption of new technology has played a critical role in the provision of various platforms for people not only to interact but also to learn, share knowledge, exchange information and express their thoughts and ideas. Web 2.0 technologies are important for the present generation, whose members have become digital natives. Prensky (2006) stated, 'Our students are no longer little versions of us as they may have been in the past. In fact, they are so different from us that we can no longer use either our 20th century knowledge or our training as a guide to what is best for them educationally. Our students, as digital natives, will continue to evolve and change so rapidly that we will not be able to keep up' (p. 9). Prensky (2006) also stated that instructors who still use pre-digital language are struggling in the sense that they cannot continue using the old language in teaching a generation who speak an entirely new language.

Considering the interaction through web-based tools and mobile applications, such as blogs, wikis, podcasts, video casts, Facebook, online forums and microblogging sites like Twitter, students in non-English speaking countries have changed their attitudes towards learning English as a foreign language (EFL) (Bahrani, 2011). These learners can socialise with native speakers of English and others who have developed proficiency in English as a second language (ESL). In comparison to the classroom setting that limits the level of interaction among students, social media (SM) provides various platforms that enable learners to interact with a wide audience. They can create content and share it within these virtual, digital communities. Students can participate in group discussions as well as share resources and information with one another. Globally, several non-English speaking countries have adopted comprehensive language learning programmes that allow students to learn ESL. Allam and Elyas (2016) found that several factors have influenced the need to acquire proficiency in English. For example, the English language has become a lingua franca; thus, almost every aspect of socio-political and economic aspects of the society uses it. Therefore, having knowledge of English is a prerequisite for working and interacting with people all over the world. Many statistical reports prove the domination of English language on the Internet in general and social media in particular. In fact, the well-known world wide web technology surveys (W3Techs) published a report that 51.9% of Internet content is in English, which is the most frequently used language in 2018.

Moreover, knowledge of the English language is associated with high education and social status. However, specialising in English as a major to learn the language is unnecessary because people who are eager to learn succeed in any circumstances. Fortunately, learning English has become easier due to the emergence of SM. This research examines the impact of SM platforms on students' attitudes towards EFL, in which interaction in SM can influence students to acquire positive or negative attitudes towards learning EFL.

A. SM and Its Impact on Students' Attitudes

The geographical distance that separates different cultures has become closer in recent years, thus increasing interactivity and socialisation among people of different cultures. Adopting web-based telecommunication tools, such as the Web 2.0, has contributed to the tremendous improvement in the interaction between students in English and non-English speaking countries (Seo, 2013). Creating various platforms, such as online discussion groups, Facebook, Twitter and podcasts, allows learners to have different venues where they can observe and learn the critical aspects surrounding the English language.

Due to the tremendous increase in the usage of social network sites (SNSs), such as Twitter, Facebook and blogs, technology experts should develop advanced technologies to boost online interaction especially designed for learning purposes. Students who use SNSs only for pleasure should also recognise the importance of SM in the elaboration of their language in particular and their knowledge in general. Learners should fully grasp the usage of professional online platforms that can result in critical discussions, thereby boosting their proficiency and competency in EFL.

B. Purpose of the Study

The study evaluates the impact of SM on students' attitudes towards the process of learning EFL from its learners' perspectives. With the increasing use of online communication tools, such as blogs, Facebook and wikis around the world, determining the possible role that SM plays in influencing the attitudes of English learners in non-English speaking countries has become an important research endeavour (Yagci, 2014). Therefore, the study aims to determine how the constant use of SM for interaction affects EFL students' perception of English language. Given that attitudes can change in the short and long terms, the study focuses on EFL students in the Department of English at Najran University. Specifically, the study unravels how the use of web-based communication tools affects the perceptions of some Najran University students who are EFL learners.

Gender is significantly considered in the survey because it is an essential factor in the Saudi Arabian educational and socioeconomic landscape. Gender can influence students' attitudes towards SM use and, consequently, their academic performance. Therefore, this research explores the propensities of male and female students towards SM and how it can improve their English language proficiency.

Moreover, the study focuses on the extent to which respondents consider SM as a means of free and comfortable communication with their group members, especially those who lack confidence in face-to-face interaction and are shy. In addition to the perspective that SNSs provide channels for new kinds of information from the newsfeed, these channels should lessen the reluctance behind the active participation in discussions carried out in English. The study tried to answer the following questions:

1. How does SM improve students' understanding of English from the perspective of the EFL learners?
2. How does SM affect the students' proficiency in English from the perspective of the EFL learners?
3. How does SM usage influence the attitudes of EFL learners towards English?
4. Is there any statistically significant difference that can be attributed to gender and grade point average (GPA) in the attitudes of participants towards learning English through SM?

II. Literature Review

This research investigates the impact of SM on the attitudes towards English from the perspective of EFL learners. Therefore, two areas must be investigated: SM and learners' attitudes. Many forms of technology have been used in the field of education. One of these forms is Web 2.0, originally developed from Web 1.0. The term 'Web 2.0' was first introduced by O'Reilly (2005) when software developers started utilising the world wide web. Web 1.0 generally includes authentic materials, texts, pictures, audios, videos, webpages, discussion forums, emails, chatrooms, photos, music and videos. Web 2.0 refers to live materials, Flickr, podcasts, videocasts, blogs, wikis, online discussion boards and SNSs (Alm, 2006; Shih, 2011). Donelan, Kear and Ramage (2010) define Web 2.0 as a shift from static content to a dynamic platform based on collaboration. Web 2.0 technologies offer structures that can be used in learning environments, and their application offers new channels for learners to receive and exchange informative and constructive feedback from peers and instructors. Web 2.0 technologies include wikis, blogs, media-sharing services, SNSs, collaborative editing tools and modification technologies (O'Reilly, 2007; Donelan et al., 2010). Fralinger and Ownes (2009) found that learning through Web 2.0 applications has transformed the present learning industry.

Pedagogy, technology and social interaction are the key factors for a technology-enhanced learning environment. Thus, blended learning that combines Web 2.0 technologies and online peer assessment with face-to-face instruction has become a new and feasible strategy for instructors and students to enhance their performance and satisfaction (Shih, 2011).

Within an educational setting, information and communication technologies (ICTs) have stimulated new pedagogical practices that redefine the predictable methods of learning and teaching. SM platforms are the new formats of these novel technologies. Such platforms have been viewed as an active force among teachers, learners and information professionals. Kaplan and Haenlin (2010) defined social media as 'a group of Internet-based applications that build on the ideological and technological foundations of Web 2.0 and that allow the creation and exchange of user-generated content. It is a medium for social interaction as a super-set beyond social communication enabled by ubiquitously accessible and scalable communication techniques' (p. 63). SM platforms support collaboration, provide significant information sources and offer a venue of active engagement among participants and communication. These tools transform learners into active content creators from passive receivers of information. The term ‘social networking’ and ‘social media’ present similar issues and are often interchangeably used, but without a clear definition of either term. In general, the term ‘social media’ is most often used as a broad umbrella that includes many Web 2.0 functions, including social networking. ‘Social media’ is generally appropriate to define methods of conveying messages as an extension of traditional media outlets. Kaplan and Haenlin (2010) classified SM into six forms: projects produced collaboratively by users (e.g. Wikipedia), SNSs (e.g. Facebook), content communities (e.g. YouTube), blogs and microblogs (e.g. Twitter), virtual social worlds (e.g. Second Life), and virtual game worlds (e.g. World of Warcraft). Therefore, SM is a broad term that contains SNSs.

Baird and Fisher (2005) conducted the first major examination of potential uses of SM in education. They identified key advantages that SM platforms provide to today's neo-millennial learners. Their study readily points out that students these days have been raised in a world of interactive media, the Internet and digital messaging technologies. Therefore, they have different expectations and learning styles compared with previous generations. Elsayed (2011) said, ‘As in today’s environment, students have all day access to the library, varied information and social networking tools available via the Internet’ (p. 6). This net-centric generation values their ability to use the web to create a self-paced, customised, on-demand learning path that includes multiple forms of interactive, social and self-publishing media tools (Goel & Singh, 2016). Teachers who want to utilise SM in their academic courses to promote student learning should be prepared to support students and be active participants in the collaborative learning community. Dabbagh and Kitsantas (2012) stated, ‘higher education institutions still primarily rely on traditional platforms such as course and learning management system that do not capitalise on the pedagogical affordances of social media’ (p.3).

Al-Sharqi, Hashim and Kutbi (2015) evaluated the similarities and differences between art and science university students concerning their perceptions of the effect of SM on behaviour. The research involved 2,605 male and female participants of different ages, but all of them were college students. Their results indicated that art students are more immersed in and familiar with SM use than science students. The study further showed that learners benefit from the use of networking platforms. For art students, being online provides them with a channel to express their ideas, whereas, for science students, platforms help them understand other people’s opinions. Students identified how networking helps them in learning how people think. In addition, SM enables them to connect with different communities and improves their open-mindedness. By being on SM, their boredom is reduced and the monotony resulting from daily routine is alleviated. On the downside, distraction and unproductivity are also identified as adverse effects of SM exposure (Al-Sharqi, Hashim & Kutbi, 2015).

Networking media provide students with tools for performing many tasks. Group discussions, resource sharing, information access and entertainment are examples of the purposes that social networking serves. SM provides interactivity in learning outside the classroom. Shih (2011) focused on Web 2.0 as the platform for SM learning. Results showed that students can gain English proficiency through observing and commenting on their peers’ posts on Facebook. The study’s findings support the social constructivist theory of learning in which students acquire knowledge through their experiences interacting with their peers.

Al Samadani and Ibnian (2015) claimed that interactions between students over SM platforms have positive and negative implications. Furthermore, the researchers argued that the effects of SM on students are persistent in the short and long terms. Most SM platforms also use English as the first language. Such language is still necessary for those who have been customised (AbuSa’aleek, 2015). Therefore, as a first learning step, these networks enable students to learn basic English terminologies that are used in SM.

Recently, social perspectives on learning have increasingly inspired related research. Constructivist and social learning theories have inspired several studies on online learning (Shih, 2011). Since the 1990s, constructivism has had a strong influence on education, particularly in the field of instructional technology. Vygotsky (1978) developed social constructivist theory to emphasise the importance of social interaction in learning. Vygotsky (1978) argued that the distinction between constructivism and social constructivism is that, in social constructivism, learners are incorporated into a knowledge community based on language and culture. Learning is thus a collaborative process. Meanwhile, social constructivism assumes that students act within a social environment which is then followed by reflecting, abstracting and increasing experiential knowledge. The constructivism is learner-centred and students are actively engaged in knowledge construction rather than being just passive listeners. Within the principles of constructivist learning theory, meaningful interactions in a learning environment are designed to enhance meaning, including sharing various perspectives and experiences in communities of practice (Kamnoetsin, 2014). With the rapid development of SM and other technological tools, the ideal iteration of the constructivist-learning paradigm is how to use new media to enhance learning. SM is the tool that provides remote social interactions among individuals. This notion is consistent with the principles of social constructivism and explains why constructivist theorists focus on this powerful tool in their studies. Constructivism theory, in this sense, demonstrated how SM offers opportunities for students to interact online and obtain knowledge through many different sources. Therefore, constructivism concepts blend perfectly with technological affordances provided by SM.

The number of research offering valuable insights into the status of SNSs among university students has grown in recent years. However, the potential of this tool to positively affect students’ attitudes has yet to be fully investigated.

Therefore, the present study focuses on gaining a deep understanding of the perceptions and attitudes of Najran University students towards English and how the SM use can affect these attitudes. The study also aims to understand SM and how it can contribute towards learning foreign languages and recognising Saudi Arabian learners' perceptions of the role of online communication in improving their English language proficiency in the present era.

III. Methodology

A. Data Collection Procedure

Data are collected through surveys and semi-structured interviews. Thus, in the present study, the mixed method design was selected to investigate the research questions deliberately from different perspectives.

B. Research Sampling and Participants

Approximately 100 participants were expected to complete the survey. However, the results exceeded expectation, and a total of 228 (153 female, 75 male) students participated in the survey. Depending on the 'Rule of 100' by Gorsuch (1983) and Kline (1979), which recommends that no sample should be less than 100, the sample population of this research consisted of 228 young adults. Thus, this sample size was sufficient to obtain accurate and reliable results. The participants consisted of male and female undergraduate students enrolled in the Department of English, College of Languages at Najran University in Saudi Arabia. The level of English language and experience in learning among this sample could shed light on the usage of English language in various SNSs. These students could express their beliefs on how SM can facilitate English language learning and improve certain skills. The research participants were university students, with ages ranging from 18 to 24. Thus, this group can be considered a group of young adults or late adolescents.

C. Research Instruments

A comprehensive questionnaire was used as the survey instrument. This instrument was designed for the current research, bearing its purpose, nature and objective to inform the participants about its scope. The questionnaire itself is based on a five-point Likert-scale, a unique parameter among social research methodologies in which participants can respond in terms of the degree of their agreeableness with question statements ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree. Furthermore, enlisting the responses on Likert points equips researchers with a great leverage to categorise, objectify and analyse responses independently.

The survey tool also carried a communique for the respondents, outlining and reiterating the voluntary nature of their participation in the study and their extent of contribution for data collection. The questionnaire allows for a quick data gathering process from the large sample size consisting of students. The question items were specifically arranged to elicit genuine and systemic responses from the participants. The questionnaire contained prudently crafted statements, through which participants can document their individual responses and return the filled questionnaire through the same method in which it was handed to them initially. The study primarily used a mixed approach and—through logically arranged question items—followed a defined pattern to ascertain the participants' responses about the influence of SNSs on their attitudes towards EFL. The question items were prepared to assess the views of participants on the usage of SM platforms as a learning tool for English language. The questionnaire consisted of four parts. In the first cluster, participants responded to general questions relating to gender, GPA and the strength of association with SM, in addition to their primary purposes for its usage. The second cluster focused on SM platforms and how their usage influenced their understanding of the English language. The third cluster of questions addressed the effect of SM on learners' language proficiency, and the fourth cluster concentrated on the respondents' perspectives on how SM usage influenced their attitudes towards EFL.

D. Research Procedure

The research design included surveys and semi-structured interviews about SM usage and its effect on students' attitudes. Data were collected separately to analyse two datasets afterwards. Depending on the description of different types of comparison between qualitative and quantitative data, equal priority was given to both data sets in this research. However, the students took part in a survey first. Given the rapid expansion of SM, distributing the questionnaire online to the group of respondents to collect required data was appropriate. Prior to administering the survey questionnaire, clear and concise instructions were provided to the respondents, and they were made thoroughly aware about the nature of the study. Online platforms, including emails and survey websites like Google forms, were useful tools for creating and then distributing the questionnaire among students.

The survey was distributed to 20 participants as a part of the pilot study. The beginning and ending time was recorded to estimate the approximate time for completing the questionnaire. They took about 10 minutes to answer the whole survey. The reliability coefficient of the questionnaire was calculated using Cronbach's alpha. The value of .91 indicates that the internal consistency of the questionnaire's items is very high.

In order to simplify the data collection process, the improvised questionnaire was created online using Google forms. Thereafter, the students included in this study were kindly requested to submit their email addresses if they were willing to participate in a post-interview. As part of the research design, the interviews were deliberately selected to obtain students' perceptions towards EFL. Thus, the semi-structured individual interviews were conducted only with those who sent e-mails indicating their willingness to participate. The researcher contacted the 27 students who agreed and sent e-mails, but only 19 participants had time for the interview.

IV. RESULTS

Descriptive and inferential statistics using SPSS were performed to find answers to the research questions stated in section 1.2. Means, standard deviations, skewness and kurtosis were run to determine the impact of SNSs on understanding and improving proficiency based on students' perceptions. An effect size t-test was computed to discover whether statistical differences exist among students' attitudes towards SNS usage, which can be attributed to gender and GPA. All values of statistical significance were calculated at .05. Cronbach's alpha was utilized to measure the level of reliability of the research tool used (i.e. questionnaire).

A. Questionnaire Analysis

1. Reliability

The reliability coefficient of the questionnaire was calculated using Cronbach's alpha. The Cronbach's alpha for the total items was .91, indicating very high internal consistency of the questionnaire's items. The excellent values of the total items of the questionnaire and the value for each item indicated the strong internal consistency of the items.

To know how students perceive their improvement in understanding English through SM usage, descriptive statistics were run to elicit the means and standard deviations of their responses on the questionnaire items. The results are summarised in Table 1.

TABLE I
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR STUDENTS' IMPRESSIONS ABOUT UNDERSTANDING ENGLISH
SM USAGE (N = 228)

No.	Item	M	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
1	I think SM is a good platform to learn English from.	4.19	1.07	–1.47	1.74
2	I see that SM improves my language skills.	4.1	1.04	–1.5	2.38
3	I do not think SM offers any benefit to my language.	1.76	.96	1.64	2.61
4	SM usage helps me reduce my first language use when communicating with friends and classmates.	2.6	1.26	.30	-.89
5	I enjoy using SM for learning English.	3.98	1.06	–1.13	.93
	Total means	3.3	.64	–.71	2.10
	Total means excluding negative Item (3)	3.73	.82	–.92	1.09

Table 1 reveals that the overall means of all items is 3.3, indicating that students perceive the positive effects of SM usage on their understanding of English. Such perception value can be interpreted as high. Excluding the negative Item (3), the total

Kline (2005) claimed that when skewness indices are valued between +/-2 and kurtosis is within a range of +/-3, data can be assumed as normally distributed. Therefore, data in our study can be considered as normally distributed. Moreover, Item (1) has the highest mean (M = 4.19, SD = 1.07), indicating that the participants believed that SM is a good platform upon which they can learn. Item (3) had the lowest mean (M = 1.76, SD = . 96), showing that the responses on the statement that SNSs do not offer any benefit to their language is very low. Therefore, students feel that they benefited from SM usage.

TABLE II.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF STUDENTS' ATTITUDES TOWARDS THE IMPACT OF SM ON LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY (N = 228)

No.	Item	M	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
1	I think SM usage helps in understanding English acronyms. (e.g. LOL [laughing out loud], OMG (oh my god).	4.3	1.0	–1.6	2.3
2	SM usage helps improve my spelling skills in English.	4.0	1.05	–1.0	.61
3	SM usage contributes towards my ability to summarise and shorten statements in English.	3.8	1.16	–.77	–.32
4	SM improves my skills in reducing repetition errors.	3.7	1.1	–.54	–.70
5	I have learned English jargons through SM. (e.g. texting [typing a message], googling [searching the Internet], tweeting [posting a tweet on Twitter].	4.2	1.05	–1.5	1.99
6	SM has contributed towards my pronunciation of English words.	4.2	1.0	–1.4	1.8
	Total means	4.0	.84	–.96	.79

As seen in Table 2, the skewness and kurtosis values reveal normally distributed data. The total means of students' responses towards the impact of SM on their English proficiency is 4.0, indicating that their perceptions are high. Item (1) depicts the highest response of the participants, showing that they perceive that SNS usage helps them in understanding English acronyms. Their perceptions improved (M = 4.3, SD = 1.0), which indicates very high perceptions. However, the lowest responses (M = 3.7, SD = 1.1) come from the participants who believe that SM can improve their skills in reducing repetition errors. Yet, their response is still high.

Means and standard deviations were utilised to obtain their scores on responses. Skewness and kurtosis were also run to see the normal distribution of data. Results are summarised in Table 3.

TABLE III.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF STUDENTS' ATTITUDES TOWARDS LEARNING ENGLISH (N = 228)

No	Item	M	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
1.	SM usage helps me in studying English because it makes me more educated.	3.93	108	–.97	.32
2.	I feel proud when using English on SM.	4.16	1.10	–1.33	1.00
3.	I feel excited when communicating with others on SM using English.	4.26	1.02	–1.55	2.14
4.	I feel worried when using English on SM groups due to criticism from others.	2.32	1.24	.60	–.73
5.	I like sharing my opinions in English on SM.	3.21	1.36	–.11	–1.21
6.	I feel I gain knowledge and understanding of English grammar when using SM.	3.60	1.25	–.53	–.74
7.	I do not get anxious when required to respond in English on SM.	3.59	1.25	–.57	–.69
8.	When I hear a friend speak English well, I like responding for good practice.	4.14	1.09	–1.43	1.50
9.	Using English on SM helps me create good emotions (feelings).	3.78	1.14	–.66	–.37
10.	When I have a chance to communicate with others in my first language, I prefer using it as opposed to English.	3.31	1.28	–.21	–1.06
11.	I put off communication on SM using English as much as possible.	2.14	1.19	.90	–.08
12.	Using English on SM increases my confidence on the use of the language.	4.04	1.09	–1.11	.61
13.	SM helps me pay attention to the quality of English.	3.94	1.13	–1.02	.40
14.	SM enhances motivation to communicate using English.	4.00	1.14	–1.08	.41
15.	SM enhances positive attitudes to English language learning	4.03	1.08	–1.16	.91
	Total Means	3.63	.68	–1.00	1.72
	Total means if negative items are excluded (Items [3], [11])	3.7	.72	–.9	1.2

Table 3 shows that the total means reach 3.6, indicating that these students' overall attitudes towards the contribution of SNSs in learning English are high. The highest item that received significant response is Item (3) (M = 4.2, SD = 1.0), concerning the feeling of excitement when communicating with others on SM using English. However, Item (11) gained a low scores (M = 2.14, SD = 1.1), revealing that such students' withdrawal from communication in English with others is low. Therefore, these students feel confident when communicating with others in English using SM.

An inferential statistics (t-test) was run to see how male and female students perceive learning English via SM. However, we did not have an equal number of participants across the gender factor (i.e. male = 75, female =153). Thus, a non-parametric (Mann-Whitney) test was used to control the variation of the sample size. Table 4 presents the results of the non-parametric test.

TABLE IV.
MANN-WHITNEY TEST FOR STUDENTS ATTITUDES TOWARDS SNSS AND LEARNING ENGLISH

Mann-Whitney test					
	Gender	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Sig
Students' attitudes	Female	153	117.58	17989.00	.31
	Male	75	108.23	8117.00	
	Total	228			

The Mann-Whitney test indicated no significant differences in the attitudes of female (Mdn = 3.7) and male (Mdn = 3.6) students, U = 117.5, p = .31, r = . 15

A one-way ANOVA was used. However, we did not have equal number of participants across the GPA factor. Thus, a non-parametric (Kruscal-Wallis) test was used to control the variation of the sample size. Table 5 reports the results of the non-parametric test.

The Kruscal–Wallis test indicated no significant differences in the attitudes of the participants based on their GPA, *F (4,223) = 2.79, p =. 027*. However, the post-hoc analysis shows that statistically significant differences exist between the students whose GPA ranged between 3–4 (M = 3.68, SD =. 53) over those whose GPA ranged between 1–2 (M = 3.1, SD =. 81) p =. 048. No significant differences are found among other GPA rates.

TABLE V
RESULTS OF THE NON-PARAMETRIC TEST

Kruscal–Wallis Test						
	GPA	N	Mean	SD	Mean Rank	Sig
Students' Attitudes	1–2	14	3.10	.81	71.29	.027
	2–3	57	3.48	.71	107.23	
	3–4	83	3.68	.53	123.73	
	4–4.5	35	3.60	.70	123.53	
	4.5–5	39	3.59	.60	112.88	
	Total	228	3.57	.65	71.29	

B. Interview Analysis

According to the Arab Social Media Report (2011), the growth of SM in the region and the shift in usage trends have played critical roles in the mobilisation, empowerment, shaping of opinions and influential changes that occurred in recent years. However, many traditional institutions teaching EFL continue to restrict and limit interactions and collaborations within classes. Thus, most EFL students have adopted the use of SM as their learning and practice platforms (Razak, Saeed & Ahmad, 2013). Having administered the questionnaire, 19 students were interviewed to obtain their opinions, feelings and attitudes about SM usage during their learning process. The responses of 19 participants were qualitatively analysed using a constant comparative method, in order to develop a grounded theory based on the research questions (Zhang & Wildemuth, 2009).

RQ1: How does SM improve the understanding of English from the perspective of EFL learners?

According to the interview analysis, SM improves the understanding of most students through the introduction of new vocabulary, which assists them in real-life communication. Students stated that SM is equipped with many words, and through their interaction, they are able to add new words to the lists of words they have learnt. As one student shared, ‘It enhances my vocabulary and no day passes without learning at least one new word’ (Participant 7).

The interviewed students asserted that SM platforms provide them with exposure through which they can practice through writing, viewing photos, watching videos and following influential people who assist them in learning. Another student said, ‘I learn many words and vocabularies from videos and photos I see on Instagram and Twitter’ (Participant 5). In this category, students stated that SM exposes them to different cultures in different countries where they can learn different accents of the language; hence, their understanding is also improved in the process. Moreover, these students expressed that SM not only helps them with practicing but that it also plays a critical role in illustrating contextual meanings of various words and phrases they encountered. One student shared that SM enhances collaborative learning, which improves the understanding of certain words and phrases which are easy to remember.

RQ2: How does SM impact English proficiency from the perspective of EFL learners?

The responses can be classified into two main categories. The first division (majority) comprises those who believe that SM positively affects English proficiency by improving their writing, listening, reading and speaking skills. The respondents think that SM encourages active participation and offers different materials that they can use to practice. For example, one of the students said, ‘Social media help me learn slang language, which I cannot learn from regular classes’ (Participant 3). Participant 3 argued that the language learnt in class is not typically used among people in daily life. Thus, SM, especially Snapchat and Twitter, enables her to communicate with others effectively and more naturally in daily life.

The second category comprises responses from students who maintain that SM improves their English proficiency by improving their vocabulary. They argue that SM is rich in English-related materials, such as idioms, jargons and phrases among others, which improve their proficiency. They believe that the availability of these English-related materials at their disposal has enabled them to practice and apply in chats, thereby improving their proficiency.

RQ3: How does SM usage influence the attitudes of EFL learners towards English?

All interviewed EFL students ($N = 19$) cited that SM usage results in positive attitudes towards English. However, they pointed out different factors that lead to their ultimate eagerness to learn English. Most of them ($N =16$) stated that SM usage makes them confident and comfortable, thus motivating them to learn. They also maintained that SM offers a platform for the correction of spelling words and mistakes in text usage in case of a wrong context, thus further developing their perception of English.

As one student asserted, "Social media is the main reason why I have decided to study English." She said, "Most of the communication on social media have been created in English, and in most times, I could not figure out what the messages mean and found myself lost in a world speaking a language that I could not comprehend. That’s why I decided to specialise in the English language" (Participant 6). Therefore, the rest of the students ($N=13$) were asked if their specialisation in English was affected by SM usage. All of them agree that that SM does in one way or another.

One of the students asserted that although SM has an undeniable positive effect on her attitude, she sometimes develops a slightly negative attitude when she sees people using inappropriate language or posting abusive content online. However, when she sees people with a pretty good accent and using appropriate language, she is encouraged and motivated to learn English.

Based on the results of the interviews, SM evidently plays a critical role in improving the EFL learners’ understanding, proficiency and attitudes. Therefore, institutions that offer specializations in an EFL course must integrate and incorporate SM in their programmes to facade effective and efficient learning.

V. Discussion of the Findings

A. SM Improvement of Students’ Understanding of English

In the first research question, the participants were required to state their level of agreement from very low to very high for 5 items in the questionnaire: ‘I think SM is a good platform to learn English from’, ‘I see that SM improves my language skills’, I do not think SM offers any benefit to my language’, ‘SM usage helps me reduce my first language use when communicating with friends and classmates’ and ‘I enjoy using SM for learning English. Table 1 shows that the participants in this study have an overall positive attitude towards the influences of SM on their understanding of English. Such a result is consistent with the research findings of Wang et al. (2012), who concluded that the continuing medical education course participants have positive attitudes towards using SM for educational purposes. Moreover, whilst the total means (excluding Item [3] because it is negative) is high with the value of 3.73, the total mean is moderate with the value of 3.3. Still, both values fall in the categories of moderate (from 2.61 to 3.40) to high (from

3.41 to 4.20) corresponding levels. Hence, the result is consistent with Vygotsky's (1978) social constructivism theory, which assumes that students act within a social environment which is then followed by reflecting, abstracting and increasing experiential knowledge. Moreover, the communication between the learners and other people in SM as an important factor in language learning is the interaction in the target language (Miangah & Nezarat, 2012).

The corresponding levels of participants in RQ1 vary from 1.76 to 4.19, which indicates the positive influences of SM on learners' understanding of English. Table 1 shows that Items (1), (2) and (5) have high ratings with means M = 4.19, 4.1 and 3.98,, whereas items (3) and (4) have low ratings with means M = 1.76 and 2.6, respectively. Hence, the result is consistent with the study by Goel and Singh (2016), who found that encouraging SM as a tool for information sharing can help to improve academic performance in management department and even student performance in diverse academic areas. Item (1) has the highest mean of 4.19 (SD = 1.07), indicating that students at Najran University believe that SM is a good platform for learning English. Similarly, Item (2) has a mean value of 4.1 (SD = 1.04), indicating that students realise the improvement in their language skills through SM. Such a result supports the findings of Swan and Shea (2005), who concluded that students perceive themselves as interacting socially using SM and that this social interaction is meaningful to their learning.

Moreover, students also enjoy using SM for learning English. This result is reflected in item (5) with a rendered mean value of 3.98 (SD = 1.06). Item (5) also indicates the positive feelings of those students towards learning English through SM. Such a result is consistent with the findings of Al-Sharqi, Hashim and Kutbi (2015), who concluded that SM reduces boredom as it alleviates the monotony resulting from daily routines. This also supports the findings of Dizon (2015), who stated that participants express enthusiasm for SM usage in language learning with some positive benefits cited by students in the study population, including ease of use, low stress levels and convenience.

Item (3) (I do not think SM offers any benefit to my language) has the lowest rendered mean 1.76 (SD = 0.96). However, Items (2) and (3) contradict each other. The result perfectly demonstrates that SM positively influences the understanding of English from the perspective of EFL learners. This statement is consistent with that of Al-Sharqi et al. (2015) that most communication on social networks are developed in English. As students figure out what the messages mean, their level of English language comprehension is also improved in the process. Therefore, the overall perspectives of students change when they realise that they are making progress in the process of English language learning. Accordingly, whilst most students recognise that SM platforms improve their language skills, only a few of them think otherwise.

B. SM Impact on English Proficiency of the Learners

The participants responded to the second research question by stating their level of agreement for 6 items in the questionnaire: 'I think SM usage helps in understanding English acronyms', 'I have learned English jargons through SM', 'SM usage helps improve my spelling in English', 'SM usage contributes towards my ability to summarise and shorten statements in English', 'SM usage improves my skills in reducing repetition errors', 'SM platforms have contributed towards my pronunciation.' Table 2 presents the descriptive statistics of the items. It shows high positive attitudes towards the influences of SM on English proficiency from the perspective of EFL learners. Thus, the result is consistent with the findings of Shih (2011), who argued that students can gain English language proficiency by observing and commenting on their peers' posts on Facebook. Whilst the total mean is rendered with the value of 4.0, the 6 items' values fell in the category from high (from 3.41 to 4.2) to very high (from 4.21 to 5.0) corresponding levels. This result reflects the principle of constructivist learning theory, which states that meaningful interactions in a learning environment, including sharing various perspectives and experiences in communities of practice, are designed to enhance meaning (Kamnoetsin, 2014).

The corresponding levels of the participants in RQ2 vary from 3.7 to 4.3, indicating totally positive attitudes by such students. The highest mean value of Item (1) 4.3 (SD = 1.0) and (5) 4.2 (SD = 1.05) indicates that students believe SM usage helps in their understanding of English acronyms and jargons. The rampant use of the slang language by people on SM can justify this statement. Most people minimise their conversations using tiny keys to speed up their conversation. Hence, students learn these acronyms and jargons by being exposed to SM. This result supports the statement of AbuSa'aleek (2015) that most SNSs use English as the first language and even for those that have been customised, English knowledge is necessary. Therefore, as a first learning step, these networks enable students to learn basic English terminologies that are commonly used on SM.

In addition, item (6) with a high mean value of 4.2 (SD = 1.0) indicates that students believe that SM contributes towards their pronunciation. Thus, the result supports the research of González (2017) on the pronunciation instruction through Twitter, in which they investigated the potential of a Twitter-based approach based on explicit instruction to help EFL learners improve their pronunciation. Results revealed that this approach induces significant improvements in learners' pronunciation of the target features and that such improvements are maintained over time. Moreover, the research of Akbari, Naderi, Aliabadi, Simons and Pilot (2016) showed that the mindset of students towards foreign dialects before exposure to SM is different from their perspective after attending some classes. Thus, they concluded that social networks are useful tools for learning foreign dialects. The result also supports the study of Miangah and Nezarat (2012), who concluded that the speech aspect of mobile learning is as significant as its textual aspect as it enables learners to comfortably speak with a system that records their voice and allows them to listen back to themselves. Through this process, they can compare their voice with an ideal pronunciation and work on this skill.

Similarly, Item (2) with a mean value of 4.0 (SD 1.05) reflects that the students believe SM usage helps improve their spelling in English. This finding is inconsistent with that of Cowins (2017), who stated that in this technological age of computers and SM, spelling may become extinct given that people are becoming progressively unconcerned with their ability to spell with the autocorrect, shorthand and shortcut functions in most gadgets and apps.

Item 3 with a mean value of 3.8 (SD 1.16) indicates that those students believe SM usage contributes towards their ability to summarise and shorten statements in English. For example, Twitter users only have 280 characters to express themselves per tweet. Thus, they learn how to summarise their ideas in a short meaningful sentence.

In general, the perception of the students of this reserach about the influences of SM on their English proficiency is positive. Such a perception supports the notion that these tools form the basis of the current evolution of the Internet and are based on the premise that individuals derive their competence through the connections they make (Dogoriti, et.al 2014; Siemens, 2004).

C. The Influence SM Usage on the Attitudes of the Learners towards English

The participants of this study were required to state their level of agreement with 15 items in the questionnaire. Table 3 presents the descriptive statistics of these items. It shows a positive attitude towards the influences of SM usage and the attitudes of EFL learners towards English (the third key DV). The total mean (excluding Items [4] and [11] because they are negative) is high with the value of 3.7, whereas the total mean is 3.63. Still, both values fall in the category of high corresponding levels (from 3.41 to 4.20).

Results indicated that the students believe SM usage helps them study English because it makes them educated (Item [1], M = 3.93, SD = 1.08), feel proud when using English on SM (Item [2], M = 4.16, SD = 1.10), feel excited when they are communicating with others on SM using English (Item [3], M = 4.26, SD = 1.02). Students love having their voice heard, and the Internet opens their products to a worldwide audience. Networking sites allow connection to a large community as users with similar interests serve as an authentic audience (Purcell, 2012).

They also believed that using English whilst on SM helps them create good emotions (feelings) (Item [9], M = 3.78, SD = 1.14), which is consistent with the finding of Omar et al. (2012) that many respondents feel that Facebook allows them to have free and comfortable communication with their group members, especially those who are shy and lack confidence to initiate face-to-face interactions. They believe that using English on SM increases their confidence in using the language (Item [12], M = 4.04, SD = 1.09). This result is supported by the research findings of AbuSa'aleek (2015), who stated that the confidence and motivation of students towards acquiring English speaking skills improves after using Facebook as a learning tool.

The students also do not get anxious when required to respond in English on SM (Item [7], M = 3.59, SD = 1.25). This finding is consistent with that of the study of Lin et al. (2014), who concluded that students who use SM to do their homework experience considerably less anxiety than the control group who uses a traditional method of learning.

Moreover, the participants believed that SM motivates communication using English (Item [14], M = 4.00, SD = 1.14). This result is in line with the findings of Al-Sharqi et al. (2015) and Akbari et al. (2014), who found that these platforms can create new opportunities and contexts in which students can increase their motivation for learning. It also supports the research findings that the confidence and motivation of students towards acquiring English speaking skills are improved after using Facebook as a learning tool (AbuSa'aleek, 2015).

Finally, they believe that SM enhances positive attitudes towards EFL learning (Item [15], M = 4.03, SD = 1.08). This result is consistent with Lin et al.'s (2014) research finding that using blogs positively affects the learners' perceptions and attitudes towards learning a second language.

Item (4) with a low mean value of 2.32 (SD = 1.24) indicates that such students do not feel worried when using English on SM groups due to criticism from others. Moreover, Item (11) with a mean value of 2.14 (SD = 1.19) specifies that most students do not avoid communication on SM using English as much as possible. Although Items (4) and (11) imply negative attitudes, students' responses reflect low ratings on both items, indicating that students' attitudes towards using English on SM is not negative. Such a result is consistent with the study of Al Samadani and Ibnian (2015) on the attitudes of university students towards learning EFL. They identified the factors that affect students' attitudes towards EFL learning, and one of them is the nature of communication and interaction through social networks.

D. Gender and GPA on the Attitudes of the Participants towards Learning English through SM

In terms of the student's gender factor, the result from the Mann–Whitney test indicated that there are no significant differences in the attitudes of the female (Mdn = 3.7) over male (Mdn=3.6) students, U = 117.5, p = .31, r = .15 (Table 4). Based on the results of this study, gender does not influence either the attitudes of students using SM for learning English nor their academic performance. Therefore, this result supports the findings of Aifan (2015), who concluded that there is no statistically significant difference between Saudi male and female students in their attitudes toward using SM to support learning.

Talking about GPA, the results from the non-parametric (Kruskal–Wallis) test indicate that there are no significant differences in the attitudes of the participants in terms of their GPA: F (4,223), p = .027. However, the post-hoc analysis showed statistically significant differences between students whose GPAs range from 3–4 (M = 3.68, SD = .53) over those whose GPAs range from 1–2 (M = 3.1, SD = .81) p = .048 (Table 5). Whilst the GPA factor does not significantly influence the attitudes of the group with GPAs ranging from 3–4, it influences the attitudes of those with GPAs ranging from 1–2. Thus, the result partly supports the findings of Al-Samadani and Ibnian (2015), who studied the link between students' attitudes and their academic performance through their GPAs. Concerning the relation between attitudes towards EFL and academic performance, the researchers found that students with a positive viewpoint towards learning EFL have better performances than those with negative perspectives (Al-Samadani & Ibnian, 2015). In short, whilst no statistically significant difference can be attributed to the participants' gender in their attitudes of the participants towards learning English through SM, the GPA factor influences the attitudes of the student group with low GPA differently compared with other student groups with higher GPA.

VI. Conclusion

In summary, the results of the first research question revealed, from their perspectives, they thought that the use of SM positively improved their understanding of English. They also believed that the SM served as a good platform for learning English and improving their language skills. This finding is consistent with that of Gumport and Chun (1999), who asserted that the purpose of integrating technology in education is to improve the standard of teaching and learning.

For the second research question, from their perspectives, the students highly believed that SM positively affected their English proficiency. Similarly, the students believed that the use of SM helped in their understanding of English acronyms and jargon. Accordingly, the online interactions of Saudi students with other individuals helped them update their usage of informal and common acronyms, which are not formally taught in an academic environment. In addition, the students also believed that SM contributed towards their pronunciation of English words. The online interactions via audio and voice chat also helped them sharpen their pronunciation through conversations with various ranges of English accents. Moreover, they highly believed that the use of SM improved their spelling skills in English. In addition, SM positively influenced their English proficiency because students were given daily opportunities to practice their language with others. Hence, it can be concluded that the employment of SM for online interaction and educational purposes influences the communication styles and the writing skills of the participants. Whilst SM may provide positive development in language teaching, it is necessary to consider the framework by which this tool can cross the line between the positive and negative influences in teaching and learning English using SM.

For the third research question, the students highly believed that the SM usage positively influenced their attitudes towards English. The students acquired certain levels of positive emotions when they employed SM for learning English, including the feeling of being more educated, excitement in English communication, increasing their confidence in using the language and feeling less anxious when they are required to respond in English. Additionally, SM usage enhanced their positive attitudes toward English language learning. Thus, the high awareness of students proves that they have an overall positive attitude towards learning English through SM.

Finally, the results demonstrate that there is no statistically significant difference that can be attributed to gender in the attitudes of the participants towards learning English through SM. This conclusion is constructed from the results on the attitudes of female students over the male ones. However, as there were more female than male participants, this result may be biased. Furthermore, there is a statistically significant difference between students with GPAs ranging from 1–2 and from 3–4. The conclusion is based on the means values of students, whose GPAs ranged between 3–4 over those, whose GPA ranged between 1–2. Hence, it can be concluded that the positive attitudes of students would decide the range of their GPA in studying English. Although there was no statistically significant difference within other ranges of GPA, the GPA factor does not have much influence on their attitudes towards learning English through SM.

In conclusion, this study has proven that students' knowledge, attitudes and learning attainment are positively affected by their usage of SM. This finding may be considered useful by policy makers and teachers in increasing the development and employment of technological integration in classrooms. SM platforms have great educational potential and teachers can use many ways to integrate SM to their full advantage. One of these ways is to ask the students to create a group on WhatsApp or Telegram and invite all the students to join. Then, the teacher can start discussion topics and the students who participate will get marks for that. Another example is to organise an active Twitter discussion thread and ask students to post a tweet with an interesting fact about the topic of discussion. This could motivate students to research, summarise their ideas and then express them in meaningful sentences. Indeed, teachers can employ numerous SM platforms in the learning process to encourage students to learn English. However, these platforms can act as distractors if improperly used. Teachers should thus notify students to follow rules that guarantee the effective use of technology, and then ask the students to sign a pledge to follow these rules. In conclusion, teachers should be aware that it is time to leave the old style of teaching and reconsider their adherence to traditional methods in favour of newer teaching strategies for the benefit of their students.

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The Research and Application of Critical Discourse Analysis

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***Abstract*—Critical discourse analysis (CDA) reveals the relationship between power and ideology behind language by analyzing discourse. News as an important channel for people to obtain information in their daily life, its objectivity is self-evident, but the ideology contained in it is often ignored by readers. This paper reviews the development and characteristics of critical discourse analysis, and analyzes the critical discourse from four aspects: transitivity, modality, transformation and classification, to explore the ideological and political positions behind the text.**

***Index Term*—critical discourse analysis, characteristics, news discourse**

I. Introduction

Critical discourse Analysis (CDA),) aims to analyze the relationship among language, power and ideology, not only about what language is, but also why it is, it is not only interested in the meaning of discourse, but also in how the meaning is produced in discourse. Through the superficial form of language, it reveals the influence of ideology on the text, the reaction of the text to ideology, and how they originate from the social structure and how the power relationship serves it. Critical discourse analysis is a revolt and complement to mainstream linguistics. In the 20th century, the mainstream school of linguistic research was structuralist linguistics and formalistic linguistics. They thought that language was abstract, closed and static. The system of self-sufficiency separates language from society, and puts forward dualistic models of language research, such as language and speech, synchronic and diachronic, referential and diachronic, horizontal aggregation and vertical aggregation, language ability and language use, and so on. CDA completely breaks the thought pattern of "dualistic opposition" and links language research with its social function, which makes language research from static to dynamic.

In 1979, R. Fowler first proposed CDA as a language research method in Language and Control. In 1989, the publication of language and Power (Fairclough, 1989) and speech, Power and ideology (Wodak,1989) marked the maturity of CDA. Up to now, CDA has gone through the development process of more than THIRTY years, from budding to growing. This paper will analyze the characteristics of CDA, explore its problems and development trends in the future, hoping to provide some reference for scholars engaged in CDA.

II. The Characteristics of Critical Discourse Analysis

A. The Clarity of the Research Objectives

Critical discourse Analysis (CDA) focuses on inequality and injustice in society, reveals the ideology and power behind language, and strives to improve it. Critical discourse analysis not only focuses on analysis, but also focuses on criticism, by analyzing the language forms in the text to reveal the relationship among implied languages, power and ideologies and how the ruling class uses language to exercise ideological control and maintain their position of power. The objective of CDA is to explore how discourse communication is implemented and replicated in the socio-political context and how it is used to resist domination, control inequality and the overflow of power in society.

B. The Generality of the Research Scope

CDA aims to explore the relationship between ideology and power in discourse. Therefore, any explicit or implied power and control relationship in discourse constitutes the research content of CDA. CDA focuses not only on mass discourse and political discourse closely related to social factors such as gender, age, race, class, but also on the power and inequality implied by different social roles in institutional discourse such as education, medical care, and business. Blommaert summarized the research fields of CDA as: political discourse study, ideology study, race-related immigration discourse study, economic discourse study, advertising discourse and marketing research. Gender studies of media language, institutional discourse, social work discourse, bureaucratic discourse, educational discourse, etc. In such a wide range of research areas, CDA frequently examines topics such as gender discrimination, racial discrimination, employment and judicial inequality, war, nuclear weapons and nuclear power, political strategies and business practices, etc. (Blommaert,2005)

C. The Interdisciplinary Nature of the Research Field

In order to understand the relationship among language, power and ideology, CDA focuses on absorbing the rational core of different disciplines, such as sociology, linguistics, cognitive science and so on. Through the adjustment of different theories, especially sociological and linguistic theories, the integration of theories is carried out. Because the task of critical discourse analysis is to study the insufficient analysis of text by sociological theory and the insufficient exploration of sociological theory by linguistic theory, and to combine the two perfectly through "internalization".

CDA draws on relevant sociological theories, for example, CDA draws on Gramsci's hegemonic theory, and argues that civil society relies on hegemony, that is, to maintain the current system with the consent or acquiescence of most people. It is emphasized that ideology can control all members of society effectively, and pay attention to how the mass media such as television, newspapers and periodicals control the members of society. Foucault's discourse theory makes critical discourse analysts realize that discourse and power are dialectical isomorphism. Discourse is not only the product of power but also the component of power. At the same time, according to Harbermas's communicative behavior theory, critical science must pay attention to the relationship between language and social communication, and its discourse evaluation criteria provide a useful reference for critical discourse analysis.

In the field of linguistics, CDA mainly draws on the theory of systemic functional linguistics, which is a multifunctional theory linking language and social context, and is very suitable for discourse analysis. Therefore, systemic functional linguistics is concerned about the phenomenon that language, as a "social symbol", is controlled by the social structure while at the same time constructing the society. Functional linguistics provides a solid analytical basis for CDA and enables criticism to take root in linguistic analysis. CDA not only absorbs sociological theory and systemic functional linguistic theory, but also draws on the research achievements of social semiotics, cognitive science, psychology, pragmatics, stylistics, rhetoric and conversational analysis.

D. The Diversity of the Research Schools

Because of the different theories of reference, there are different schools in CDA, such as Fairclough's three-dimensional analytical framework, Wodak's discourse history analysis method and van Dijk's social cognitive research model. These three schools explore the hidden power and ideology behind language from different angles, and provide a multi-and comprehensive perspective for critical discourse analysis.

The three-dimensional analysis framework of Fairclough tries to put forward a theoretical paradigm for CDA based on the functional linguistics of the system. Fairclough regards text, communication and social context as the three main elements of discourse. Based on this, he puts forward a three-dimensional analysis framework, that is, discourse, discourse practice and social practice. Discourse is the product of discourse practice, and this process includes the generation communication and acceptance of discourse. On the basis of this, this paper puts forward three levels of critical discourse analysis: describing the formal structural features of discourse, that is, text analysis, , including the analysis of language use and discourse communication, often using systemic functional grammar for linguistic description. Explaining the relationship between discourse and discourse practice, and this process is the intermediary of description and interpretation. Expounding the relationship between discourse practice and its context, analyzing the phenomenon of power and inequality, and revealing how power and ideology work. Then, Fairclough & Chouliar-aki puts forward five steps of critical discourse analysis. Firstly, locking down a social problem related to discourse; Secondly, determining the difficulties in dealing with the problem, through the analysis of the network of social practice in which the discourse is located, the analysis of the relationship between the discourse and the other components of the social practice, and the analysis of the discourse itself, the difficulties in dealing with the problem are determined; Thirdly, considering whether to solve the problem involving social order; Fourthly, determining the solution of the problem; Fifthly, making a critical reflection. Fairclough's discourse analysis model has a strong operability, it is the most systematic and perfect in the critical discourse analysis school, and provides a valuable reference for the study of mass discourse.

In Wodak's discourse-historical analysis method, discourse is studied in a specific social and historical context. Wodak defines discourse as "representing the meaning of a particular field of social practice from a particular point of view," which is similar to Fairclough's definition of discourse. Wodak & Weiss believe that social phenomena is a complex phenomenon. It cannot be simply understood as causality. There is a dialectical relationship between discourse practice and its behavior field. Context is an important factor in the process of construction and construction. The analytical framework divides the context into four levels: The relationship between language and context, the relationship among Segment, text, genre and inter discourse, the external sociological variables of language and the institutional framework involved in context, a broader context of social history. The four levels of context correspond to the four analytical levels of the analytical framework: linguistic analysis, discourse theory, moderate degree theory and grand theory. The first level is descriptive, and the other three levels of analysis aim at constructing a context theory. Wodak's view and method of pragmatics have developed four-step analytical strategies: first, to identify a discourse theme related to words such as race or discrimination; Second, to examine the discourse strategies used in the discourse; third, to analyze the linguistic characteristics; fourth, to carry on the formal analysis of the language in a specific context.

Van Dijk advocates the social cognitive model and constructs the triangle pattern of the "discourse-cognitive-Society", According to van Dijk, discourse and social structure are connected by the medium of social cognition, this social cognition emphasizes the sociality and collectivity of human cognition, often refers to more abstract ideas, belief systems and ideologies, etc., which are acquired and put into practice mainly through discourse, and are constantly corrected in practice. Discourse is a communicative event. It is a form of expression of various meanings, including interactive discourse, writing text and related gestures, facial expressions, print layout and other symbols.

III. The Application of CDA in News Media

Halliday's systematic functional grammar is devoted to the study of the context and socio-cultural background of the discourse, thus becoming the basis of many critical approaches and methods of discourse analysis, and plays a leading role in the critical analysis of public discourse. In his view, there are three major metafunctions, namely, ideational function, interpersonal function and textual function, which constitute the meaning potential of language. Conceptual function refers to the speaker's experience of the world and its various phenomena, interpersonal function refers to the speaker's attitude and evaluation of the related phenomena, which is used to establish a relationship between the speaker and the listener, and the textual function is the tool of the above two functions. The speaker can speak a discourse that can be understood by the listener through the textual function, which can link the discourse with the context and context in which it is generated. According to critical linguists, language is inextricably related to society, and the speaker's choice of discourse is governed by some principles intentionally or unintentionally. In other words, the sentence itself carries and expresses a certain social significance. Therefore, the form of language depends on its social function, and the difference of structure not only reflects the difference of ideology, but also helps to maintain and strengthen the difference. However, it is not easy to understand the intentions behind news coverage in all kinds of media. Because ideology is not a concrete information content, but an abstract level, it is implicit in the information, so it becomes rather subtle and difficult to detect. However, the nature of news media serving different ideologies and values is unchanged. This article will analyze and explore the ideology behind the news from four aspects.

A. Transitivity

Transitivity is the main element of conceptual function. In systemic functional language, transitivity refers to the expression of what people see and hear in language. The speaker's choice of process function component and embodiment means is influenced by ideology to a great extent. Halliday classifies transitive processes into six types: material process, mental process, relational process, behavioral process, verbal process and existential process. The following is a discussion of the application in media coverage.

Material process is a process of doing something for another entity. The executor of the process is known as the enabler, and the other major participants call it the target. A material process is a truly objective record of facts and circumstances.

(1). China will prosecute a former senior provincial official for corruption after an investigation found he illegally accepted gifts and abused his power.

(2). Under Mr. Xi，the party has carried out an extensive crackdown on corruption that has seen more than 1.5 million officials investigated in the past five year.

Examples (1) and (2) use a large number of dynamic verbs, such as "prosecute" and "carry out", in line with the requirements of objectivity in journalism, and most of them are in line with the facts when reporting on China's anti-corruption reality and achievements, showing the truth to the public objectively and impartially. The selection of material quality reflects the objective attitude of foreign media towards anti-corruption in China to a certain extent, and helps readers to understand the reality of anti-corruption in China positively and objectively.

Verbal process is the process of communication of information, used to express warnings, explanations, etc. It is a symbolic relationship formed in human consciousness, and presented in the form of language. One of the prominent features of news discourse is to quote the source of the message, which mainly includes two ways: the direct source and the indirect source.

(3). General Fang’s “ideals and convictions had been shaken, he abandoned the mission of the party and degenerated politically，becoming economically rapacious,” said an editorial published in the Liberation Army Daily on Wednesday. His misdeeds，it added，had”seriously tarnished the image of the party，the military and leading officials.”

When reporting the anti-corruption problem in China, the New York Times directly quotes the words of relevant personnel and institutions, especially the selection of Chinese authorities and Chinese authoritative figures or media, which first ensures the authority and credibility of the report. For example, directly quoting an editorial published in the PLA Daily, the organ of the Central military Commission (CMC), clearly pointed out Fang Fenghui's corrupt and illegal acts, and enhancing the dialogue of the report. First of all, readers are exposed to relatively objective and real one-hand corpus information, which is helpful for readers to make corresponding examination and objective judgment on corruption in China according to their own understanding. Although there are a large number of indirect references, the use of relatively pertinent words, such as said, added,reported, accounts for most of the verbal process.

The relational process denotes the process of the relationship between things, which is divided into two categories: attributive and identifying. The attribution class is composed of the carrier, attribute and the verb representing the relationship, and the recognition class is composed of the identified, identifier and the verb representing the relationship. The two types can be further divided into three modes: the intensive, circumstantial and the possessive.

(4). Sun’ s case is testimony to the “fearless spirit and unwavering resolve” of the campaign against graft.

(5). “Grave violations of discipline” is a vague phrase that can include corruption or disloyalty to the party.

The identified person is "Sun 's case," and the identifier is "fearless spirit and unwavering resolve." the New York Times showed the reader the confidence and determination in the process of anti-corruption in China with regard to the case of Sun Zhengcai. To some extent express its positive attitude to the anti-corruption work. The New York Times makes full use of the broad concept of " Grave violations of discipline" in the title of the report that Sun Zhengcai is accused of, in an attempt to create an illusion among readers and make them feel that Sun Zhengcai has been subject to dismissal investigation just because of the violation of discipline. To stigmatize China's image, its language strategy allows hidden ideology to be exposed.

Mental process is a process of perception, which includes perception, cognition, emotion and will. The two main participants in the psychological process are the sensor and the phenomenon. The mental process shows the perception of what happened, which is helpful to construct the inner state, ideology and value orientation of the sensor.

(6). I have only myself to blame and deserve my punishment. I completely accept (the charge). I sincerely admit my guilt and express regret.

The sensor is "corrupt official Sun Zhengcai", here through the mental process to express his own series of psychological experiences, "blame", "completely" sincerely "and so on reflect the perception of deep guilt and regret.

B. Modality

According to Halliday, one of the important components of interpersonal function is that the speaker makes a judgment about his or her proposition or expresses an individual's will in his proposal, and that either is realized by a modal system.(Halliday,2000). Fowler believes that modality is the expression of an individual's willingness, responsibility, and anticipation for the event. In news reports, modality can reflect the views and positions of the reporter, and can be realized by modal verbs, modal adverbs, modal adjectives and so on. Although we generally believe that fairness and objectivity are the requirements of news reports, no matter how objective they are, they inevitably reflect the author's personal attitudes and ideologies, which are often achieved through modal system. Halliday classifies modality into two categories: modalization and modulization. Modalization is often used to express probability and frequency, and modulization is used to express obligation and will. Through the analysis of the modality in the news discourse, we can find out the basic position of the speaker.

(7). Companies are required to report any potential problems to the safety commission, which sets industry standards and does some news testing.

In this example, “are required to” embodies a modal sense of responsibility. With the help of passive voice, the author implies that the company has the responsibility to expose its potential problems to the public. Passive sentences are often the most effective way to cover up the perpetrator. In this case, the reporter blurts the actors who act to avoid referring to the responsibilities they carry.

(8). They included Chinese-made toys that either had excessive amounts of lead paint or had small magnets that could easily be swallowed by children.

“Easily” is a modal adverb that expresses a tendency. If it is omitted, it will not fully show the evil nature of the matter and the necessity of recalling toys made in China.

(9). Maybe this was corruption or substandard work, or perhaps things were put into place too fast.

In example (9), "maybe" and "perhaps" express uncertainty and possibility. The uncertainty and feasibility of the author not only implied that the sentence was true, but also influenced the reader's judgment of the event. In addition, the use of the derogatory word "substandard" reveals the author's doubts about the safety of China's railways.

(10). I’ve never heard of lightning doing that, but if it did, everything else would stop too. And the signal system should keep trains at a safe distance.

The "never" in example (10) expresses the speaker's surprise, but it is in fact a complete negation of the results of the investigation of the accident in China; The use of the subjunctive words "did" and "would" expresses the speaker's subjective view, which is the main idea of the speaker's virtual view. "should" means that the signal system should keep the two cars at a certain distance, but it doesn't. This kind of information misleads the reader, makes the reader feel that China's railway is unsafe, to some extent also tarnished the image of China.

As can be seen from the above examples, foreign media, in expressing their personal attitudes and ideologies, try to avoid the use of words such as “I think””in my opinion” and more often use modal verbs such as “should”, “may” or “could” to express possibilities, frequencies, and tendencies, responsibility, etc. Therefore, Chinese readers should have the consciousness of critical discourse analysis, which can avoid being controlled by their ideology, so that they can understand the content of the report more deeply.

C. Transformation

Transformation is a part of grammatical metaphor in systemic functional grammar. Grammatical metaphor is the possibility of re-setting the relationship between wording and meaning, which refers to expressing things in one common form but being expressed in another grammatical form. It is one of the main resources to extend the potential of linguistic meaning. The most commonly used forms of transformation are nominalization and passivation. Nnominalization refers to a speaker who could have expressed a certain meaning in a verb structure or sentence, but used a noun or noun phrase. It can create a non-personification effect, weaken the sense of action and enhance the objectivity of the text. Passivation is a means of thematizing, which moves the object component to the beginning of the sentence, allowing the object to act as a marked theme to highlight the message expressed by the component (Xin Bin, 2005). Passivation highlights the subject by deleting the action implementer, emphasizing the information to be expressed, and providing convenience for disguising the causality and the actor.

(11). The government’s only explanation for Saturday’s accident has been that a lightning strike disabled equipment.

(12). Immediately after the accident the government dismissed three more railway officials without explanation, and announced a thorough investigation into its cause.

In examples (11) and (12), "explanation" and "investigation" are the noun forms of the verbs “explain” and “investigate” respectively. The author uses nomenclature to blur the subject, time and extent of the "explanation" and "investigation", so that the information conveyed to the reader is not comprehensive, and the reader may have one-sided understanding of the interpretation and investigation of the accident by the Chinese government. And then influence China's international image.

(13). In China, a torrent of public criticism continued Tuesday, with bloggers and citizens asking why the government was not more forthcoming about the cause of the crash, why parts of the wreckage were buried at the site and why a toddler was found alive in the wreck even after railway authorities had said there were no further signs of life.

(14). A railway communications officer, identified only as Mr. Liu, told The Beijing Times that after the accident, he was sent to check the communications system of the first train.

In example (13), "were buried" is used to blur the time of "burying" and the subject of order burying, which leads the reader to assume that the burying is directed by the Chinese government; The subject of "was found" is "toddler", highlighting the fact that babies are the subject of passive voice, indirectly expressing the cruelty of the accident, and also implying a message that the Chinese Government does not attach importance to human rights. This is also a distortion of the image of China. In example (4), "was sent" could have been used to express "dispatch" in an active voice, but the passive voice was used here to mask the action of dispatch and its implementers. That is, who sent him to check the signal of the first car. The author omits the main information and only conveys to the reader the message of "someone to check", thus affecting the objectivity of the facts and embodying the influence of the western media on the public imperceptibility.

D. Classification

Classification refers to the use of language to give order to the outside world. The text classification system refers to the naming and description of people and things in the text, mainly through the choice of vocabulary. Classification is the most basic cognitive style of human beings. Language is not an objective classification tool, people use it to label things not necessarily reflect the inherent characteristics of things, but will be affected by people's cognitive level and ideological and emotional sound. That is, different views of things and experience will lead to different classification principles. Compared with other such words, the classification function of nouns is especially noteworthy. Nouns have a high degree of abstractness. They usually classify a lot of things according to only one or two characteristics, and in turn give each member the full connotation of such things. The text classification system refers to the naming and description of people and things in the text, mainly through the choice of vocabulary. Classification is the most basic cognitive style of human beings. Language is not an objective classification tool, people use it to label things not necessarily reflect the inherent characteristics of things, but will be affected by people's cognitive level and ideological and emotional sound. That is, different views of things and experience will lead to different classification principles. Compared with other such words, the classification function of nouns is especially noteworthy. Nouns have a high degree of abstractness. They usually classify a lot of things according to only one or two characteristics, and in turn give each member the full connotation of such things.

(15). China has held a lavish parade in Beijing to make the defeat of Japan in world War Two.

We can find that the word “lavish” is extravagant in the Longman Dictionary, and the reviewers use only one word, lavish, to illustrate the meaning of the Chinese military parade. In this way, news reports depict China as extravagant and extravagant as ancient China. From the choice of words to prove the so-called "China threat theory."

(16). we are not huge fans of military parades, showing off shining new aggressive equipment, in general.

The author uses the word "aggressive" to describe China's so-called aggressive image. In the Oxford Dictionary, "aggressive" means "offensive". Therefore, the term has a strong negative meaning, undoubtedly saying that China has an aggressive heart, that is, the so-called "China threat theory", and obviously this is not in line with the reality.

(17). Pollution in China's Air Creates Concern About Beijing Olympic Games.

The successful hosting of the Olympic Games has always been a good wish of the Chinese people. However, the western media has distorted their reports on the Olympic Games and destroyed the image of the Chinese government. They have completely lost their fair and objective journalistic professional ethics. From the noun of “concern”, we can see the suspicion and incitement of the western mainstream media to host the Olympic Games in China. The Western media is not looking at the efforts of the whole of China to successfully host the Olympic Games from an objective point, but is using a microscope to expand the problems facing China. And finally achieve the goal of inciting other participating countries to worry about China's competition environment, thus adversely affected China.

(18). Shanghai’s Expo trials get crowded, rocky start.

Following the successful hosting of the 2008 Olympic Games, the successful hosting of Expo 2010 has become a good wish of the Chinese people. At a time when overseas Chinese and Chinese from all over the world are eager and expected to make efforts for the Expo, some western medias have misrepresented the Expo with prejudice, thus undermine the image of the Chinese government. From the two nouns of “crowded” and “rocky”, It is not difficult to see the biased reports of China hosting the World Expo by the western mainstream media.

Therefore, when we read the news reports of western media, we should learn to analyze the skills and means of vocabulary use and choice in news English, so that we can recognize the values of the western media and its propaganda purpose behind it.

IV. Conclusion

After more than 30 years of development, CDA has achieved fruitful results and contributed greatly to language research. It clearly explains the dialectical relationship between language and society, and deepens people's understanding of the interactive relationship among language, power and ideology. At the same time, CDA has been controversial because of its existing problems. In the face of questioning and criticism, linguists continue to explore new theories and methods to promote the development of critical discourse analysis in an in-depth direction.

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Research on the Optimization of Oral English Teaching in Junior High School in the Environment of Man-machine Dialogue*

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***Abstract*—Dumb English is a serious phenomenon among most teenagers in China. When the assessment system of man-machine dialogue is added to the entrance examination, English listening and speaking ability becomes indispensable to students. How to arouse teenagers' interest in spoken English and effectively improve their listening and speaking ability is very critical. The main learning environment for students is the classroom, hence classroom teaching plays a key role in enriching students' ability of listening and speaking. In view of the problems existing in junior high school classroom and students' listening and speaking ability, the relevant optimization strategies are presented.**

***Index Terms*—man-machine dialogue, oral practice, listening and speaking ability**

I. Introduction

In the course of deepening the reform of teaching curriculum in our country, in order to effectively improve the speaking and listening ability of junior high school students and promote the quality of English teaching, many regions of the country have begun to incorporate the mode of man-machine dialogue into the entrance examination of English, for instance, the class of 2015 at junior high school in Jiaxing District of Zhejiang Province have taken the lead in carrying out man-machine dialogue mode in English of the entrance examination. The emergence of the new evaluation system of "man-machine dialogue" has broken the previous teaching approaches. It requires teachers to pay attention not only to the training of written examination, but also to the training of students' oral expression and listening ability. Experts and scholars have done a lot of research on English listening and speaking. However, in recent years, with the development of network information technology, man-machine dialogue as a new form of examination to test students' listening and speaking ability has improved the status of oral English in the examination, breaking the tendency of teachers' traditional teaching focus. At present, there are few studies on English classroom teaching under the "man-machine dialogue" environment. We know that language acquisition is closely related to the environment, and a good language environment can promote students' language learning. Classroom is an important place for students to learn language. To explore how to optimize junior high school English classroom through scientific methods in order to better adapt to the new evaluation environment of "man-machine dialogue". To make effective suggestions for teachers to innovate their own classroom teaching and create a favorable language interaction environment, so that teachers can improve students' listening and speaking skills in the teaching process and thus improve the quality of English teaching.

II. Oral English Teaching and Relative Theories

A. Oral English Teaching

English is a compulsory course in basic education, while Oral English is an important basic skill of English. The basic goal of oral English teaching is to cultivate students' oral communicative competence. Scholars home and abroad have also made in-depth studies on it. Chen Ning (2009), a Chinese scholar, pointed out that oral English teaching is different from the general knowledge imparting process. Its teaching mode needs to embody more about the practicability, knowledge and interest of English teaching, which is conducive to arousing the enthusiasm of both teachers and students, especially the students' principal position in the teaching process and the teachers' leading role in the teaching process. Situational teaching also plays an important role in oral English teaching (Jin, 2017).

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B. Man-machine Dialogue

Man-machine dialogue is a kind of test form which implements and manages examination by means of computer and network technology. According to the requirements of examination design, it can make proposals and compose papers pertinently, and complete a series of links such as question presentation, answer acceptance, scoring, data analysis and result interpretation.

Presently, the type of questions in man-machine dialogue in the senior high school entrance examination contains listening to short dialogues and choosing answers in the first section, listening to long dialogues and choosing answers in the second section, reading text in the third section, listening to dialogues or monologues and answering questions in the fourth section, and expressing topics in the fifth section.

C. The Relation between Man-machine Dialogue and Oral English Teaching

Man-machine dialogue is closely related to the oral English teaching. Man-machine dialogue is a good way to test oral English teaching. Man-machine dialogue combines listening and speaking tests into one (Yu, 2018). With the development of automation of oral English test, man-machine dialogue has made the traditional oral English test out of the stage (Mei, 2012). How to make students adapt to this new oral English test mode is very important.

III. RESEARCH ON ORAL ENGLISH TEACHING UNDER THE MAN-MACHINE DIALOGUE

A. Participants

We randomly selected 200 students from Grade 7 to Grade 9 in Zhoushan and Jiaxing, Zhejiang Province to finish the questionnaire. The average age of the students is about 15 years old. They come from different schools and classes. This makes the data universal. The interviewees are junior high school English teachers. They are experienced teachers who have been teaching for many years.

B. Research Methods

1. Questionnaire

Through questionnaires, junior high school students are asked to self-evaluate their oral proficiency, so as to understand a basic situation of junior high school students' oral proficiency. In addition, a questionnaire was conducted to investigate their needs for spoken English, what kind of English classes they think of, and what level they want to achieve in spoken English.

Such a survey will enable us to have a deep understanding of the current students' oral proficiency, their aspirations and their acceptance of this new model from the perspective of students.

2. Class Observation

Through a two-week educational internship, we observed English classroom teaching in Zhoushan Nanhai Experimental Middle School and Zhoushan First Junior Middle School. It mainly observes teachers' classroom teaching methods, focusing on teachers' penetration of spoken English in the daily classroom. Observe some oral activities organized by teachers in class, and observe students' participation and enthusiasm.

Through this method, we can intuitively understand the real classroom language environment, and know the teaching methods and activities of teachers， so that we can have a basic understanding of oral English teaching and students' performance in the classroom.

3. Interview

Based on the questionnaire and the classroom observation, I interviewed the junior high school English teachers in Zhoushan where is going to take man-machine dialogue and the teachers in Jiaxing where has taken the man-machine dialogue test. Six teachers were interviewed. Mainly inquired about the teacher's views on the new evaluation model of man-machine dialogue, which was added to the entrance examination; the way the teacher's junior high school adopted to cope with it; whether man-machine dialogue had a great impact on teachers, whether there were great changes in the preparation of lessons and teaching methods; how teachers would promote students' listening and speaking ability; and the difficulties in oral English teaching and teachers' use of Chinese in the present teaching process.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION ON ORAL ENGLISH TEACHING UNDER THE MAN-MACHINE DIALOGUE RESEARCH

Based on the data obtained from the questionnaire, classroom observation and interview, we get the following results, and discuss and analyze the existing problems.

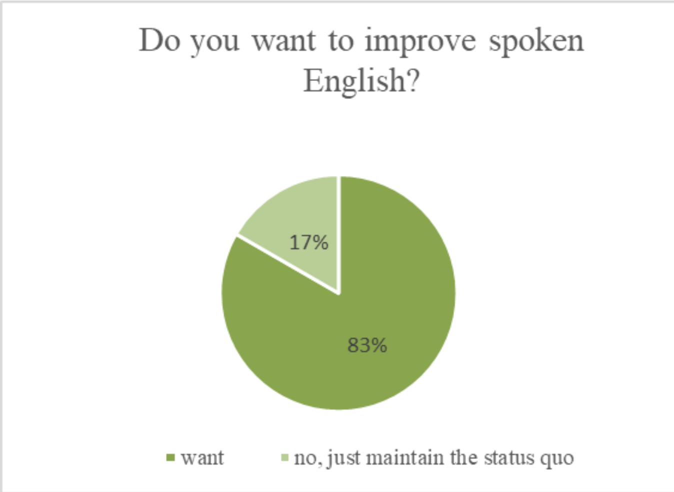
A. Result

1. Results for the Questionnaire

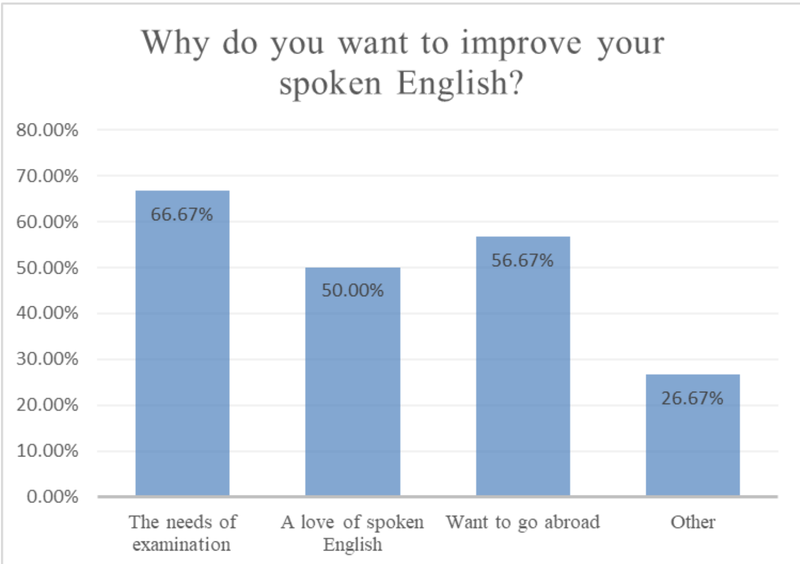
We have distributed 200 questionnaires to junior high school students from grade 7 to grade 9. Through the data, we have the following findings:

In the survey, we asked students to make self-evaluation of their oral proficiency. The result is that almost no students think that their oral English expression ability has reached an excellent level. Most students hold the view that their oral proficiency is within the range of passing to good, which does not exclude subjective factors. Therefore, we choose different students to communicate in English in order to further test their spoken English. Obviously, the results are not satisfactory. Most of the students' oral proficiency is exactly what they have evaluated.

After that, we make a further investigation on whether the students want to improve their spoken English, to what extent they want to improve their spoken English and the reasons. About 83.4% of the students surveyed want to improve their oral English, but the ones who don't want to improve theirs also take up certain proportion. This may be related to students' subjective thinking.

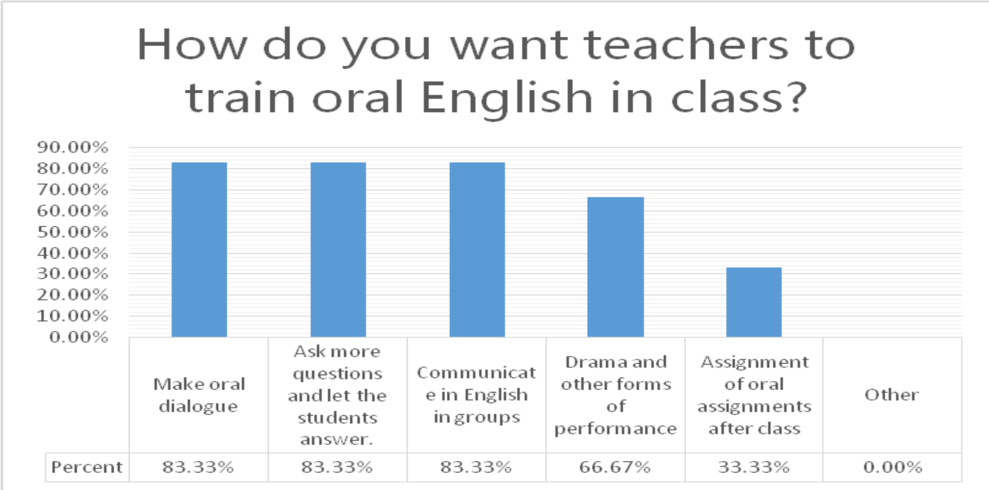


Among the students who want to improve their oral proficiency, we also conducted a questionnaire survey on the oral proficiency they want to achieve. A small number of students feel that they can have a simple dialogue, but the vast majority of students hope that they can speak English fluently. When asked why they wanted to improve their spoken English, we got multiple answers. Some people are for the needs of examinations; some people are for their own love of spoken English; some want to go abroad; and some want to make international friends and other reasons. However, 66.67% of the students need to improve their spoken English for their examination. It shows that most of the students improve their spoken English firstly because of the needs of the current examination.



Additionally, in our questionnaire survey, about 16% of the students can consciously carry out oral training in daily life, while 33.33% of the students said that they do not complete oral training in daily life. 50% of the students said that under the supervision of teachers, for example, teachers assign oral homework, then they will carry out oral drill. This shows that although the students have the awareness of improving spoken English, but lack of action.

In the questionnaire, when we ask about the teaching methods of teachers, we find that the current junior high school English classroom is a way of mixing Chinese and English, and the most acceptable way for students is like this. Students also said that they preferred a variety of ways of training spoken English in class. For example, practicing dialogue in group, role-playing, etc.



2. Results for Interview

On the basis of questionnaires, we also interviewed the relevant teachers. Most of the teachers said that man-machine dialogue is a more scientific way. It will also make teachers and students pay more attention to the cultivation of oral English ability. It will enable students to learn English comprehensively. It is both an opportunity and a greater challenge for students. Teachers said that they have added more oral activities in the classroom, so that students can exercise their oral English as much as possible. Teachers will use simple English vocabulary and sentences to ask questions and guide students to answer.

Some teachers said that in the man-machine dialogue test system, the first two parts are similar to the previous examination. They mainly test the students' listening ability. It's just a way of answering questions from the original paper to the computer. But from the third part, they mainly test the students' oral ability. From chapter reading to asking and answering, and topic expression, the examination is very comprehensive, basically covering the main form of spoken language and most teachers said that the form of the fifth question is equivalent to making an oral essay on the spot. Students with weak English ability basically can not open their mouths to finish the fifth question, and they do not know how to express it at all. Therefore, it is necessary to exercise students in the usual classroom. The listening, speaking, reading and writing of English are complementary to each other.

In short, in our survey, we found that some students have weak oral foundation, poor self-control and low motivation. We also found that teachers may neglect the cultivation of students' interest in oral English.

B. Results Analysis

According to the problems we found in the junior high school classroom and the students' learning of English, especially in oral English, we have made the following explorations:

1. Neglect of Oral English Ability

Teachers neglect the cultivation of oral competence in the process of teaching. In the English syllabus, the teaching objectives are clear, but there are some deviations in the actual implementation of teaching (Xu, 2017). Entrance examination can be said to be a vane of teaching. Since the oral proficiency test is not included in the entrance examination earlier, most students and teachers will ignore the training of oral proficiency, usually focusing on the training of written English test ability. And for a long time, when teachers teach in class, they often use their mother tongue for in-depth explanation. We know that language atmosphere is very significant for language learning, so it is bound to have a certain impact on students. Teachers’ ability to implement Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) affects the students’ communicative competence (Irawan, 2019). According to the questionnaires and interviews with a number of ordinary teachers and researchers, we know that in the current English classroom teaching in secondary schools, teachers mainly teach in English, supplemented by Chinese tips (but not in rural junior high schools). Among the students surveyed, 90% of them said they were mostly receptive to semi-Chinese and semi-English teaching methods. It shows that in the subconscious of students, they still rely on their mother tongue. There are some shortcomings in the students' English level which leads to the fact that they have not adapted themselves to the whole English environment.

In addition, due to the large number of students in a middle school class, teachers can not take into account each student, and further guide each student to pronounce accurately, which also leads to the overlook of students’ oral expression ability.

2. Neglect of Interest in Spoken English

Teachers neglect the cultivation of students' interest in oral English in teaching. Interest is the best teacher. But because of the need of entrance examination, most teachers tend to "exam-oriented education". In the process of teaching, teachers only pay attention to students' achievements and neglect students' interests. Under the examination-oriented education system, the teaching task is comparatively tough and the teaching plan is compact.

Teachers must grasp the tempo of the classroom well and they want to let students learn new lessons in the classroom and master the knowledge of learning well. This makes most teachers neglect some activities that can stimulate students' interest in teaching. Most teachers tend to go straight to the theme in the class and carry out the traditional teaching mode of "the explanation of words, grammar and text ". But interest plays an important role in language learning. We know that language learning is not accomplished overnight, and it is a gradual process. Teaching is also flexible, but not copying materials. Teaching should be adapted according to the circumstance. In the course of our visit, we found a common phenomenon that when teachers ask questions, few or no one answers them. On the one hand, students are shy and dare not answer. On the one hand, students are not interested in teachers' problems, leading that students do not want to think deeply. This leads to the consequence that students speak less or even no English in class.

In secondary school, students' interest in English learning will be weakened due to the increasing difficulty of vocabulary and grammar, hence teachers should start from students' interests and care about students.

3. Students' Poor Oral English Ability

Students have poor oral English ability. Our survey found that most students' oral ability is weak. In this regard, we conducted a further investigation and found that the main reason for the students' weak oral expression ability is the long-term silence. As a foreign language, the acceptance of English varies from person to person, but language proficiency and fluency are inseparable from practice. Therefore, if you want to speak English fluently, you must practice constantly. For a long time, the examination-oriented education has not involved oral English, which causes most students to emphasize written practice and neglect oral expression. If things go on like this, students are relatively unfamiliar with "speaking English", do not know how to open their mouth, and some students are afraid that their poor English will be laughed at by their peers, so they dare not speak. We know that middle school students have a strong sense of self-esteem. Being laughed at by their peers will frustrate their self-confidence, thus they dare not speak it out. Students have psychological barriers when expressing (Chen, 2019).

Although opening the mouth to speak English is very important, correctness is also very essential. We know that in the junior high school class, the large number of students limit their performance in oral practice. In this case, teachers mostly do some oral training by letting peer dialogue or other forms. But this kind of training is not sufficient, students mainly practice spoken English after class. The majority of students train oral English by themselves, or dialogue with their classmates to practise. These methods have some validity, but it cannot achieve accuracy. Because the level of junior high school students is comparatively limited, it is difficult to find out their problems in time. For example, some students can’t realize the problems of pronunciation and intonation.

4. Students' Poor Self-discipline

Students have poor self-discipline and enthusiasm under the awareness of improving spoken English. Although the students' oral expression ability is not strong, they still want to improve their oral English ability. In our survey, it is also found that students want to improve their spoken English first because of the need of examinations. Most of the students still pay more attention to the test scores. And they have the idea that learning is for the test. Before, there was no real oral proficiency test, so students did not realize the importance of oral English at the beginning, but after man-machine dialogue was added to the entrance examination, it was related to students' entrance to school. Students enhance their awareness of oral English.

In addition, we also know that students' self-control ability is not very strong, especially junior high school students, they are in a critical period of physical and mental development, and most middle school students will have rebellious behavior at this stage, so in this period, most junior high school students' self-control ability is not strong. In oral English training, they do not pay attention to the usual training. According to the survey, only about 25% of the students in a junior high school class completed the assignment of the teacher's oral English homework during the winter vacation. This shows that although the students want to improve the awareness of spoken English, but lack of action. Moreover, during the junior high school classroom listening, we also found that the students did not show very positive response to the teacher's questioning.

To sum up, in today's society, since oral English has not been included in the scope of entrance examination in the earlier, most students and teachers will ignore the cultivation of oral English ability, usually focusing on the training of written English test ability. Meanwhile, most middle school students pay no heed to the regular training because of lack of capability and self-discipline ability. Over time, the phenomenon of "dumb English" among middle school students is becoming more and more serious. The emergence of the new evaluation system of "man-machine dialogue" undoubtedly places spoken language in a significant position, making the public aware of the importance of spoken language, so as to promote people to improve their listening and speaking ability.

C. Limitation and Suggestions on Oral English Teaching

1. Limitation of Current Oral English Teaching

From the analysis of the results, we can find that there are big problems in junior high school students' speaking. On the one hand, students' speaking ability is weak, they dare not speak, and they are afraid to speak. Students have poor self-control, lack of action ability and low enthusiasm. On the other hand, there are some shortcomings in oral English teaching in classroom. For example, due to the long-term examination-oriented education, teachers do not attach much importance to oral English and neglect the cultivation of students' interest and ability in oral English. This leads to the dilemma of oral English teaching at present. Dumb English is very serious in junior high school. Faced with the new evaluation method of man-machine dialogue, teachers and students are under great pressure.

2. Suggestions on Optimizing Classroom Oral English Teaching

Aiming at the problems found in the investigation and analysis of our results, we put forward the following methods to optimize oral English teaching in junior high school in terms of the problems existing in oral English teaching and students' needs for oral English:

1) Changing the traditional mode of thinking and using various teaching methods flexibly. On the one hand, from the viewpoint of most teachers and students, it is unavoidable to have the idea of paying attention to the training of written language while neglecting the training of oral expression. Because in the middle school entrance exams over the years, the scoring of English is only on the paper, and there is no link to test oral English ability. Now the evaluation model of "man-machine dialogue" is attached to the middle school entrance examination, which is certainly a reminder to everyone. Oral English is also very crucial for English learning. Therefore, teachers should pay much more attention to the training of oral English ability in classroom teaching. Not only the methods of training students are focused on, but also to innovate their own ideas and conform to the trend of the times. Students should also be aware of the importance of oral expression ability and take the initiative to seek opportunities to practice their listening and speaking ability.

On the other hand, teachers should learn to use various teaching methods flexibly. In the teaching, teachers can combine situational teaching method and task-based teaching method. Teachers can create certain situations in the classroom according to the teaching objectives of the current class, and tailor some activities for students, so that students can constantly practise their listening and speaking ability in the process of completing these activities, and stimulate their interest in learning and let them form good habits of learning. For example, in the course of “I'm more outgoing than my sister” in PEP eighth-grade, this lesson mainly talks about comparative grade and involves some new words, while the grade 8 students have accumulated some vocabulary. Teachers can create certain situations in the class. First, teachers can give examples, and then let students compare their height, age and character, so as to stimulate their interest in learning and let them express it in English. After that, let students make a brief self-report in English in groups.

2) Educating students in accordance with their aptitude and improve their listening and speaking abilities step by step. It is clear that the improvement of students’ abilities on listening and speaking can not be achieved easily, while it needs a long-time effort. It involves students' vocabulary and vocabulary proficiency, as well as their basic language knowledge, reading ability, pronunciation accomplishment and thinking ability (Wang, 2018). The pronunciation of English words has its regularity and can be followed. Therefore, teachers should let students learn how to pronounce correctly step by step. Therefore, in the Grade seven of junior middle school, we should focus on phonetic symbols, let students master the pronunciation rules of letters combination, involve natural spelling into the spelling rules, and integrate games, English songs into the pronunciation teaching so as to lay a good foundation for students. Stimulate their interest in learning, and make adequate preparations for their further study. Secondly, teachers should take every student into account in the classroom. Although there are many students in each class, teachers can ask some students to answer randomly so that each student has the opportunity to answer and show themselves. Teachers should adopt different teaching methods for different students (Chen, 2016).

3) Increasing the English language atmosphere in the classroom. We know that the influence of environment on a person is imperceptible, especially young students, who are immature physically and mentally, and have poor self-judgment. The environment will have a greater impact on them. In the middle school English classroom, teachers have their class in English, which will make students under the influence of English environment, thus enhancing their sense of English and the like. Make full use of all available teaching methods to create a cultural and linguistic environment (Zhao, 2009). After at least four years learning of English in primary school, junior high school students have theoretically reached the second level of language skills stipulated in the new curriculum standards. In listening and speaking ability, they can understand simple questions in classroom activities, make short narratives on daily topics, and make clear pronunciation in oral expression. Although students' vocabulary is limited, teachers can issue classroom instructions in English which is popular and easy to understand according to their actual situation. Most of the teachers we interviewed also indicated that the students of the grade 7 of junior high school may not be well adapted to such an English environment at first, but they can understand some simple and common questions. Teachers can also train students' thinking in English by asking questions in English without fixing their minds in mother tongue.

In the classroom, Chinese can be used as an auxiliary language to help students learn English better. Therefore, teachers should pay attention to their own expression, tend to English as much as possible, and create a good classroom atmosphere. In the new curriculum standard, English teachers are required to organize their teaching in English and to use as little or no mother tongue as possible.

4) Enriching the forms of classroom activities and improve students' enthusiasm and initiative in learning. The way teachers employ in class will affect students. So it is very primary for teachers to choose the appropriate one to apply. Teachers should know as a second language, students' acceptance of English is not as good as that of their mother tongue. The responsibility of English teachers is to instruct students how to learn English well. Teachers, in the teaching process, not only let students input knowledge, but also let students output the knowledge to apply to all aspects of life and learning. In listening and speaking ability, students should get a basic level. Therefore, teachers should optimize classroom activities and enhance students' learning enthusiasm. But most teachers say that the main place for students to

learn oral English is the classroom, but only by asking questions, 40 minutes in a class, and 40 students in a classroom. There is no enough time for each student to respond to the questions and practice. Therefore, other activities in class are also very critical for students' oral training. For example, teachers can use pair work, group discussion, role-playing, etc. to strengthen the dialogue practice between students, so as to promote the English communication between students and students, thereby improving the spoken English.

Situational teaching method can make students understand and quote some abstract and complex English knowledge more intuitively and vividly, and then can effectively improve their English（Jin, 2017）. In addition, teachers can also integrate situational teaching method into classroom teaching more. The content of English textbooks in junior high school is close to everyday life. Teachers can create certain situations in the classroom so that students can understand them better.

5) Enriching English extracurricular activities to make students enjoy learning. Teachers can arrange some extracurricular activities which can promote students' oral expression ability, so that students can enjoy learning and improve themselves in the activities. Because junior high school students are in a critical period of physical and mental development, they are pretty active. And they have more time to do extra-curricular activities. Teachers can organize and carry out some extracurricular activities related to English, such as English corner, English drama performance, speech and so forth. In the activities, teachers can let students choose the theme of each activity according to their interests, so that students can participate in activities fully.

6) Strengthening the connection between home and school to promote the improvement of students' listening and speaking ability. In addition to some private secondary schools, public secondary schools are generally not enrolled, so students spend much time at home. But the self-control of junior high school students is not so strong, so parents need to play their role. Teachers can advise parents to accompany their children in oral training. Even if parents don't know spoken English, they will also make their children possess a learning state. In addition, parents can also cultivate their children's English thinking ability. For example, when they go out to the supermarket, they can randomly test the English sayings of their children's items. The main reason is to see if their children are quick in thinking.

7) Strengthening training based on network technology. Now it is an information age, the application of network technology is very extensive, and the development of man-machine dialogue is also based on network information technology. Therefore, teachers can arrange more online training for students to adapt to this model. At present, most middle schools in Zhejiang Province have introduced human-computer interaction system to train students' spoken language. However, some teachers say that the training time in schools is limited. In the case of a large number of classes and fewer laboratories, there are few opportunities for each student to go to the laboratory for training, so they still need to rely on classroom or after-school homework. Schools can adopt an App for students to practice.

In order to avoid the situation mentioned above that students do not complete their homework. Teachers should consider the actual situation in which students complete their homework. They should give students appropriate oral homework, such as half an hour of oral homework every day. Teachers should not neglect teaching links of spot checks in class and on-the-spot guidance (Pei, 2014). While students use App to test after class, teachers should seriously check the completion of students and the quality of completion in time, and give students some feedback. It is convenient for students to correct later. This is conducive to students to develop a good habit of learning, and effectively promoting oral English and all aspects of learning.

Moreover, Apps on many mobile terminals can also train oral English. Students can practise oral English on Apps too. Software on mobile can give scores and correct them. This is an effective way to promote students' listening and speaking ability.

V. Conclusion

Above all, man-machine dialogue can be said to be an inevitable trend in the reform of the current secondary school entrance examination, as well as a symbol of the information age. As we know, listening, speaking, reading and writing are very important in language learning. In today's society, the phenomenon of "dumb English" among students in various schools is quite serious, which shows that students' ability of listening and speaking in English is relatively weak. This is caused by the long-term emphasis on written form and neglect listening and speaking ability. Listening and speaking ability is a skill that students must master. In the long run, it is beneficial to students' life-long learning, because it requires students to speak scientifically, fluently, accurately and authentically. It has a great impact on students and teachers. It requires students to practice and test simultaneously. The improvement of students' ability is rooted in the classroom, which is the first, and a series of extracurricular activities are the extension of the classroom. In any case, teachers play an important role in it. Both teachers and students should improve themselves to adapt to this era.

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Investigating the Differential Effects of Formative and Summative Assessment on EFL Learners' End-of-term Achievement

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***Abstract*—In this study, an attempt has been made to highlight the importance of summative assessment in conjunction with teacher-based (formative) assessment on the learning. 107 advanced EFL learners in 3 classes were selected and grouped based on the type of assessment they received. Participants in this study were given tests for two main reasons. First, a general test of proficiency was administered in order to place the learners in different proficiency levels. Second, in an attempt to compare learners' improvement based on different types of assessment within a 4-month learning period, an achievement test of the course was given two times, as pre and post-tests. The data obtained through learners' scores on achievement tests were analyzed and then compared using ANOVA, ANCOVA and t-test. In light of the results of this study, it can be argued that a combination of formative and summative assessments can lead to higher achievements of EFL learners than either formative or summative assessment separately.**

***Index Terms*—formative assessment, summative assessment, EFL learners, end-of-term achievement**

I. Introduction

Within the context of education, in general, three forms of evaluation play significant roles, the application of which would be different for different skills and in different contexts – for example, writing evaluation includes both scoring the task and commenting on it (Mahshanian et al., 2017). As Frunza (2013) points out, however, these forms of evaluation, namely an initial evaluation, a formative evaluation and a summative one are used for a particular purpose along the process of education. The initial evaluation is carried out at the beginning, the formative one parallel to the process of teaching and learning, and the summative one after the process has been completed, to confirm the achievement of the learners. Frunza (2013), based on Dick and Carey (1996) defines formative evaluation as "the process used by designers in order to obtain information that can be utilized to revise the instruction, to make it more efficient and more productive" (p.453). Also, Assessment Reform Group (2002), sees formative assessment as assessment *for* learning which should be part of effective planning of teaching and learning. It also puts forward the notion of assessment *of* learning (summative assessment) which "is carried out at the end of a unit or year or key stage or when a pupil is leaving the school to make judgments about pupils' performance in relation to national standards" (Leung & Mohan, 2004, p.337)

Since 1998, when the seminal study of Black and William argued that formative assessment would make a strong contribution to learning, a plethora of studies have been conducted on the effect of formative and summative assessment on learning (e.g., Gattullo, 2000; Leung & Mohan 2004; Harris, 2007; Covic & Jones, 2008; Davison & Leung, 2009). Most of these studies agree that formative assessment or assessment *for* learning works *for* educational improvement and plays a facilitator role, as it provides important information concerning its development (Frunza, 2013). Also, Schloss et al. (1990) conducted a study to compare the impact of three forms of evaluation on the mastery of course content and suggested that formative evaluation facilitates student mastery of concepts in college. Wholey (1996), in a study in line with Schloss et al. (1990), argued that formative evaluation is more useful than summative for governmental purposes. In a review, Black and William (1998), brought eight examples as evidence to support the usefulness of formative assessment and its predominance over summative assessment. In this review, very little attention, if any, was given to the concept of adult learning and assessment in the sense that the participants who took part in all the studies were children. Also, reported examples by Black and William (1998) provided no evidence of the effectiveness of formative assessment in EFL context, but rather evidence of its contribution to a context of mastery learning in mathematics and contents other than foreign language learning in which assessment was based on content learning in learners' first language.

In the past few decades, Gattullo (2000), Leung and Mohan (2004), and Frunza (2013), among others, worked on the effectiveness of formative assessment in ESL context. Despite its related ESL context, Gattullo's (2000) study was basically on the assessment of children. Leung and Mohan's (2004) study, which was both on adults and children in an ESL context, doubted the idea that concepts of summative assessment would be of import or, in effect, of interest in the pedagogic and evaluative work being done. In this respect, in Frunza 's study (2013), also, in favor of formative assessment, such a great deal of attention has been paid to advantages of assessment *for* learning that one can figure out that the paper was an attempt to advocate what has already been discussed in literature *for* formative assessment. Proponents of formative assessment speak of this type of assessment as "*good*" or else they name it assessment "*for"* learning in such a manner that one could question if summative assessment is "*bad*" or "*against"* learning (Taras 2005), the notion which is under question in the present study.

More recently, Harris (2007), Taras (2008), Ghiatău et al. (2011), Havnes et al. (2012) added to the literature to support the importance and predominance of formative over summative assessment. In Ghiatău et al.'s (2011) study, as in Harris (2007), Taras (2008) and Hanves et.al. (2012), results are based on the data collected through a questionnaire filled by pupils in which learners' attitude toward the type of assessment was investigated. Data in this study was not based on quantitative data collected from the results of performance of the learners on achievement tests. It is worth mentioning that learners' attitude toward a strategy does not account for its usefulness and practicality. Many times, learners' attitudes toward learning are not reliable for pedagogical contexts but rather are for the sake of learners' ease. In broad terms, reflection of learners' attitude with respect to the predominance one type of assessment over another could not account for its usefulness in EFL context (Brookhart, 2001).

In another recent study, Tridane et al. (2015) highlights the effect of formative assessment on the learning and the unreliability of the mark for the summative assessment. Results of this study were according to the data which was collected rather qualitatively based on the questionnaire filled by the learners. This could adversely affect the reliability of a qualitative study. The other issue which causes the present study to be in sharp contrast with that of Tridane et al. (2015) is that their study was the case of content learning where the use of mother tongue was at work, not learning a second or foreign language. This is, further, evident in another recent study by Box et.al (2015) whose results offered differences among teachers' personal assessment and several different factors that constrained or facilitated the use of formative assessment in their instruction.

To sum up, among researchers, very few, have worked on the importance of summative assessment or the interaction of the two main types of assessment for language learning. The general thrust of much recent discussion on assessment has not been detached enough, so that one can argue that researchers in recent years, in favor of formative assessment, have paid much less attention to the significant role of summative assessment in language learning. The present study adds to the literature the importance and usefulness of formative assessment when being used as a complement to a standardized summative assessment. It, as opposed to many studies (Gattullo, 2000; Leung & Mohan, 2004; Covic & Jones, 2008; Frunza, 2013; Tridane et al, 2015; and Box et.al, 2015, to name but a few), makes an attempt to stress the practicality of summative assessment, highlighting that using formative assessment as the *only* way to evaluate learners' achievement cannot easily be put into practice in an EFL context as much as it can in others.

II. Method

The current study was an attempt to compare summative and formative assessment and investigate the effects of each one on advanced learners' performance in end- of- term achievement tests. In technical terms, the following research questions were intended to be addressed:

1. Does the use of formative assessment as the only evaluation method contribute to the improvement of learners' end- of- term achievement?
2. Does the use of summative assessment as the only evaluation method contribute to the improvement of learners' end- of- term achievement?
3. Does the interaction of both formative and summative assessments contribute to the improvement of learners' end-of- term achievement?

It should, also, be noted that "end-of-term achievement" is operationally defined as the learners' performance in an achievement test containing listening, reading, grammar and vocabulary items of the course book, which has been administered after a four-month period of instruction.

A. Design

Due to Iranian institutes enrollment policies allowing only for intact classes, the study enjoyed a quasi-experimental pre-test, post-test design.

B. Participants

In the process of carrying out the study, 133 advanced Iranian EFL learners of 3 intact groups in an English language institute participated in the program. One of the mentioned groups was taken as the control group as well. It should be mentioned that the participants were not aware of the research objectives. Also, 8 experienced EFL instructors of both genders (i.e., 4 male and 4 female) participated in the study. Instructors held two classes each during the course.

TABLE I.
EVALUATION METHODS IN 12 CLASSES

Classes	Groups	Number of Learners
1	Summative group	27
2	Formative group	26
3	Interaction group	27
4	Control group	27

C. Instruments

1. Instructional materials

Passages Series 1 and 2 (Richards 2013, third edition) were the text books used in this study. In every unit of these books there are 7 sections including those of grammar, vocabulary, speaking, listening, writing and reading, respectively. Each of the 12 units of the Passages Series has a central topic and has two lessons (A and B) each of which contains some sections which are parallel to the purpose of the whole unit. In lesson A, there is a section under the title of ‘Starting Point’ in which the new grammar in a variety of real world settings is presented. Following this, vocabulary and speaking sections are presented. Next, there is a section on grammar which is explored in context and builds on previously met structures and is followed by a ‘speaking’ section. The other sections are ‘listening’, ‘writing’ and ‘reading’ in turn.

2. Testing material

The tests and quizzes of the series itself which were designed based on the topics presented in the course-books, were used for measuring purposes in this study. Also, a placement test of homogeneity (developed by Lesley, Hansen, and Zukowski, 2008, for Passages Series) was employed. This test contained sections on listening, reading, vocabulary and grammar and was administered twice during the study (as the pretest and post-test). Midterm exams of Passages Series were also used after each six units. The number of items for listening, vocabulary, grammar, and reading were in turn 8, 10,16, and 11 respectively. In addition, 12 quizzes (developed by Lesley, Hansen, and Zukowski, 2008, for Passages Series) were administered after each two units including 5 items in listening, 8 in vocabulary, 10 in grammar, and 5 in reading. The reliability of the tests and the quizzes was calculated using KR-21 formula and were estimated at over 65% was for all of the 12 quizzes, and over 70% for different sections of the test.

D. Procedure

Before beginning the course, the participants took the placement test of Passages Series (Lesley et al., 2008). Based on the results, high scorers in the first administration were excluded from the study. This test was administered at the end of the course to compare the performance of the learners before and after the treatment. Also, to make sure that the instructors were fully aware of the objectives of the course a few briefing sessions were held to familiarize them with assessment methods in this study. The rubrics employed for informing the instructors were developed according to the guidelines taken from Assessment Reform Group (2002). The instructors being prepared for the treatment sessions, were required to instruct three groups of learners (namely, summative group, formative group, and interaction group) according to the rubrics developed by the researchers.

E. Formative Group

Based on the rubrics by Assessment Reform Group (2002), in formative classes, instructors helped learners take part in assessing their learning (i.e., self/peer-assessment). Also, the instructor’s descriptive and comprehensive feedback and elicitation of information about learners’ learning were important in formative group. There was no test at the end of the term (except for the post-test which they were unaware of) and there were no written or verbal reports for a third party. Also, instructors were asked to be flexible to learners’ errors and to provide learners with feedback (e.g. explicit correction, recast, clarification request, metalinguistic clues, elicitation, repletion, etc.).

F. Summative Group

In the summative group, based on the rubrics developed by Assessment Reform Group (2002), the instructors were requested to assess learners by giving mid-term and final tests for Passages Series (developed by Lesley, Hansen, and Zukowski, 2008). The instructors were also asked not to give any elaborative feedback, and their feedback was confined to yes/no and true/ false. They had to present the director of the institution with results as scores/grades in report cards.

G. Interaction Group

The same mid-term and final tests in the summative group were administered in the interaction group coupled with quizzes and all the rubrics practiced in formative group.

H. Control Group

The instructor of the control group taught the learners without using any preplanned kind of assessment, nor did they take any kind of briefing and/or training sessions. They were simply following the procedure of the course which was imposed by the institution and were requested to report their performance to the researchers for every session of the class.

III. Results

A. Summative Group (SG)

1. Pretest

An important issue in comparing learners' scores in control group and the summative one is to make sure that learners in both groups perform the same on the pretest. Given that the three evaluation methods in this study were applied to EFL learners by different instructors, a simple way to deal with the issue of same performance on the pretest is to examine the variance between the mean of scores in control group (CG) and the summative group (SG). In so doing, an independent sample t-test was run to investigate the extent to which learners' scores in CG, and SG vary. Table 1, below, presents the descriptive statistics for the summative group.

Table I.
Summative Group Pre-test Statistics

	Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pre-test.SG	Case	27	30.0741	2.11089	.40624
	Control	27	30.0741	2.03670	.39196

In table 2 below, results based on independent sample test is depicted to show the equivalence of the pretest scores taken by learners in two groups, namely summative and, control groups. As table 2 clearly shows, the significance is estimated at +1.000 which implies that the difference between the two groups is not significant. In other words, learners in the summative group, and the control group performed almost the same on the pretest. It should be borne in mind that before comparing the groups, a Leven's test was run to check to the equality of variances.

Table II
Independent Samples Test (Pretest SG)

		t-test for Equality of Means		
		Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Pre-test.SG	Equal variances assumed	1.000	.00000	.56451
	Equal variances not assumed	1.000	.00000	.56451

2. Post Test

The mean and *SD* were computed for the three groups, namely the summative group, formative group, and the control group. In table 3, the mean and *SD* for summative group are compared to those of the control group. As is shown in table 3, the number of learners in two groups were the same (N=27), the mean of scores, however, in the summative group (M=40.66) is higher than that of the control group (M=37.07). This mean difference implies that learners in summative group outperformed the control group.

Table III.
SG Post-test Descriptive Statistics

Group	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Case	40.6667	8.10982	27
Control	37.0741	2.97329	27
Total	38.8704	6.31574	54

In an attempt to control for other variables, and to make sure that the results of the post-test were based on the treatment, the treatment lasted almost four months. This would imply that in all groups, the treatments were considered a normal procedure of the class. As a result, one could argue that by the time the post test was administered, learners probably forgot the results of the pretest, and we can ascertain that the results of the post test is not based on other variables, but on evaluation methods. Thus, an ANCOVA was used to show the effectiveness of the treatment in SG, and the results are shown in table 4 below.

Table IV.
Tests of Between-Subjects Effects Posttest SG

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	201.800[a]	2	100.900	2.691	.077
Intercept	197.389	1	197.389	5.264	.026
Pretest SG	27.559	1	27.559	.735	.395
Group	174.241	1	174.241	4.647	.036
Error	1912.292	51	37.496		
Total	83703.000	54			
Corrected Total	2114.093	53			

As can be seen in table 4 above, the significance in the pretest was estimated at (0.395) which suggests that the administration of the pretest had no significant effect on the result of the posttest and that it worked independently from posttest. In other words, the result of the post test was based on the treatment in SG (i.e., summative assessment).

Additionally, the significance of the relationship between SG, and CG, was estimated at .036. This indicates that there is a significant relationship between SG and CG in that learners in SG, as a result of summative assessment outperformed the learners in CG. To depict the outperformance of the SG, figure 1 is presented as follows.

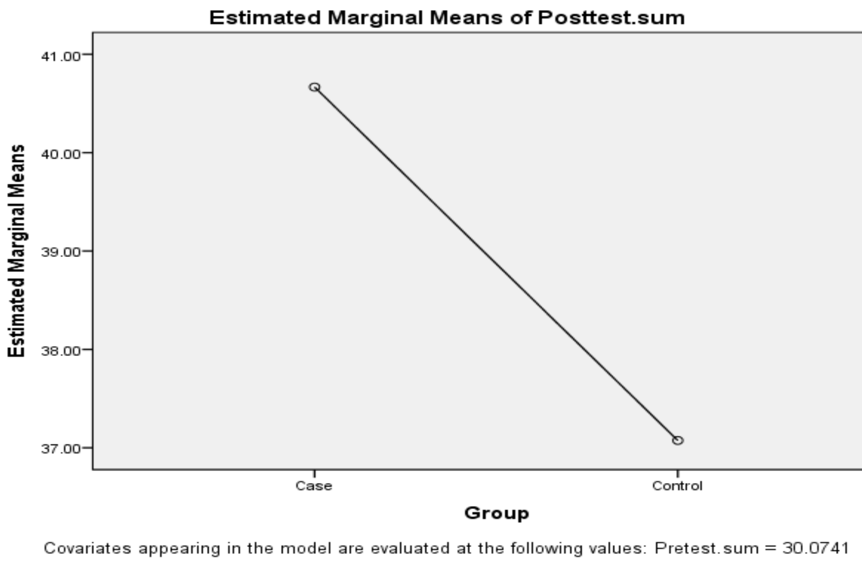

Fig. 1. Mean Difference in Formative and Control Group

B. *Formative Group (FG)*

1. Pretest

As for SG, to investigate the degree of sameness regarding learners' performance on the pretest, the variance between the mean of scores in CG and FG was examined. Results of the independent sample t-test was to investigate the extent to which learners' scores in CG and FG vary. Table 5 below, briefly, indicates descriptive statistics for the FG.

TABLE V.
FG PRE-TEST STATISTICS

	Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pre-test FG	Case	27	30.7407	2.24624	.43229
	Control	27	30.0741	2.03670	.39196

In table 6 below, as in table 2 above, results based on independent sample test is shown to indicate the degree of sameness in pretest scores in FG, and CG. As can be seen, the significance of the relationship is estimated at 0.258, suggesting that the difference between the two groups is not significant, and that learners in FG, and CG performed almost the same on the pretest.

TABLE VI
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST (PRETEST FG)

		t-test for Equality of Means		
		Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Pretest FG	Equal variances assumed	.258	.66667	.58353
	Equal variances not assumed	.259	.66667	.58353

2. Post Test

As mentioned earlier, the mean and *SD* were computed for all groups. In table 7, the mean and *SD* for FG are compared to those of the CG. As is depicted, the number of learners in two groups were the same (N=27). The mean of scores, however, in FG (M=46.66) is higher than that of the CG (M=37.07) which implies that learners in FG outperformed the control group. This was also the case for SG, as discussed earlier. Later in this article, results based on the t-test in four groups are compared and discussed.

TABLE VII.
SG POST-TEST DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

Group	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Case	46.4444	15.21217	27
Control	37.0741	2.97329	27
Total	41.7593	11.84162	54

As for SG, an ANCOVA was used to show the effectiveness of the treatment in FG (see table 8).

TABLE VIII.
TESTS OF BETWEEN-SUBJECTS EFFECTS POSTTEST FG

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	1627.128[a]	2	813.564	7.148	.002
Intercept	.046	1	.046	.000	.984
Pretest. form	441.776	1	441.776	3.881	.054
Group	943.462	1	943.462	8.289	.006
Error	5804.742	51	113.818		
Total	101599.000	54			
Corrected Total	7431.870	53			

In table 8, P value in the pretest was estimated at (0.054) indicating that the administration of the pretest had no significant effect on the result of the post test, and that it worked independently from the post test. To put it differently, the result of the post test was based on the treatment in FG (i.e., summative assessment). It is worth adding that, the significance of the relationship between FG and CG was estimated at (0.006). This suggests that there is a significant relationship between SG and CG and that learners in FG outperformed those in CG. To highlight the outperformance of FG over CG, figure 2 is presented as follows. Later, the outperformance of learners in SG, and FG, will be compared to that of IG.

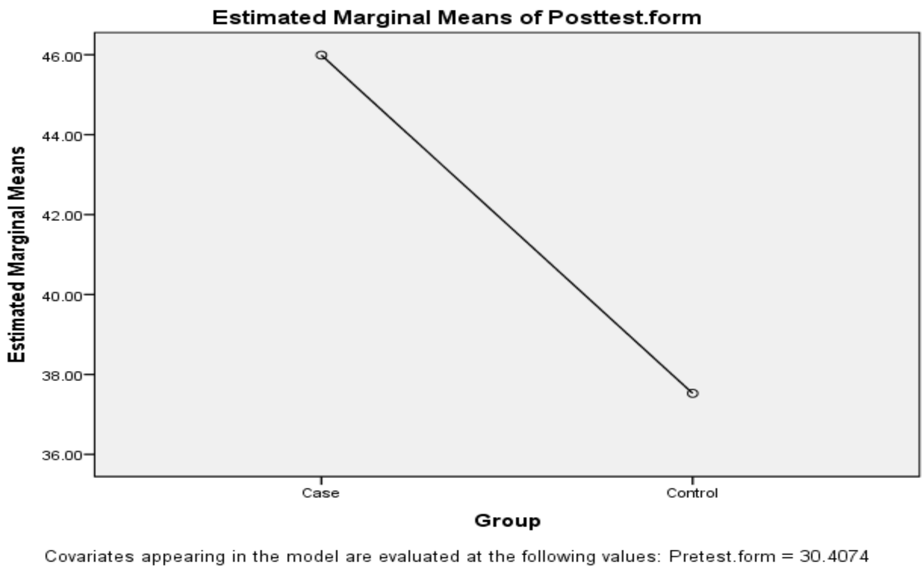

Fig. 2. Mean Difference in Summative and Control Group

C. Interaction Group (IG)

1. Pretest

As for the SG, and FG, the variance between the mean of scores in CG and IG was examined and taken into account. Results of the independent sample t-test were to show the degree to which learners' scores in the control and IG vary. Table 9 presents the IG descriptive statistics.

TABLE IX.
FG PRE-TEST STATISTICS

	Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pretest.int	Case	27	29.7407	1.81007	.34835
	Control	27	30.0741	2.03670	.39196

In table 10 below, as in table 2 and 6 above, results are shown to indicate that learners in IG performed almost the same on the pretest as those in CG. As is clear in the table, the significance of the relationship is estimated at 0.528, which implies that the difference between the two groups is insignificant, and that learners in FG and CG performed almost the same on the pretest.

TABLE X.
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST (PRETEST FG)

		t-test for Equality of Means			
		Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference Lower
Pretest IG	Equal variances assumed	.528	-.33333	.52439	-1.38559
	Equal variances not assumed	.528	-.33333	.52439	-1.38594

2. Post Test

The mean and *SD* were computed for IG, as were for all the other groups. Table 11 presents the mean and *SD* for IG and CG. As is depicted, the number of learners in two groups were the same. Table 11 below is a brief representation of IG descriptive statistics. What is of significance in table 9 is that the mean in IG, is a lot higher that of CG. The mean difference between SG, and CG, and between FG, and CG are 3 and 9, respectively. This is despite the fact that the mean difference between IG, and CG is estimated at 27. This is a clear evidence to show that although learners in both SG, and FG outperformed the learners in control group, learners in IG not only outperform the control group, but they also outperformed learners in SG, and FG.

TABLE XI.
IG POST-TEST STATISTICS

Group	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Case	64.1852	10.25084	27
Control	37.0741	2.97329	27
Total	50.6296	15.59184	54

As for the SG, and FG an ANCOVA was used to show the effectiveness of the treatment in IG in table 12 below.

TABLE XII.
TESTS OF BETWEEN-SUBJECTS EFFECTS POSTTEST FG

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	10014.190[a]	2	5007.095	88.964	.000
Intercept	224.351	1	224.351	3.986	.051
Pretest.int	91.524	1	91.524	1.626	.208
Group	9861.856	1	9861.856	175.221	.000
Error	2870.402	51	56.282		
Total	151306.000	54			
Corrected Total	12884.593	53			

In table 12, P in the pretest was estimated at (0.208), which is above (0.05), and suggests that the result of the post test was based on the treatment (interaction of both summative and formative assessment) in IG. In addition, the significance of the relationship between IG and CG (sig=000) suggests that there is a significant relationship between IG and CG. In other words, learners in IG outperformed the learners in CG, as well as the learners in SG, and FG. This is depicted in figure 3 below.

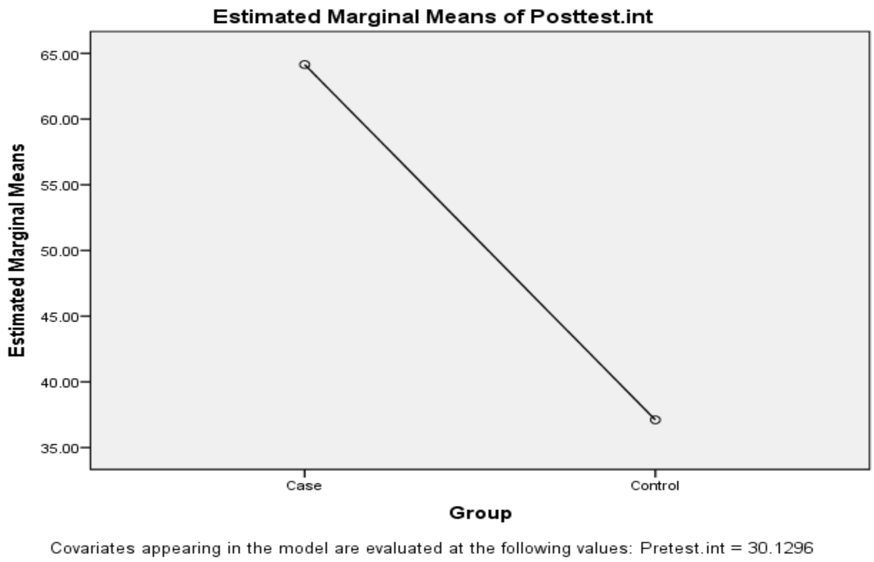

Fig. 3. Mean Difference in Interaction and Control Group

3. A Comparison of SG and FG

A comparison of final reported scores for SG and FG, through a Post-Hoc-LSD test, indicated that there was no significant difference between the scores, although, with the P-value level set at .05, the differences in the scores were only marginally insignificant (*M*= 40.6 and 46.4 respectively; SD = 8.1 and 15.2 respectively; *p* = .07, two-tailed). The relative closeness of the scores across the two groups suggested that both summative and formative assessment resulted in better scores in the post tests. In short, results indicated that although the mean of scores in FG was higher than that of SG, it cannot be argued that learners in FG outperformed those in SG. The results of the Post-Hoc-LSD test is presented in table 13 below.

TABLE XIII.
POST-HOC-LSD TEST; COMPARING SG, FG, AND IG

(I) Group	(J) Group	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Posttest FG	Posttest.SG	5.77778	3.15156	.071	-.4965	12.0521
	Posttest IG	-17.74074*	3.15156	.000	-24.0150	-11.4665
Posttest SG	Posttest FG	-5.77778	3.15156	.071	-12.0521	.4965
	Posttest IG	-23.51852*	3.15156	.000	-29.7928	-17.2442
Posttest IG	Posttest FG	17.74074*	3.15156	.000	11.4665	24.0150
	Posttest.SG	23.51852*	3.15156	.000	17.2442	29.7928

To provide additional information to describe the two sets of reported posttest scores in FG and SG, Figure 4 is presented below to show the relationship between the scores obtained by learners based on two assessment methods (i.e., formative and summative).

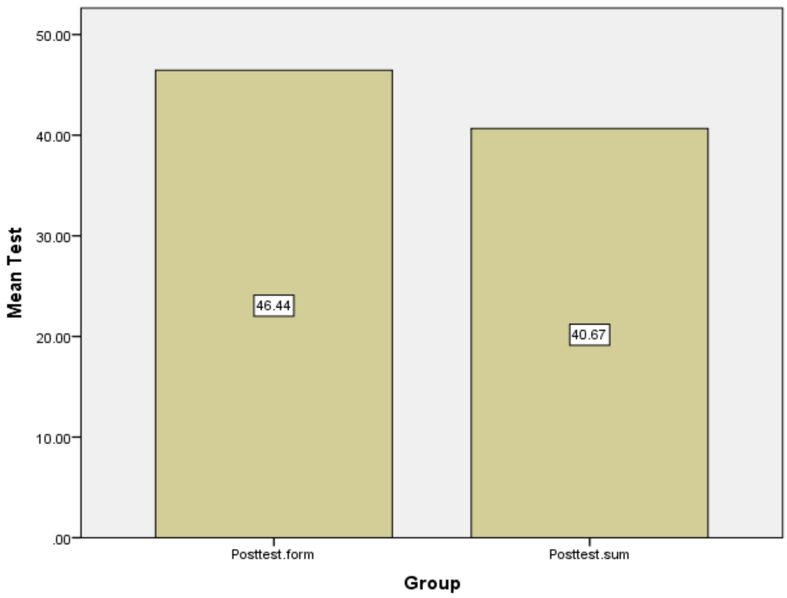

Figure 4. Comparing Mean of SG, and FG

4. Comparing SG, FG, and IG

As was earlier discussed, and based on results of Post-Hoc-LSD test, it can be argued that learners in all three groups (i.e., SG, FG, and IG) benefited from the assessment methods in that they outperformed the control group. In other words, all assessment methods were to an extent useful for the learners. This is despite the fact that there is a significant relationship between the mean of the groups which indicates that learners in IG outperformed those in SG, and FG. An ANOVA was used to show the significance of the relationship between the groups in table 14 below.

TABLE XIV.
ANOVA FOR COMPARING THE MEANS IN THREE GROUPS

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	8111.136	2	4055.568	30.246	.000
Within Groups	10458.741	78	134.086		
Total	18569.877	80			

As illustrated in the table, the p-value is estimated at (0.000) which suggests that there is a significant relationship between the mean of scores in the three groups. Comparing the p-value in this table and that of table 12 above (sig=0.7, and sig= 0.000, for the relationship between SG, and FG, and the relationship between IG, and the other two groups, respectively) some remarks can be made as follows;

1- All assessment methods were effective for learners

2- Summative assessment was as effective as formative evaluation method
3- The most effective method is an interaction of both summative and formative evaluation

To depict the effectiveness of assessment methods based on their means in posttests, figure 5, and 6 are presented below.

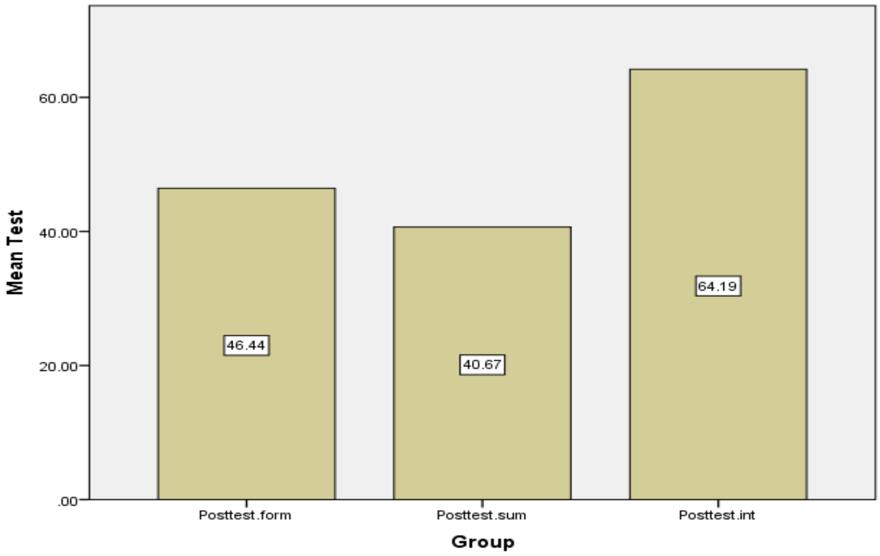

Figure 5. Mean Difference in Three Groups

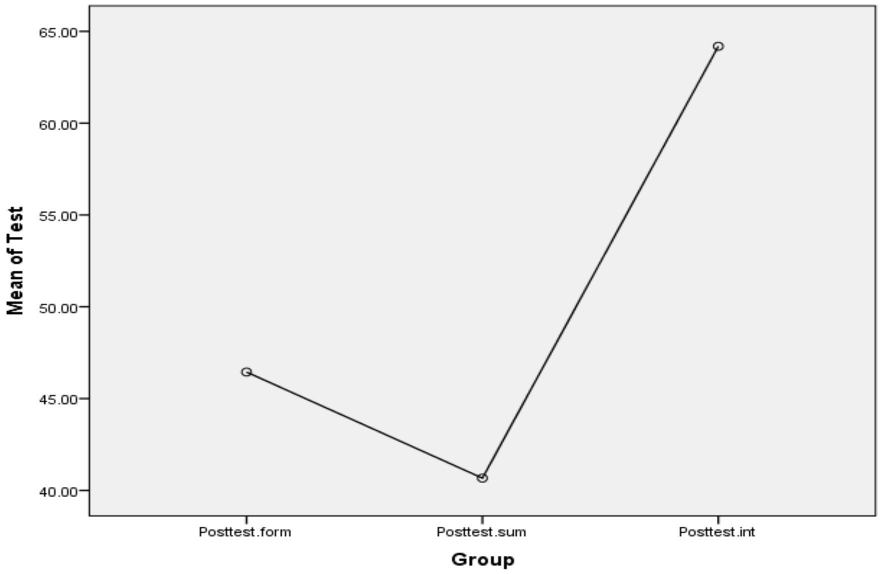

Figure 6. Mean Difference in Three Groups

It should be noted that, in the interest of space, other phases of data analysis (e.g., ANOVA, descriptive statistics for all groups, 2-by-2 comparison of groups, and their plots, independent samples tests, Levene's test for equality of variances, and a report on results scores in pre-tests and post- tests, in all groups) were also provided in the appendices.

IV. Discussion

The current study was carried out in order to find the effect of different assessment methods on learners' final achievement over a four-month period and also to fill in the gaps of the previous studies conducted regarding this area of language teaching. As was pointed out earlier in this study, there has been a plethora of research relating to the evaluation methods with the focus on the benefits and in favor of formative assessment. However, it would not be sufficient to evaluate the language teaching and learning process only by a small sample of the learners and in a small scope. Undoubtedly, many other factors would affect this process.

Hence, the results of the current study revealed that contrary to previous studies emphasizing the ineffectiveness of summative assessment and priority of formative assessment over the summative one (Gattullo, 2000; Leung & Mohan, 2004; Covic & Jones, 2008; Frunza, 2013; Tridane et al, 2015; and Box et.al, 2015), assessment per se has a positive effect on learners' final achievement. Another interesting fact was that summative assessment is as effective as formative assessment. In other words, when using each of these two methods as the only assessmnt method, they would have equal effects on learners' end-of-term achievement. This is in contrast with some of the previous studies in which the role of summative assessment have been underestimated (e.g., Gattullo, 2000; Leung & Mohan 2004; Harris, 2007; Covic & Jones, 2008; Davison & Leung, 2009; Frunza, 2013; Black and William, 1998; Harris, 2007; Taras, 2008; Ghiatău et al., 2011; Havnes et al., 2012). The third and the most crucial finding of the present study is that a combination of formative and summative assessments led to higher achievement than either formative or summative assessment separately. Thus, assessment is part of learning and it should be taken into account for each EFL course.

One of the strengths of the current study was that it adjudicated two assessments through using quantitative analysis of data unlike many other recent studies (e.g. Harris, 2007; Taras, 2008; Ghiatău et.al, 2011 and Havnes et.al, 2012) .Too, this study did not take any biased views towards each assessment method unlike some others pointing out large claims regarding the predominance of formative over the summative method of evaluation (e.g. Gattullo, 2000; Leung and Mohan, 2004; Harris, 2007; Covic & Jones, 2008; Davison & Leung, 2009). A third strength of the present study was that it enjoyed a vast number of participants (i.e., 107) and intact groups in advanced levels in an Iranian EFL setting in contrast to some of the previous studies (Gattullo, 2000; Leung & Mohan, 2004; and Frunza 2013) which worked on ESL contexts.

Confirming the ideas in the previous research studies (Gattullo, 2000; Leung & Mohan 2004; Harris, 2007; Covic & Jones, 2008; Davison & Leung, 2009; Frunza, 2013; Schloss et al., 1990; Wholey, 1996; Black and William, 1998; Harris, 2007; Taras, 2008; Ghiatău et al., 2011; Havnes et al., 2012; Brookhart, 2001; Tridane et al., 2015), the current research project highlighted the importance of assessment and its usefulness in learners' performance. Also, the comparisons between summative and formative groups revealed that the mere use of assessment in EFL contexts regardless of the method has a significant effect on learners' end-of-term performance.

Finally, the use of summative and formative assessments interactively, and its significant difference with either of these two methods divulged that not only is formative assessment necessary to be used in EFL contexts but also it should be used along with a standardized summative assessment. This combination of both methods can play a great role in the enhancement of learners' mastery over language learning process.

A. Limitation

Although great attempts have been made to remove the barriers of the study, there has remained some limitations. First, in the achievement test, a test of writing and speaking proficiency was not included. Thus, basing learners' end-of-term achievement on a final test, excluding a test of writing and speaking proficiency might introduce issues of invalidity to the results. Also, learners' improvement from pretests to posttests with respect to each skill was not taken into account. In other words, the effect of each assessment method was not studied on different skills (e.g., the effect of summative/formative assessment on listening comprehension, reading comprehension, etc.). Furthermore, due to the relatively large number of learners (107), sessions (1200), and hours (1800), transcription of the procedure of all classes was too far from practical. This is despite the fact that all classes were observed and reported on, during the process of data collection.

B. Suggestions for Further Research

There are still grounds for further research regarding the importance of assessment and also on the difference between summative and formative assessments across different contexts and different age groups. One might be interested in duplicating the present study in other educational settings such as ESL, ESP, EAP, to name but a few. Further, the same study might result in the same or different findings in the case of intermediate or elementary EFL learners rather than advanced learners. The effect of learner or teachers' gender in different evaluation methods on learners' end- of- term achievement can be investigated as well.

V. Conclusion

The major contribution of this quantitative research project was on the impacts of formative and summative assessments, and the interaction of both, on advanced Iranian EFL learners' performance on end-of-term achievement tests. As earlier discussed in the introduction, the present study did not have any biased views towards confirming or rejecting any evaluation criteria. The results of the data analysis revealed that focusing on a single assessment method and ignoring the effects of other methods cannot guarantee learners' success in ultimate achievement. Notably, the results of this study are in line with the previous studies regarding the effectiveness of assessment methods and by no means does this study invalidate existing studies. Thus, taking extremist views of using pure summative or formative assessment, cannot assure learners improvement in their achievement.

On balance, the overall picture seems to be that the interaction of both summative and formative assessments in EFL contexts is rather more sensible. In other words, concerning the quantitative data, learners in interaction groups outperformed those in formative and summative groups. This is to confirm the idea that there is a bond between formative and summative assessment and that the ignorance of each, does not get credits according to the results of the current study. That is to say, a combination of formative and summative assessments led to higher achievement than either formative or summative assessment separately. To recapitulate, despite the fact that formative assessment is highly advocated in the literature, the current study argues that formative assessment is more profitable and helpful once used as a complement to summative assessment employing a standardized achievement test.

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On Reform of College English Teaching Based on the FiF Smart Learning Platform*

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***Abstract*—The world's educational reforms evolve dramatically along with the rapid development of science and technology, and promoting education informatization has become the national strategy of many countries. To implement *the Action Plan for Education Informatization 2.0* issued by the Ministry of Education of the People's Republic of China and further integrate the information technology into classroom teaching to achieve innovations in teaching , Leshan Normal University has introduced the FiF (For Ideal Future) Smart Learning Platform , developed by iFLYTEK Co.,Ltd.. Giving a full play to the platform's functions, teachers are actively practicing the graded and classified College English teaching reform, as well as flipped classroom model and blending teaching model, thereby having improved the efficiency in teaching. The teaching empirical research has suggested that the FiF Smart Teaching Platform plays a positive role in improving students' oral English and comprehensive English ability.**

***Index Terms*—the FiF smart learning platform, College English teaching reform, graded and classified teaching, flipped classroom teaching, blending teaching**

I. Introduction

With the rapid development of technologies such as artificial intelligence, big data, block chain, great changes have taken place in the demand for talents and the form of education. All countries in the world are striving to promote education informatization, which refers to the comprehensive application of modern information technology based on computer multimedia and network communication in the process of education, aiming at the promotion of the overall reform of the education system and making it adapt to the new requirements of the coming information society for the development of education.(He Jianwu, 2002)In 2010 the United States Federal Ministry of Education promulgated *Transforming American Education: Learning Powered Technology, National Educational Technology Plan 2010* to guide the future development of national education informatization. The plan advocated the transforming in the fields of technology-enabled learning, evaluation, teaching, infrastructure, evaluation and so on，proposing a new learning model of technological empowerment.(Zhu zhiting, Guan yuqi, 2014)In 2005 the British government formulated a plan for *Taking Advantage* of *Information Technology to Promote Teaching Methods and Child Services* (Ma Ning, Zhou Pengqin, xie Minyi, 2016) and in 2008 the government introduced *Taking Advantage* of *Technology: Next Generation Learning Strategy (2008-2014)* with two stage plans (2009-2012, 2010-2013). (Ma Yuanli, Fei Long) In March 2016, the United Kingdom issued the *Department for Education. DfE Strategy 2015-2020: Word-class Education and Care*, (Ma Ning, Zhou Pengqin, xie Minyi, 2016) which established the education development strategy and plan for the next five years. Denmark unveiled the *Great Plan of Information Technology* in 2010 and Germany launched Digital Education Strategy 2030 in October 2016. (Liu Jialiang, Pan Tangxian, 2017)Australia launched a seven-year Digital Education Revolution (from 2008 to 2014). (Wang Jijun, 2015)In recent years, Korea has actively explored the practice of U-learning on the basis of E-learning through the Internet, creating an educational environment for students to learn at any time, anywhere by using any terminal.(Gao Dandan, Zhang Jiping, 2008)

The Chinese government also attaches great importance to the construction of education informatization. It has promulgated *the Planning Outline of National Medium and Long-term Education Reform and Development (2010-2020), (*Group Office Working on The Planning Outline of National Medium and Long-term Education Reform and Development. 20*10) the Ten-Year Plan for the Development of Education* informatization informatization (2011-2020), *(*Ministry of Education of the People's Republic of China, 2012*)* the 13th *Five-Year Plan of Education* informatization, *(*Ministry of Education of the People's Republic of China , *2016)* and as well as *t*he 13th Five-Year *Plan for the Development of National Education (*the State Council of the People's Republic of China, 2017*)* and some other programmatic documents. In particular, the formal proposal of *the Action Plan for Education Informatization 2.0* put out by the Ministry of Education of the People's Republic of China in April 2018, *(*Ministry of Education of the People's Republic of China,2018*)* marks that China's education informatization has entered the 2.0 era from the 1.0 era, calling for us to focus on the new demand for talent cultivation in the new era, strengthening the concept of ability-based talent training, taking education informatization as an endogenous variable of educational system reform to support and lead the development of education modernization, promoting the renewal of educational concept, the reform of educational models and the restructuring of educational systems, making our country's education

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informatization play a global leading role, contributing Chinese wisdom and program to the development of international education informatization. As a national strategy, education informatization is ushering in great opportunities for historical development.

II. Practice of Reform of College English Teaching Based on the FiF Smart Learning Platform

In order to keep pace with the change and cultivate innovative talents, Leshan Normal University has launched a new round reform of College English teaching models and methods since 2017, based on the FiF Smart Learning Platform.

A. Concept Definition

1. The **FiF** Smart Learning Platform and the FiF Oral Language Training System

The FiF Smart Learning Platform, integration of teaching, learning, testing and assessing, developed by the iFLYTEK (iFLYTEK CO.,LTD.), comprising many functional sub-modules including the FiF oral language training system, the FiF online course, the FiF testing system, the FiF intelligent marking for all subjects and the FiF foreign language learning resource library and so on, aims at integrating all the applications of educational ecology and creating the platform for intelligent learning. In our oral English teaching we are taking full advantage of the FiF oral language training system.

The FiF oral language training system, as an informationized oral language learning platform developed by FiFEDU.COM, based on the international leading intelligent speech technology of the iFLYTEK, covers training contents of professional and intelligent oral language assessment, adapting the multi-terminal oral language teaching and management system. In teaching feedback, teaching content, teaching results and mobile teaching, this system helps teachers to apply new information technology to effectively carry out oral English teaching activities and check students' learning progress, which breaks through the limitations of traditional oral English teaching. All in all, it can help students to practice their spoken English in different fields at any time and anywhere, get immediate intelligent evaluation feedback, improve their oral language ability effectively, and stimulate their internal learning motivation. Students and teachers can use it both through computers and mobile applications, which highlights the initiatives, mobility and ubiquitousness of modern learning patterns. What's more, the system also helps schools explore the construction of oral language course of college English under the new information technology and then establish a well-directed teaching model.

2. Graded and Classified Teaching

Graded teaching means that schools compile students according to their existing knowledge level, learning ability and learning objectives, grading them into different levels of classes, implementing different types of teaching so that students at all levels can get better development on the original basis.

Classified teaching refers to the establishment of different curriculum systems according to students' existing foundation, learning ability, interests and future career, so that students can choose the appropriate curriculum to receive education independently according to their own actual and personal development needs.

B. Theoretical Basis

As early as two thousand years ago, Confucius, a great educator in China, put forward the principle of teaching students in accordance with their aptitude. He advocated targeted education according to students' personality and specialty, paying attention to remedy the shortcomings, making the disciples develop their strengths and avoid their weaknesses, and ultimately cultivated 72 sages with their own merits.（Liu Ju, Zhang Yunyun , 2015）Under the background of modern education, teaching according to one's aptitude means that by sharing the common training goal, teachers should proceed from the students' reality, put forward different requirements according to the specific differences of characters, interests, abilities and original foundations of the teaching objects, and carry out different teaching practice purposefully so that each student can develop his strengths, avoid his weaknesses, and make progress on his own basis.

Constructivist Theory holds that learning is the process where learners actively construct the meaning of knowledge.（Zhu Cuiping, 2004）On the basis of existing knowledge and experience, learners recognize and code new information, and reconstruct their own understanding of knowledge. Specifically, in education, students should understand or absorb the knowledge explained by teachers, incorporate new knowledge into the learner's brain schema, so as to achieve knowledge recognition and understanding. If what the teacher teaches is too difficult or too simple, it will not be easy for learners to construct, nor easy to understand and master. Therefore, the teaching content must conform to the actual level of students, fully reflect their individuality, and consider the actual needs of students with different educational backgrounds. Constructivist Theory also holds that people are active learners. In the process of teaching, it emphasizes that students are the main body of learning. Teachers should attach importance to mobilizing students' own initiative, which is consistent with the "people-oriented" concept. Graded teaching is based on the theory of teaching students in accordance with their aptitude, which has been widely implemented in colleges and universities with many scholars involved in. For example, Wen Shengfang (2018) carried out the research of graded college English teaching under the guidance of the concept of "result-oriented" education; Wu Wanxiang (2013) and Liu Zhao (2011) proposed that colleges and universities should construct a dynamic graded teaching model; Lu Haibin (2009) advocated the exploration of graded college English audio-visual teaching reform under the multimedia teaching model; Guo Shuang (2011) attempted to explore graded College English teaching model under the network environment. Xie Qiao (2010), Yang Min and Pan Junfeng (2009) also published relevant research papers. However, throughout the reform of college English teaching, graded teaching pattern is common there while very few schools have implemented classified teaching pattern, and even fewer schools has carried out the practice of college English graded and classified teaching mode based on FiF Intelligent learning platform. So it is of great necessity to explore and study in this regard.

C. Practice of Reform of College English Teaching Models and Methods

In September 2017, based on the FiF oral language training system, Leshan Normal University began the practice of reform of college English teaching models and methods according to students' ability, interest and the difficulty of learning content.

1. Graded and Classified Teaching Model Reform

Due to the geographical location, profession settings, employment prospects and many other factors, students in our school are not particularly abundant, and their English level is uneven when entering the school. Especially for science majors, English proficiency varies greatly. Moreover, students have different hobbies and career plans in the future, and their needs for English learning are also different. If we teach based on common classes, the students with poor proficiency may fall behind while the good may not be satisfied. In order to better implement the principle of "teaching students according to their aptitude" and embody the teaching concepts of "people-oriented" and "student-centered", since September 2017 Leshan Normal University has been carrying out graded and classified college English teaching among the freshmen of five science colleges, namely, the College of Mathematics and Information Science, the College of Chemistry, the College of Physics and Electronic Engineering, the College of Computer Science and the College of Life Sciences.

After entering the school, students of these five colleges will be organized to take the entrance examination of college English, based on which students are divided into three graded classes numbered A, B and C. Class A contains students with good English proficiency, accounting for about 20% of the total, Class B contains students with average English proficiency, accounting for about 50% of the total, and Class C contains students with poor English proficiency, accounting for about 30% of the total. The course during the first school year is general English for the students of all levels. Since students with similar levels gather in one teaching class, teachers give lectures according to their ability so that they can understand their teachers very well. In addition, it is quite easy for the students to interact with each other and with their teachers. Classes always go smoothly, so do the interaction between the teacher and the students and the interaction among the students.

During the second year, classified teaching is implemented in the five colleges, and students with similar needs are concentrated in one teaching class. College English classes are divided into the following six types: ordinary classes (the continuation of the teaching mode in the first school year with the same level of students in principle), ready-for-exam classes oriented for CET-4 and CET-6, ready-for-postgraduate classes, ready-for-exam classes oriented for studying abroad, oral English classes and minority language classes (Japanese/French). In the second academic year, the students of the five colleges are required to choose independently the type of teaching classes according to their own interest, need of personal development and future career. In this way every student can get what they want in English class.

2. Blended Teaching Model Reform

Blended teaching model, which connects the advantages of online teaching and traditional teaching, is a kind of "online" plus "offline" teaching. Through the organic combination of the two teaching organizational forms, learners can make a deep understanding step by step. And teachers can give full play to the leading role, guiding, inspiring and monitoring students' learning activities; students as the main body of learning can also fully reflect their initiative, enthusiasm and creativity. (He Kekang, 2004) In oral English class, teachers use the first half of the class time to deal with the knowledge points in the textbooks, conduct demonstration exercises and comment while for the second half of the class, students use FiF oral training system to train themselves online. Teachers can give guidance, answer questions and do second demonstration exercises in class. After class, teachers arrange training tasks online. After completing the training task, students can get an immediate assessment report, evaluate and reflect on their learning process. Teachers can check the performance report of the task, understand the various learning data and the distribution of the results, and take this into the usual results. Well, the following is an example.

When talking about characters, the teacher will guide the students to have a simple MIND-MAP in class to conceive their own content, such as Who the singer is; How the singer became famous; What is special about his/her music and explain whether you like the singer or not. Then the teacher gives a short passage about Jay Chou on the FiF oral language training system for students to do follow-up exercises. In the next class, the teacher guides the students to learn some key words and expressions. For example, a singer-songwriter and an instant hit, namely the most popular work upon being released. Students are provided with some other related expressions, such as "signing contracts", "music critics", "music industry", "being famous overnight" and so on for vocabulary expanding. Then, let the students talk about a celebrity. Students are supposed to be very enthusiastic on this topic and can not wait to talk about their idols with active atmosphere. However, due to the limited class time, it is impossible for every student to give a presentation. Therefore, the teacher arranges for each student to input his task introduction into the FiF oral language training system after class. Having completed the training task, students can get an immediate assessment report, and evaluate and reflect on their learning process. Besides the teacher, other students can check the results report and grade each other. Through this kind of teaching model, the development of multi-channel, multi-form teacher-student, student-student and human-machine interaction will help to establish a complete and harmonious language ecology, and finally promote students' language ability.

3. Flipped Class Model Reform

Flipped class model means that students learn knowledge at home, and the classroom serves as a place for interaction between teachers and students or among students, including answering questions, solving puzzles, applying knowledge and so on, so as to achieve better educational effect. (Zhong Bingliu, Song Shuqiang, Jiao Lizheng, 2013) It emphasizes the main position of students' learning, requires students to focus on project-based learning and cooperation to complete tasks. Under this model, the information that teachers need to teach in traditional classroom can be obtained by students' initiative learning and cooperation with group members before class, which helps teachers have more time to communicate with students in class. Before oral English class, teachers set oral training tasks related to the content of the textbook on the FiF oral language training system, which involves articles about people's preferences, personal arrangements, such as "an influential person" and "an ideal job". Teachers will arrange topic-related articles and require students to learn online independently by applying the FiF oral language training system, so that students can familiarize themselves with topics, expand their thinking, and obtain more language resources. Teachers can get students' learning results systematically and prepare lessons based on them. In oral English class, students carry out oral communication through pair and group work based on what they have learned actively before class, while teachers just instruct key knowledge and answer questions in an interactive way. After class, teachers assign extended tasks on the platform . This kind of teaching model subverts the traditional teaching process pattern and structure, leading to the change of the roles of teachers and students, by which students can achieve individualized and initiative learning according to their own learning style and teachers can meet students' needs through classroom teaching and cooperation. (Luan Tao, 2016) When teaching Unit 3 of Volume 2 of the *New Horizon College English Viewing, Listening & Speaking (Version 3)*, Time Out, the author applied flipped class model through the FiF oral training system. The teaching approaches are as follows.

a. Before-class Stage

Firstly, the teacher searches the resources bank of FiF oral language training system for some exercises related to the content of this unit, such as Cycling (elementary), Bar Fun Time (elementary), and the Imitation part of Unit 3 Time Out. Then the teacher assigns these exercises for students to study by themselves. At the same time, aiming at the important and difficult points of students' self-study, the teacher should integrate the teaching materials reasonably and to design effectively the teaching content and interaction of this unit.

Students log on to the FiF oral language training system before class to check the assignments delivered by the teacher, complete their self-study, understand the daily communication and expressions of leisure activities and thus they can lay a good foundation for classroom learning. Meanwhile, they should record the difficulties and questionable points they may encounter in self-study.

After completing self-study, students can check their learning evaluation, discuss with other students and diverge their thinking. And the teacher can check the completion of assignments in the FiF oral language training system and find some typical problems.

b. While-class Stage

First of all, the teacher lists the problems and difficulties which students may encounter in self-study, such as how to invite others to participate in leisure activities, how to talk about their hobbies, and then organize students to discuss in groups. Through interaction and communication, students can learn from each other and expand their knowledge. During this process, the teacher should explore with students, answer their questions and dispel their doubts, and make sure that every student is taking an active part.

In class, with the help of the teacher, the students participate in such activities as asking and answering questions, making dialogues and role-playing the main content of this unit, communicating with people by telephone. Students complete the construction of knowledge through making dialogues and cooperation. Then the teacher let the students simulate the communication with people by telephone, for example, booking meals by telephone, changing tickets for concerts by telephone, inviting others for entertainment by telephone, meeting friends for dinner by telephone, asking friends to watch movies by telephone and so on. After each group makes presentation, the teacher gives guidance and comments, corrects their pronunciation, answers questions and makes summaries.

Finally, the teacher explains the key words, sentence patterns and habitual expressions in the textbook. Students should complete the relevant listening exercises by watching videos in the textbook, so as to deepen their understanding of common expressions, and achieve the purpose of consolidation.

c. After-class Stage

After class, the teacher assigns the exercises of Expressions and Group Discussions in "Time Out" of the FiF oral language training system according to students' actual level and classroom performance as the extended learning content. Therefore, through self-study before-class, practices while-class and extended consolidation after-class, the students can master the content of the third unit of the textbook Time Out in an all-round way. (Zhou Ye, 2018)

4. Ways of Evaluation

Evaluation runs through every link of the classroom, altogether with students' self-evaluation, students' mutual evaluation and teachers' evaluation. The teacher should give positive and objective evaluation to students' performance, and put forward more professional suggestions for improvement, so as to improve students' oral communicative competence. The teacher should also summarize, analyze and reflect on students' self-study and classroom performance, so as to promote their own teaching and scientific research level.

III. ACHIEVEMENTS OF COLLEGE ENGLISH TEACHING REFORM BASED ON THE FIF SMART LEARNING PLATFORM

In order to verify the influence of the FiF Smart Learning Platform on students' English-speaking ability, we carried out an empirical study among freshmen and sophomores from September 2018 to January 2019. In the process, Class B3, was determined as the experimental class out of all classified freshmen classes of 2018 that are taught according to students' levels, and among the liberal arts departments, the International Economy and Trade Class of 2018, which is from the School of Economics and Management with basically the same entrance examination scores as the experimental class, was selected as the control class. The experimental class is required to use the FiF oral language training system, while the control class doesn't.

There are 43 students in the International Economy and Trade Undergraduate Class from the School of Economics and Management of 2018, with an average score of 46.79 in the entrance examination. Students in this control class are not required to use the FiF oral training platform. Rather, students in the experimental class, B3, having 56 students with an average score of 46.23, are required to complete the oral training task once a week on the FiF oral language training system and their task scores will be included in the final exam results. Teachers assign at least one oral task on the platform every week, including dialogue, paragraph reading, answer questions, role- play topic discussion, presentation and so on. Each mission has basically six or seven days to be finished. After receiving the task, students should arrange their time to practise. The platform will give scores and feedback in time, according to which students can make corresponding improvements and keep training and improving their scores until they get satisfactory results. At the end of each task, the teacher will do spot checks to see if the students have completed the task, and give unified comments on the problems in pronunciation, expression and other aspects. In addition, the teacher will arrange similar topics for students to talk about in the following speaking activities, so as to help students apply the language practiced on the platform to other circumstances in their daily life.

In the classroom, most of the students in the experimental class are willing to speak English, answer questions enthusiastically, and participate in oral activities actively in class. On the contrary, the control class is relatively silent. The students are not active enough to answer questions. In order to verify further the role of FiF oral language training system in improving students' English-speaking ability, our university conducted an oral test for the two classes at the end of the semester. The students in the experimental class did better in the examination than those from the control class. The following table shows the concerning data.

Statistics of the Oral Test							
Name of the Class	Headcount	Average Score	Number & Proportion of Students over 90 Points	Number & Proportion of Students Between 80-90 Points	Number & Proportion of Students Between 70-80 Points	Number & Proportion of Students Between 60-70 Points	Number & Proportion of Students Below 60 Points
The Experimental Class	56	87.32	13(23.2%)	22(39.3%)	15(26.8%)	6(10.7%)	0(0%)
The Control Class	43	83.17	8(18.6%)	15(34.9%)	11(25.6%	8(18.6%)	1(2.3%)

IV. CONCLUSION

The rapid development of science and technology produces an age of information, intelligence and big data, in which the original teaching models and means have been strongly impacted. New teaching models integrated with technology are emerging constantly, for example, flipped class model, mobile learning, MOOC, micro-class and other models are gradually popular and widely used at home and abroad. Leshan Normal University keeps pace with the times, constantly pushes forward the reform of College English teaching, and takes the opportunity to introduce the FiF Smart Learning Platform of iFLYTEK to enable students to acquire learning resources by various connection channels (WIFI, 4G, etc.) and terminal devices, carrying out self-learning and oral training, thus subverting the learning model of "fixed location with fixed equipment" in the era of digital education. Meanwhile, teachers can check students' learning at any time, get feedback immediately and adjust their teaching strategies and teaching progress accordingly, finally improving the teaching efficiency. With the growing interests in English learning, students' oral English level and comprehensive English ability has been improved significantly.

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Time and Memory in *The Cherry Orchard*

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***Abstract*—Characters are precisely aware of time in heterogeneous visions in Chekhov's last play *The Cherry Orchard* in 1904. This play has an obvious flow of time sense of nostalgia, realistic practical mind and eager thrust for the future manifesting in assorted roles. The industrious characters Dunyasha, Varya and Lopakhin check their watches regularly, presenting their alertness to time in the industrial age's. The older characters weep for their age and witness the weather's changes from May to October. Players value the same things in largely variant ways mostly according to the experience, age, class and gender ect.. Therefore, because of various personal aspirations, characters are living in their individual timelines as Lyubov's yearning for the past, Dunyasha, Yasha and Trofimoff's eager for the future, Firs' nostalgia and imprisonment at the present and Lopakhin's integrated past, current and future time view. Although characters have their particular time view, Chekhov in *The Cherry Orchard* embodies a prime time view that if the characters fail to come to terms with the nature of the flow of time, they would be living in fragmented visions and thus failed in fully experiencing the life.**

***Index Terms*—time, memory, transition, Chekhov**

I. Introduction

Characters are precisely aware of time in heterogeneous visions in Chekov's last play *The Cherry Orchard* in 1904. This play has an obvious flow of time sense of nostalgia, realistic practical mind and eager thrust for the future manifesting in assorted roles. The industrious characters Dunyasha, Varya and Lopakhin check their watches regularly, presenting their alertness to time in the industrial age's. The older characters weep for their age and witness the weather's changes from May to October. The various time vision could be analyzed in a quote of Francis Bacon (1893) on time:

> for the truth is, that time seemeth to be of the nature of a river or stream, which carrieth down to us that which is light and blown up, and sinketh and drowneth that which is weighty and solid".

Players value the same things in largely variant ways mostly according to the experience, age, class and gender ect., however, they would have their personal "light" or "weighty" things to blown up or solidify at the different areas of the "river or stream". For instance, family members, quality of life and love are "weighty and solid" to the quondam landlord Lyubov; implementation of crossing classes to change the life of a peasant is the goal of Lopakhin; the old valet Firs merely wants to stay servants. Therefore, because of various personal aspirations, characters are living in their individual timelines as Lyubov's yearning for the past, Dunyasha, Yasha and Trofimoff's eager for the future, Firs' nostalgia and imprisonment at the present and Lopakhin's integrated past, current and future time view. Although characters have their particular time view, Chekhov in *The Cherry Orchard* embodies a prime time view that if the characters fail to come to terms with the nature of the flow of time, they would be living in fragmented visions and thus failed in fully experiencing their life.

II. Lyubov's Yearning for the Past

Lyubov indulges in not only the past glorious cherry orchard but her childhood, her beloved dead husband and seven-year-old son Grisha in the past time. Tait (2000) illustrates that many feminists recognize Lyubov's role is gendered because she shows lots of her emotion on her past and helping the others. She's willing to help the others since on one hand it could show her good heart, on the other hand, her existence would be mirrored by the identification of the others being financially helped. However, she is incapable to keep the wealth inherited from the ancestors because of her luxurious lifestyle. Moreover, she couldn't increase the value of the estate by a wise investment. She wallows in her sentimental affection even couldn't listen to Lopakhin's considerate plan to lease the cherry orchard as its good location for summer cottages to save the estate and bear the life expenses. She's a good woman to lend money to Pishtchik, take care of her lover in Paris and treat her servants as equal. Even she has an affection to her bookcase and table, which signifies the nature of materialism but her emotion to the history.

This play opens in the place of a nursery, with Lyubov's homecoming for the reason to refresh her life as mixed innocent, happy and bitter as in the childhood and grieved memories in the foregoing beautiful and flourishing cherry blossom. However, when she returns home there are straightforward financial problems and social changes but Lyubov still keeps her lifestyle on high expenses as if she's still on the first rank of society but without any incomes. Hence, it's no doubt she couldn't maintain her fleshpots hereafter. Her last property the cherry orchard ends by an auction only six months later after her returning. The new owner middle-aged Lopakhin is a businessman and he is the son of Lyubov's former peasant. His grandparents were slaves of the Ranevsky family before the country issues freedom to the serfs. Time watches the overturning social break of classes. After freeing of the serfs in Russia where progresses an unstable class revolution of Chekhov's day in the 19th century when *The Emancipation Declaration* was announced in 1861, which freed the serfs from being owned by landlords. Chekhov depicts the upheaval that the lower classes could enhance their status by diligent hardworking and the aristocrats collapse their positions with a laissez-faire recession by their effortless.

Lopakhin is a typical example presented in *The Cherry Orchard*, who cherishes every minute to change his destiny. He becomes richer and richer through his good commercial awareness while the Ranevsky family gradually lose their positional advantages by exhausting all their fortune. When he considers to pay back the kindness that Lyubov treats him in his teenage period, he warmly works out a plan to save the only home left of the Ranevskys:

> As you already know, your cherry orchard is going to be sold off to pay your debts, the auction will be on August twenty-second, but don't worry, rest easy, there's a way out . . . Here's my plan. Please pay attention! Your estate is located only fifteen miles from town, the railroad now passes nearby, and if the cherry orchard and the land by the river were broken up into lots and leased out for building summer houses, you'd have an income of at least twenty-five thousand a year. (Chekhov, 2009, p. 51)

Lopakhin not only shows his wise business sense to protect the estate and increase its value and he expresses his gratitude with a good heart to Lyubov but also prudentially figures out the amount of earning from the cherry orchard by this strategy for his former owner although he doesn't really need to be their servant any longer. Nevertheless, the aristocratic family emotionally refuses the brilliant proposal. Gaev actually criticizes "Excuse me, but that's nonsense!" (Chekhov, 2009, p. 51) and Lyubov expresses her romanticism by incomprehension:

> Chop it down? My dear, forgive me, but you understand nothing. If there's one thing in the whole province that's interesting, even remarkable, it's our cherry orchard. (Chekhov, 2009, p. 52)

Both Lyubov and her brother Gaev deny Lopakhin's suggestion. When Lopakhin explains the value of the cherry orchard is only the size, he anxiously asks Lyubov to earnestly consider the summer houses and if she makes a decision to keep the land as "Just one word! Give me an answer!" (Chekhov, 2009, p. 78), he would help her to get fifty thousand for the loan, however, the Ranevsky sister and brother simply show their indifference to Lopakhin's idea. In fact, this disagreement results from their different value systems. To Lyubov, her worthwhile things are past which become traumas at present so that keeping life going is not that important to her.

Alexander (2004) analyzes the external desperate event would manifest the internal traumatic response of an unconscious emotional fear and "psychological defense mechanism" model (p. 1-30). Based on his point of view, when comes tremendous harmful event, the victim will repress the traumatic experience to the unconscious area because of extreme astonishment and fear, thus becoming a psychological knot, which could be repressed, distorted and displaced in the actor's memory leading to irrational and irresponsible actions as hysteria. Apparently, when Lyubov encounters with this unbearable family disaster, her husband is unlovable and she says "to my misfortune I fell in love with another man" (Chekhov, 2009, p. 84), and after her son's death she feels guilty and leaves "without looking back" (Chekov, 2009, p. 45). She goes to France thinking of "never to return, never to see this river" (Chekov, 2009, p. 84). However, when her lover in Paris fleeced and abandoned her, she thinks to come back to Russia. Her experience of consistent trauma has always been curing by her self-defense mechanism of "transference" from a Freudian psychoanalysis theory. When she returns to the cherry orchard breaking her previous words, facing financial problem and the past trauma and hearing from the lover's begging for her forgiveness, she thinks going to Paris again. Nevertheless, her softheart, undiscerning and incapability cause her foreseeable gloomy future life. These problems ultimately are on the ground of her insouciant and inexperienced life living in the aristocratic family, far from the normal society. Her yearning for the past without learning useful living skills to deal with the difficulties in the real world presents Chekov's fair main discourse of supporting the new raising class who cherishes the time to show their diligence and wisdom to improve.

III. Firs' Aspiration to Remain the Days and His Lifelessness

Firs' aspiration to remain the days and his lifelessness ends with a self-sigh of meaningless existence. The age of this loyal old valet is 87, which means he experiences his life for eighty seven years and definitely symbolizes the past himself. In the play, he wishes no change and no action and expects no future only to stay a servant as he says "If you please. (Joyfully) My lady has come home! How I've waited! Now I can die . . . " (Chekov, 2009, p. 46). Firs doesn't like freedom:

> (Laughs) When we got our freedom, I was already head valet. I didn't accept freedom then, I stayed with my masters . . . I remember everybody was glad, but what they were glad about they didn't know themselves. (Chekov, 2009, p. 88)

How could he know the others didn't know the reason they're happy for the freedom of serfs? But he has his personal different ideas that he believes freedom is a catastrophe indeed. When the Ranevskys are talking about nature, eternity, death, life and destroy, they hear a sound of a breaking string as if from the sky dying away sadly. Chekov here manifests his writing skill of impressionism that the sound of a breaking string implies the past serfdom as Firs mentions something would suggest a catastrophe such as “the owl screeched, and the samovar went on whistling” (Chekov, 2009, p. 95-96), he believes it is freedom. And this breaking string sound is echoed in the end of the play:

> A distant sound, as if from the sky, the sound of a breaking string, dying away, sad. Silence ensues, and the only thing heard is an axe striking wood far off in the orchard. (Chekov, 2009, p. 284)

It shows it is not that simple as Chehov inkings at such an important place. However, the others don’t treat Firs’ words seriously. And though Chekhov doesn’t clearly depict the death of the loyal old valet Firs, most probably he is dead as lying still on the floor since everyone forgets him even incautiously locks him in the house.

When Lyubov refuses Lopakhin’s idea to chop the cherry orchard down to build summer houses and Gaev feels proud of their orchard being mentioned in the *Encyclopedia* for their nostalgic emotion, their loyal old valet Firs follows his master’s opinion and recalls they made the cherry jam and sold dried cherries in Moscow and Kharkov forty or fifty years ago. But when Lyubov asks whether there someone could remember the way to dry the cherries, he replies people has forgotten that, which suggests although sometimes people may recall the past, they are forgetful. In fact, Lyubov carelessly asks for her curiosity but does not really care about how to run a business. When Firs returns to an empty and a dull stage, he and the governess Charlotta have an interesting talk about his female master Lyubov’s forgetfulness. Firs says his mistress has lost her purse and the governess Charlotta replies that the mistress “constantly loses things. She’s lost her life, too” (Chekov, 2009, p. 102). As a matter of fact, Lyubov is in a difficulty that she cares too much about the past and finally loses it.

In fact, people don’t forget Firs at first, Anya questions for his situation for several times. She asks whether he has been sent to the hospital and Yasha, the young servant says: “I told them this morning. I suppose it’s been done” (Chekov, 2009, p. 267). Anya dissatisfies his ambiguous answer and thus asks the clerk Epikhodov again to make sure his being in the hospital. Nonetheless, Epikhodov deems Firs, as a representative of the past, is living enough without necessary to see a doctor. At the same time, Yasha could dare to be “offended” by his female master —— “(Offended) I told Egor this morning. Why ask ten times!” (Chekov, 2009, p. 267), which indicates Yasha unconsciously accepts the benefits of freed serfs followed by *The Emancipation Declaration* in 1861. However, as an unhelpful and aggressive servant in a family, the masters haven’t abandoned him and even will bring him together to Paris later. And when Varya asks again: “Has Firs been taken to the hospital?” (Chekov, 2009, p. 268) Anya imprudently affirms: “Yes, he has” (Chekov, 2009, p. 268). It shows her softheart, undiscerning and incapability as her mother. Lyubov seems to care Firs since when she’s leaving, she says her first worry is the sick Firs. And this time Anya most certainly replies: “Firs has been sent to the hospital, mama. Yasha sent him this morning” (Chekov, 2009, p. 274). No matter they intentionally or unintentionally miss Firs, Firs is forgotten. As in the end of this play, Anya is excited and bids the house and the old life farewell to cheerfully expect the new life. Lyubov and Gaev had been waiting for remaining alone, hugging with each other and gingerly weeping. Lyubov clearly knows it’s time to say goodbye to her dear, tender, and beautiful orchard, which definitely means making farewell to her life in the youth, and her happiness. Actually, she has the chance to keep the estate but she personally chooses another way to go since she no longer wants to remain the historical memory in mind, only new life could cure her trauma while the summer cottages could not. Trofimov also cheerfully expects new life. In the last scene when all people have gone and they lock all the doors, Firs appears with his usual dress “a jacket and white waistcoat, with slippers on his feet. He is ill” (Chekov, 2009, p. 284). Firs is forgotten, he still cares about the male master Gaev though. Obviously, the characters are both objective and subjective that some of them even contradictorily show their clear awareness to intentionally waste their lives (Borny, 2006). Firs is such an example. As the symbol of the past, unwilling to make any changes in his life, eventually he realizes his end of meaningless: “Life’s gone by, as if I never lived” (Chekov, 2009, p. 284) and blames himself: “You’ve got no strength, you’ve got nothing left, nothing . . . Eh, you . . . blunderhead!” (Chekov, 2009, p. 284) Chekov conveys that changes are normal as “an axe striking wood” (Chekov, 2009, p. 266, 284) to “amidst the quiet” (Chekov, 2009, p. 284) in the timelines. Although it with “the sound of a breaking string” (Chekov, 2009, p. 223, 284) is “sounding solitary and sad” (Chekov, 2009, p. 284), the past is gone as the change in ownership of the lands “dying away, sad” (Chekov, 2009, p. 223, 284). Death is a destined part of life, which brings a new era.

IV. Daydreams and Melancholy for the Past and Present

Daydreams of the characters such as Trofimov, Gaev, Dunyasha and Yasha comparing to Varya’s melancholy for the past and present exemplify they have not cherish the full flow of life time and thus they live in fragmented visions and fail in fully experiencing their lives. Trofimov as an eternal student never graduated from university always gives his empty speech without any realistic actions. Lopakhin laughed at him for still going around with young ladies. Trofimov and the Ranevskys and Lopakhin talk about proud man and think there are nothing to be proud of since men are so vulnerable and majority of men are “coarse, ignorant and profoundly unhappy” (Chekov, 2009, p. 220). Trofimov asserts men must work but he doesn’t really work himself. Chekov strongly accuses some of the hypocritical faces of the so-called intellectuals who think themselves holding a privileged power of knowledge but taking no practical actions through the mouth of Trofimov:

> The vast majority of the intellectuals I know seek nothing, do nothing, and at the moment are unfit for work. They call themselves intellectuals, but they talk down to servants, treat peasants

> like animals, study poorly, read nothing serious, do precisely nothing, their science is only talk, and they have little understanding of art. They're all serious, they all have stern faces, they all talk only about important things, they philosophize, and meanwhile, in front of their eyes, workers eat disgusting food, sleep without pillows, thirty or forty to a room, with bedbugs everywhere, stench, dankness, moral filth . . . There's only dirt, banality, barbarism . . . Serious faces scare me; I don't like them. Serious conversations scare me. Better to be quiet. (Chekov, 2009, p. 221)

Trofimov himself is scolded too since he says "Better to be quiet" (Chekov, 2009, p. 192) but he always gives big empty speech as a "mangy mister" (Chekov, 2009, p. 192). Varya worries the intimate relationship between Anya and Trofimov but in fact they have the liberty to choose their love especially when Anya admires Trofimov indeed. Except Trofimov's empty talk, he really has some impressive ideas such as "All Russia is our orchard" (Chekov, 2009, p. 228) to warn people that Russia also faces the crisis of the same reasons why the Ranevskys loss their home. Moreover, lessons from the history should be taken in mind and people should atone for the past through suffering and tough grind (Chekov, 2009). Trofimov has hope for the future but he is too idealistic to be totally "free as the wind" (Chekov, 2009, p. 229). Trofimov can merely say: "the moon is rising" and "happiness comes, getting closer and closer" (Chekov, 2009, p. 230), which could only be believed by Anya. However, Trofimov observes the essence of the problem of the aristocrats when Lyubov worries her estate would be sold. He thinks no matter when it is sold, the glorious past time has gone and Lyubov should face to the reality, although she usually deceives herself by indulging in the past time, which causes her need of emotional attachment so that even a well-known playboy could utilize her (Chekov, 2009). In the meanwhile, Lyubov recognizes Trofimov's idleness and suggests him to finish his education. Nonetheless, they wouldn't listen to each other and insist on their own. Trofimov realizes building summer houses is a kind of fickleness as "waving your arms" (Chekov, 2009, p. 264), which signifies hedonism could not bring a flourishing prosperity in the long run. The old nobility having superficial perception of "sins" as Ranevsky states "We've sinned so very much . . ." (Chekov, 2009, p. 212). In fact, the waving arms of their sins come from the "paradise" of one class being built upon the sweat and toil of another (Baehr, 1999, p. 102). He has some good qualities such as when Lopakhin tries to give some money to him for his traveling, he refuses because he holds himself aloof. As a matter of fact, daydreams of the characters manifest in their dialogue sometimes turning to monologue to "avoid their problems" (Deer, 1858, p. 34), which becomes an "essential expression of the central conflict" (Deer, 1858, p. 34). Thus, Chekov adopts an ambiguous writing on Trofimov's half mad and half intelligent words to deliver his critical time view of highbrow daydream.

In this play Chekov criticizes the unserviceability of knowledge. Although intellectuals are respected, if there is no practical use of the knowledge, except the eternal student, Epikhodov is another one to show Chekov's critical idea that knowledge is not the thing to be proud of but to use. It indirectly suggests to call on an industrial way to follow the industrial revolution of the raising Europe in his time —— Epikhodov says:

> I'm a cultivated man, I read all sorts of learned books, but I simply cannot understand where things are heading, and what in fact I want, to go on living or to shoot myself, but in any case, as a matter of fact, I always carry a revolver with me. Here it is . . . (Shows the revolver) (Chekov, 2009, p. 204).

Epikhodov has no directions for the future, which indicates although he read books in the past but he gets the confusion to go ahead at the present. Namely, he is not able to experience the full flow of the time because of his out of actions to find out the routes. The educated governess Charlotta is disoriented to the future too. She says: "who I am, why I am, there's no knowing…" (Chekov, 2009, p. 204). Anya "dreamily" imagines her future life with mom to read lots of books together (Chekov, 2009, p. 271) but she never thinks about their poor economic situations and how to deal with that.

The landowner Pishchik dreams for getting payment from railroad across his land and his daughter Dashenka would have won lottery (Chekov, 2009, p. 188-189). Nonetheless, Pishchik has got the luck to have some Englishmen finding some sort of white clay in his soil (Chekov, 2009, p. 146), which signifies the value of the lands that even daydream sometimes could come true. However, making daydream is not praised by Chekov since the fulfillment isn't from his own effort, which could not last sooner or later.

Gaev is a lazy man who emotionally amuses himself in the past too. His daydreams are to have Anya marry a very rich man to help them to get rid of financial crisis, a rich aunt could give him a sum of roubles, or a fictional general may lend him the money on his signature, which show his laziness that just wants to sit idle and enjoy the fruits of others' work. He considers to arrange a loan to pay the interest of the land but never takes effective actions. He imprudently affirms the cherry orchard will not be sold by swearing on his honor, happiness and whole being (198) but unfortunately at last the estate is sold on the auction and he breaks his swear. His ridiculously ineffective solutions to their problem reflect the ludicrous self-deception that the Renevskys are guilty (Remaley, 1973). Gaev mentions he's a man of the eighties and he admits "it's a time that's not much praised" (Chekov, 2009, p. 199). Chekov particularly notices the time to show his ironical view towards Gaev since it is a time of reactionary and dark decade of economic stagnation in 1880s in Russia. Tsar Alexander II was assassinated by The People's Will in 1881 (Bushkovitch, 2012). After the death of Alexander II, Alexander III strengthens police rule to assume his autocratic monarchy to a peak. Therefore, 1880s becomes the darkest time of the feudal autocracy of Russian Tsar, which leads to a big recession of both ideology and economy (Bushkovitch, 2012). Gaev says the peasants love him (Chekov, 2009, p. 199) actually because of their inertia to treat the landowners good rather than he has a good heart not to torture them since he is incapable to run the business well.

Dunyasha and Yasha as a maid and a young servant prefer to imitate their masters' behaviors. Dunyasha learns the dress, hair up and sick trembling conduct but she hasn't been impacted the good sides of the aristocrats such as love and generosity. No wonder Lopakhin warns her to know her role (Chekov, 2009, p. 34). Dunyasha can't face her humble root past, thus she has an illusive present and being anxious to her future ——

> I've become anxious, I worry all the time. I was still a little girl when I was taken into the masters' household, I'm unused to the simple life now, and look how white my hands are, like a young lady's. I've become so pampered, I'm afraid of everything . . . It's scary. And if you deceive me, Yasha, I don't know what will happen to me. (Chekov, 2009, p. 206)

She learns the delusion of her masters but hasn't any practical survival skills in experiencing social life, no wonder she worries all the time. Even Charlotta's dog eats nuts and Pishchik hardly believes she could have such a luxurious living (Chekov, 2009, p. 38). However, these staff learn the prodigal habit from their bosses and the mistress connives with them. When Lyubov sold her only house near Menton, having very a few of money left, with her people eat in the station, she could order the most expensive foods and tip the waiter. Charlotta does so and Yasha, the young servant orders something as well. When Varya tells Yasha that his mother from the village has been waiting for seeing him for one day, he indifferently says: "As if I care" (Chekov, 2009, p. 194) and "Who needs her. She could have come tomorrow." (Chekov, 2009, p. 195) to show he really has not a kind and grateful heart. They just imitate the evil sides of the masters while forget the original innocent virtues. Yasha complains his country, people, boring surroundings, foods and his predecessor Firs and requests Lyubov to take him with her to Paris without showing any contributions (Chekov, 2009, p. 249). Peacockish Yasha could even manifest his capacity of discernment on champagne (Chekov, 2009, p. 261). Although it shows their fair harmonious getting along with each other, if there is no distinct between the masters and servants, why should Lyubov feed them since she faces a financial problem? These servants have nothing to help but heartlessly consume her to make the situation even more dangerous.

Another character Varya is thought looking like a nun as the same as before by Lyubov (Chekov, 2009, p. 166), which might be the main reason the vigorous Lopakhin hasn't proposed to her. They are quite different that when they talk to each other, they can't get the other's point such as the misunderstanding of the weather change (time change) (Chekov, 2009, p. 277). Varya has a very strong fatalism that she always expects God to help them (Chekov, 2009, p. 195, 198). Nevertheless, she has a sparking rational thinking mind that she knows Lopakhin wouldn't make proposal to her since he's getting rich and busy, showing no care for her while she is on a downhill path. She knows that her problem is short of money to be independent and she observes that's the problem to Lyubov's plight either. When the Ranevsky family face their only estate to be sold, she worries because they still hire musicians for dancing ball to have pleasure without enough money to pay (Chekov, 2009, p. 233). Varya scolds Epikhodov for his irresponsibility but only gets his disregard (Chekov, 2009, p. 252-53). These servants are more and more rebellious that the masters couldn't handle them easily. Consequently, servants become burdens to the masters. Although Varya gets her fatalism, because of her rationality to analyze the present issues, in the end of the play, she could exit "unhurriedly" (Chekov, 2009, p. 283).

V. Lopakhin's Integrated Time View

Lopakhin is the only man in the play who holds an integrated time view of showing his gratitude and memory of the past, noticing the present time and having reasonable plan for the future. Therefore, he becomes the big winner to be the new owner of the cherry orchard since he is able to buy it in the auction. He remembers Lyubov's gentle treats and comforts to a poor boy when he was young.

> I remember when I was a kid of about five or six, my late father—he kept a shop then, here in the village—punched me in the face with his fist. My nose bled . . . We had come here to the yard together for some reason, and he was a bit drunk. Lyubov Andreevna, I remember it like today, still a young thing, so slender, she led me to the washstand, here, in this same room, in the nursery. "Don't cry, peasant-boy," she says, "it'll go away by your wedding day . . ." (Chekov, 2009, p. 162).

Only because of the warmth he feels from Lyubov, he tries at full split to help her to save the cherry orchard, although Lyubov and her brother respond indifferently and wouldn't listen to him. When Gaev revels in the past glorious time, laughing at Lopakhin as a "boor, a money-grubber" (Chekov, 2009, p. 179), Lopakhin says to him: "Yes, time flies" (Chekov, 2009, p. 176) to weaken the concern on the past time and watch the time flow by embracing the present time. He is anxious about the auction to sell Lyubov's cherry orchard and notices them many times to make up the minds to do something and reach a decision. However, they could casually change their attention from the serious topic to some recreational things. Lyubov even shows off eating crocodiles in Paris. Lopakhin is considerate to suggest that if Lyubov is loath to part with the beautiful scenery of the cherry orchard, she simply needs to wait for some time when the summer people begin to farm their little acres and then the cherry orchard will come back (Chekov, 2009, p. 183). He consistently reminds them "time is running out" (Chekov, 2009, p. 207) and is volunteer to deal with the case of keeping the estate because Lyubov took care of him with her goodness in the past time. Although the case might be tough to the others such as Lyubov and Gaev, to Lopakhin it's easy only that they give him a decision. In fact, thankful, rational and businesslike minds of Lopakhin are distinctly comparing to the features of "scatterbrained", "strange" and "unbusinesslike" (Chekov, 2009, p. 211) of the Ranevsky brothers, who present their privileged gesture and never give him a definite answer. Lyubov asks Lopakhin: "What are we to do? Teach us what to do" (Chekov, 2009, p. 211). It seems she is worrying likewise. Nonetheless, when Lopakhin affirmably tells them how to do, they won't agree with building summer houses as Lyubov says: "Summer houses, summer people—forgive me, but it's all so banal" (Chekov, 2009, p. 211) to show her privileged taste. Chekov actually criticizes not only Lyubov as a short-sighted incapable woman who can't protect her estate but also Gaev who agrees with her, which evidences Chekov aims at their "waving-arms" (Chekov, 2009, p. 264) class problems. These unpractical previous landowners are frightened of the lands losing but they are unwilling to keep a low profile to sacrifice their daily high expenses which identify their status. They solely want to eat up "the whole fortune in fruit drops" (Chekov, 2009, p. 213) without any plans for the future. Lyubov could recognize her trouble that she tried to poison herself and she feels shameful but still doesn't want to change her hedonistic lifestyle, let alone could she earn money to develop. These former rich people currently just want effortless forgiveness and daydreaming of a bright future. They are also fragile that can't focus on handling difficulties for so long, when there is music, their attention is distracted (Chekov, 2009, p. 214) so that Lopakhin waits for their answer in vain.

Another example to show his honest memory to the past humble birth and rational mind to face the present situation is: although Lopakhin knows the differences between Trofimov and him, he remarkablely keeps his good essence of an earthy peasant and shows respect to the idealistic dream maker. Comparing to Trofimov, the symbol of academic knowledge, he says:

> Oh, I'm rich all right, I've got lots of money, but if you really look into it, I'm as peasant as a peasant can be . . . (Leafs through the book) I'm reading this book and don't understand a thing. I fell asleep reading it. (Chekov, 2009, p. 162)

Trofimov appreciates Lapakhin's vitality and pushfulness to the food chain and he knows the importance of realism but Trofimov himself plays his role as a theorist by boast. Moreover, Lopakhin modestly compensates his deficiencies by his diligence. He gets up at five in the morning, works from morning till night, and he could keep a good heart even fairly dealing with money that "few honest, decent people" (Chekov, 2009, p. 92) could have that composure. Earning money is not his only aim but to experience life by caring for the time when human beings get lots of materials from the nature: "Lord, you gave us vast forests, boundless fields, the deepest horizons, and we who live here should be real giants ourselves . . ." (Chekov, 2009, p. 222). Although Lyubov has different understanding of the *giants* to Lopakhin's when she expresses her view that giants "are only good in fairy tales, otherwise they're frightening" (Chekov, 2009, p. 222), Lopakhin is appraised by Chekov for his realistic attitude to find the dignity.

He has a soft heart but a rational analyzing mind further, which are beneficial to plan for the future. Savely researches on Chekov's letter to his friend Stanislavsky that he wrote:

> When I was writing Lopakhin, I thought it was your role . . . Lopakhin, true, is a merchant, but he is a decent man in all regards; he must act in a dignified manner, as an educated person, without trifling or tricks, and thus I was thinking that this role, central in the play, would be a success by you. (Chekov, 2009, p. 13)

Genuinely, Chekov portrays Lopakhin a notably positive image. When a passerby requires for Lyubov's money, Lopakhin criticizes: "(Angrily to himself) For every outrage, there's decency!" (Chekov, 2009, p. 225) while Lyubov still plays her Maria role to give the passerby a gold piece. It presents Lopakhin's evaluate talent that he knows who is worth helping and who is to be denied. He could accelerate fortune as well. On the contrary, Lyubov only knows to consume her fortune regardless of her capacity and even asks Lopakhin to lend some money to her. Lopakhin generously agrees with her. But there is a decency to help the Ranevsky family. When he feels disappointed with these "scatterbrained people" (Chekov, 2009, p. 211), he buys the cherry orchard for a profitable business himself excitedly: "I'm dreaming, I'm making it up, it only seems so . . . " (Chekov, 2009, p. 257). Lopakhin unhesitatingly takes "the axe to the cherry orchard", watching "the trees fall down!" to fulfill his plan to build summer houses to make a new life there (Chekov, 2009, p. 258). However, Deer identifies Lopakhin scolds himself to be higher than his previous class as he humbly notes he's a peasant, no matter how rich he could become (Chekov, 2009, p. 32). Although he has not been well-educated at school, he takes lessons in the real world. His ability brings him more liberty to be himself. He gets a good sense of knowing people that he reasonably hasn't chosen Varya as his life partner to satisfy the others' expectation because they really can't understand each other. Therefore, because of his integrated time view to cherish the past and present time and rationally plan for the future can he fully experience his life.

VI. Conclusion

Characters in the play think a lot about the present comparing to the past since *The Cherry Orchard* sets the plot in a historical time with the overturn of the social classes. *The Cherry Orchard* witnesses the past of the Russian empire, evoking an emotion of longing, regret, or disgust – sometimes a combination of all three. Most characters wish to save the estate but in the end of the play the symbol of the past is snipped. The estate is sold, the masters are leaving and the old servant dies to enter into a new era. *The Emancipation Declaration* in 1861 of Alexander II undoubtedly is an essential policy in the time, which causes to a class instability. Chekhov portrays the picture of mixed-up Russia after freeing of the serfs. There are servants who regard freedom as a catastrophe, like 87-year-old Firs. There are servants who imitate ladies and gentlemen, such as Dunyasha and Yasha. Some characters are daydreaming such as the eternal student Trofimov and the landowner Pishchik. Some former peasants are getting richer and richer like Lopakhin. Most importantly, the previous rich landowners are on the recessional way.

Chekhov in *The Cherry Orchard* manifests the main discourse that a model in the play Lopakhin who nourishes the whole time periods succeeds in fully experiencing a realistic life because he fairly learns from the past, faces to the present and plans for the future. Although time is just a period of eternity, these characters construct an impressive memory of the historical Russia in the late 19th century and the early of 20th century. Reid (2005) deems Chekov's writing is influenced by Gorky's eschatological (political) strivings which continuously voices other perspectives. Many voices has been popped out in the unstable society as Bakhtinian "heteroglossia" (xix) but the main discourse at that time is to support the raising classes like Lopakhin to change the serfdom to an industrial society by their diligence and initiative to enhance the economic situation and social status. It concludes "weighty" things such as Lyubov's love (abused though) and Lopakhin's courage, wisdom and diligence on the raising middle-class solidify in a stream of the time to become a memorable episode of eternity in the work of Chekov's *The Cherry Orchard*.

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Improving Students' Communicative Competence through Inductive Method Using Authentic Materials

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***Abstract*—Students were often confused and forced into silence when they communicate in English. This condition became a problem during the teaching-learning process and may eventually lead to poor communicative competence. Inductive teaching method, which employs authentic materials can be a solution to address the aforementioned condition. The objective of this study is finding out the effects of implementing inductive teaching method. using authentic materials, to the students' communicative competence. Participants were 61 fourth semester students (22 males and 39 females). enrolled in a three-year diploma program in Travel and Tourism Business Study Program, State Polytechnic of Bali. Data are collected through classroom action-based research procedures. By conducting a quasi-experimental design, the collected data were analyzed by paired t-tests and mixed design ANCOVA. The study reveals the English communicative competence of the students significantly increased, shown by the mean score on the post-test, namely 63.05 in the control group and 84.43 in the experimental group [t = -23.485, p=.000] at the level of p<.05. In addition, their learning motivation and interest also increased as it is shown by the result of the questionnaires. Limitations and suggestions for successful applied action-integrated instruction and implications for future research are provided.**

***Index Terms*—inductive method, authentic materials, communicative competence**

I. Introduction

The purpose of learning English in vocational colleges such as the Bali State Polytechnic is to make students able to communicate in English correctly and well. Correct means that according to the English grammar method and good means it is in accordance with the norms of manners and hospitality in language, and can use communication strategies. The three components of communicative competence are in accordance with the statements of Canale and Swain (1980, 1981) in Bagarić and Djigunović (2007, p. 97), namely the communicative competency model which contains three main components, namely grammatical, sociolinguistic and strategy competencies. Hymes (Bagarić and Djigunović, 2007, p. 97) and Celce-Murcia (2007, p. 46) state socio-linguistic competence as appropriateness.

Mastery of students' communicative English competence is very important to improve during the teaching and learning process as an effort to produce competent and professional graduates in the field of work to be pursued in the industrial world. The increase in mastery of communicative English competence of students requires innovative learning methods, namely inductive methods and supported with authentic material in the current context (deal with current issues) so that effective, efficient, and contextual learning is created in accordance with the real situation in the industry so that links and match between universities vocating competent HR printers and industry as users. The implementation of innovative learning is carried out through a classroom action-based research (CAR) process.

Research in the field of learning is that the term authenticity has been attempted and applied in an effort to achieve the fundamental goal in the use of language, namely communication (Glaser, 2014). Castilo et al (2017) suggested the relationship between approach and authenticity in language learning as an inductive approach in the process of generalization to draw conclusions about the rules of grammar from various authentic texts. In addition to the inductive approach in language learning, it is also known as a deductive approach. Prince and Felder (2006) state that deductive learning methods are traditional learning with a methodological paradigm that departs from something general to something special.

The deductive learning method according to the perceptions of educational psychologists is fewer motivating students in learning, because students will have high learning motivation if they are clearly seen in certain knowledge and skills (Prince and Felder, 2006; Balim, 2009; Elison, 2010; Slavin, 2010; Saumell, 2012; Davtyan, 2014; Rodríguez González et al, 2016). Prince and Felder (2007) state that inductive learning methods can be applied in learning foreign languages. According to Prince and Felder, the delivery of general principles to something specific can be done, but is followed by an interpretation of the principle, analyzing a case study or providing a solution to a problem. to do generalizing a rule, procedure, principle directed by the instructor.

The role of teaching material in a learning method as proposed by Richards and Rodgers (2014) is a way to reflect the nature of teaching material, for example the content of material, practicing it, facilitating communication between students, or making students can practice alone without a lecturer guidance. In line with Richards and Rodgers, Castilo (2017) states that teaching material plays a fundamental role in language learning, because teaching materials are used by lecturers to facilitate learning inside and outside the classroom. Kim (2000) and Day (2004), Rogers in Kilickaya (2004), Dorda (2008), Tomlinson (2012), McDonough and Shaw (2012), Polio (2014) define teaching material as something that can be used to facilitate language learning, including textbooks, videos, graded readers, flash cards, games, websites and interactions via event mobile phones though, in fact, most literature centers on printed material.

Learning English with authentic material is carried out by Al Azri et al (2014), Rahman (2014), Belaid (2015), Ghanbari (2015), Carmona (2015), Allehyani et al (2017), Castillo (2017). All of these studies proved that authentic material for motivating students, increasing interest in learning and learning languages according to the real situation. This proposed study is very different. The focus of this study is Tourism which is English ESP, specifically the implementation of inductive methods based on authentic materials to improve communication competence of students in the Tourism Department. Mastery of communicative competence will be very useful for the development of professional human resources (HR) and is very relevant to the concept of green HR development (Syarkawi M: 2015), namely if students are able to communicate in English integratively, not partially between the methods of grammar, socio-linguistics, and communication strategies will create good and positive human resources in providing services in the tourism service industry.

A. *Statement of the Problem*

Based on the background above, the problem of this research can be formulated as follows:

1. Is there a significant increase in the posttest score of students' communicative competence in the control and experimental groups?
2. Are there significant differences in the posttest scores of the control and experimental groups with respect to the implementation of inductive methods using authentic material?

B. *Research Purposes*

The objectives to be achieved in this classroom action research are to examine the effectiveness of the application of inductive methods and the use of authentic material in improving student communicative competence in the English for Tourism and Event courses as an effort to implement innovative learning to support green human resources development.

II. RESEARCH METHODS

A. *Research Design*

The design of this study was quasi-experimental by dividing students into experimental and control groups. The experimental group received treatment in the form of giving action with 3 learning cycles. While the control group gets teaching based on the material contained in the previous textbook (Ginaya, 20018: 4).

B. *Research Subject*

This research was conducted at the Bali State Polytechnic Tourism Department which involved 4th semester students or at the pre-intermediate level. Participants consisted of 51 students in the Travel Tourism Business Study Program 2019/2020. There were 2 classes in semester 4, namely class 4A with 31 students (11 men and 20 women) as the control group and 4 B with 30 students (11 men and 19 women) as the experimental group.

C. *Data Collection Technique*

Data were collected based on classroom action research procedures, namely cyclic processes of planning, action, observation, and reflection (Kemmis et al, 2013). Therefore, the research that has been carried out consists of three learning cycles and each cycle is completed in two meeting sessions each week. The application of PTK uses teaching diaries and observation sheets, and other instruments in the form of tests and questionnaires. There are two types of tests used in this study, such as pretest (test 1) for initial observations about the communicative competence of students, posttest (test 2) to determine the ability after treatment is given. The questionnaire is used to collect data, especially those relating to students' feelings, motivations, and interests in the application of inductive methods and the use of authentic material.

D. *Data Analysis*

Data were analyzed in two ways, namely quantitative and qualitative. Quantitative data were analyzed based on oral presentations during the learning period. The communicative competency value of students on initial observation and pretesting (test 1) was analyzed using the SPSS-17.0 program and t-test to ensure equality between the experimental group and the control group. Meanwhile, student scores in the posttest (test 2) were re-analyzed using SPSS. Then, a sample of parallel t-tests in both groups was calculated to determine the difference between pretest and posttest in each group. To determine the difference in communicative English competence between the experimental and control groups in the posttest, covariance analysis (ANCOVA) was carried out. Meanwhile, qualitative data were analyzed based on the results of observations made after giving the treatment and the results of questionnaire entries.

In this case, the condition and situation of the class during the learning process takes place, the interactions, motivations, attitudes, and interests of students in carrying out the exercises and communicative activities are analyzed to determine the effectiveness of the applied learning model. In addition, to find out the problems that may be faced by students during the teaching and learning process, which causes the communicative competence of English to not increase. Furthermore, the classified data were analyzed by qualitative descriptive method with the basis of the inductive methodological paradigm, namely the presentation of problems from specific to general to reach a conclusion (Ginaya, 2018: 24).

III. Results and Discussion

The data obtained were analyzed in two ways, namely quantitative and qualitative. Quantitative data were analyzed based on the performance of oral presentations during the teaching and learning process. Student scores in the initial observation (test 1) were analyzed using the SPSS-17.0 program and t-tests were calculated to ensure the experimental and control groups at the same level of ability. Meanwhile, student scores in the posttest (test 2) were analyzed again using SPSS. Then, the t-test samples in the parallel groups of the two groups were calculated as an attempt to investigate the differences between the pretest and posttest in each group.

The difference in posttest values between the experimental and control groups was carried out through covariance analysis (ANCOVA). Meanwhile, qualitative data were analyzed based on the results of observations made after the treatment was applied, and the results of questionnaires. In this case, the condition and situation of the class during the learning process takes place, the interactions, motivations, attitudes, and interests of students in conducting the exercises and communicative activities are analyzed to determine the effectiveness of the learning model applied. Besides that, to find out the problems faced by students during the teaching and learning process, which causes students to not be able to improve their communicative competence. Therefore, there are a number of things discussed in this section.

A. *Result of the Pretest*

There are 15 topics discussed in the English language lecture in Tourism in semester 4 and each topic consists of two meeting sessions in a week. 3 topics selected for integrated learning. Learning is done 3 weeks with 2 meeting sessions each week. Before students receive treatment, the experimental and control groups are taught by conventional methods for one week or two meeting sessions. After the teaching and learning process is carried out, the pretest (test 1) is given to the two groups in the following week to ensure that the subject of this study is the communicative competence of students at the same level. The pretest results show that the average value is very similar as seen in table 1. These results are calculated through Independent Samples Test (t-test), which is calculated at the level of $p < .05$ in the scores for the two groups [$t = -.117$, $p = .908$].

TABLE I.
RESULTS OF T-TEST CALCULATIONS FOR THE LEVEL OF GROUP EQUALITY

Method	Group	Number	Means	St. deviation	t table	Sig. (2 *tailed*)
Konventional	Control	31	55.4393	6.34	.117	.908
Konventional	Experiment	30	55.2609	5.26		

Based on the table above, the mean score of the student pretest is 55.44 in the control group and 55.26 in the experimental group. This average score is categorized as low, besides that students also become unfocused, less enthusiastic, and often others during the teaching and learning process.

B. *Result of the Treatments*

Starting from the results of observations on learning at the beginning of the study and giving pretest, the research continues with the treatment. In the planning step, the researcher focuses on efforts to increase the communicative competence of students through integrated learning in the experimental group. Therefore, planning learning scenarios and instruments is prepared before the action is given. After taking action in 3 learning cycles, this section discusses the results of each learning cycle. There are 15 topics discussed in the semester lecture plan and each topic consists of two weekly meeting sessions. Each meeting session was given an action in the form of practice (practice) and communicative activities (communicative activities) in each topic discussed. Starting from the results of observations on learning in the first week, the research begins with the first cycle. In the planning stage, research begins with preparing scenarios and learning instruments with topics of discussion giving information about attractions. The next step is giving action with brainstorming, pair work, and group discussions. All student learning activities are recorded on observation sheets and diaries. At the end of the meeting session, a test to measure student communicative competence was given.

The average value of the test results achieved by students in cycle 1 is 63.05. These results indicate an increase in learning outcomes when compared with the pretest results of 55.26. Although student achievement in this cycle is higher than pretest, but based on observations throughout this cycle it was found that students still felt less confident and students who were slow also found themselves still having difficulty adjusting to other friends in group discussions. Knowing the weaknesses in cycle 1, it was reflected by the conclusion that students need facilitation during the exploration process which can reduce the factors that cause them to be less than optimal in learning, such as learning security that is not conducive. Therefore, business games and role-play are considered in giving action to cycle 2.

Learning cycle 2 is done in the third week and the topic of the discussion is to give directions to a place and a simple explanation of tourist objects (simple explaination on places of interest). Basically, the steps carried out in cycle 2 are the same as in the previous cycle, which begins with the preparation of learning scenarios where the provision of action is facilitated with business games and role-play in training and communicative activities. At the observation stage of this cycle, students begin to feel comfortable, become more active in participating in group discussions and they are interested in doing exercises and communicative activities facilitated by business games and role-play. However, there were some students who often borrowed the work of their friends in their respective groups before making a presentation. This problem is identified as a short-term learning utility. After reflecting on this problem, it is anticipated by facilitating exercises and communicative actions using techniques in the form of web-based project tasks (WebQuest) and problem solving (problem solving) in cycle 3 learning.

Learning cycle 3 was conducted in the fourth week which began with instructions in class about the WebQuest application through e-learning learning. After students are divided into small groups, namely 4-5 groups then they register in the Edmodo electronic learning application portal. Then students can access the WebQuest project assignments with the topic of optional tour selling. In this case the entire learning process is carried out interactively between lecturers and students online. In the second session of the fourth week of the group discussion about the tasks of the WebQuest project and also problem-solving techniques were carried out. As a reflection of cycle 3, students become very motivated in learning English. However, this study only consisted of three learning cycles so the research was stopped.

After giving the action to the three learning cycles, the fifth week posttest (test 2) to measure the communicative competence of students was given to both groups both experimental and control groups. The communicative competency test is in the form of speaking test which covers a series of situations in the context of travel business, such as inquiry and reservation, simple description on places of interest, and selling optional tours. The mean score in the posttest achieved by students in the control group was 63.05 and 84.43 in the experimental group. To answer the question of the first problem formulation (Is there a significant increase in the communicative competency and experimental group posttest scores?), Then the descriptive analysis and pairs of t-test sample pairs were used to determine statistically significant differences in the results of posttest in the two groups of students. The following table 2 shows the results of the paired sample t test, calculating the value of the communicative competence of students in the control group.

TABLE II
RESULTS OF THE PAIR SAMPLE T-TEST IN THE CONTROL GROUP (DIFFERENCE BETWEEN PRE- AND POST-TEST)

Group	Variable	Test	Number	Means	St. Deviation	t table	Sig. (2- tailed)
Control	Communicative	Pre	31	55.4393	5.71849	-5.417	.000**
	Competence	Pos	31	63.0536	6.69209		

**level of significance .05

Table 2 shows the communicative competence of students in the control group significantly increasing [t = -6,932, p = .000]. There is a significant difference between the performance of students on instructions before giving pre- and post-test at the level of p <.01. This result can be caused by the exposure of explicit grammatical rules that are more intensive than learning before giving pretest, so that students are better prepared to do the exercises and practice communicative activities. Figure 1 below shows the average score obtained by the control group in the pre- and tests.

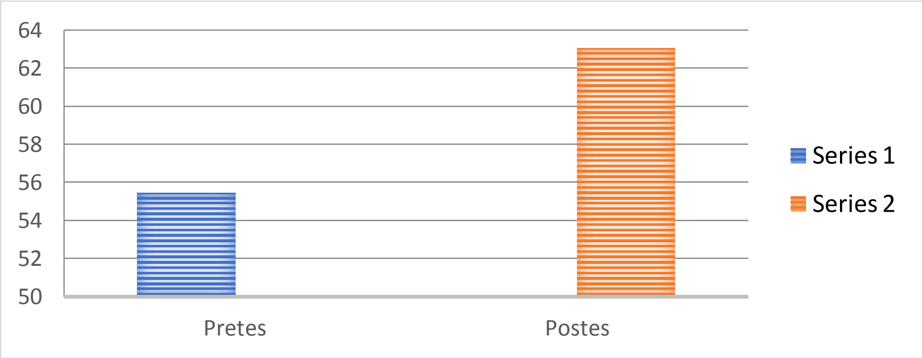

Figure 1. Average Group Communicative Competence Score Control on Pre- and Post-Tests

In the experimental group, the following table 3 shows the results of the paired sample t test calculating the value of the communicative competence of students in the experimental group.

TABLE III
RESULTS OF PAIR TEST SAMPLE COUNTS T ON EXPERIMENT GROUP (DIFFERENCE BETWEEN PRE- AND POST-TEST)

Group	Variable	Test	Number	Means	St. Deviation	t-table	Sig. (2- tailed)
Experiment	Communicative Competence	Pre	30	55.2609	5.06294	-23.485	.000**
		Post	30	84.4348	4.64979		

**level of significance .05

Table 3 shows that the communicative competence of students in the experimental group increased significantly [t = -25,185, p = .000]. This result is due to the practice and practice of English in intense practice and communicative activities, so that the average margin between pretest and posttest is higher in the experimental group than in the control group. The overall appearance of the results above from the experimental group can be seen below in Figure 2.

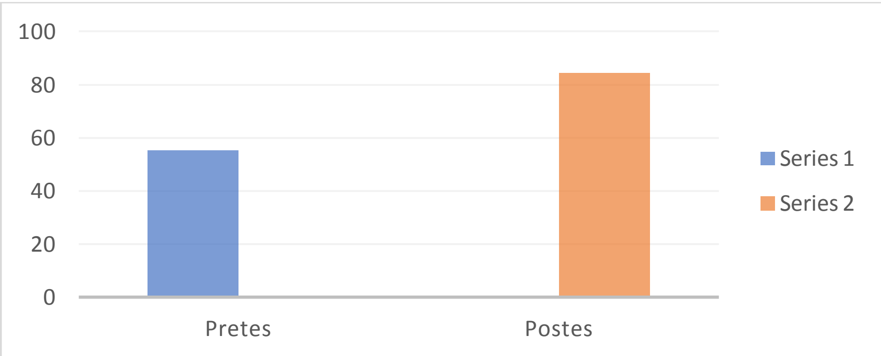

Figure 2. Average group communicative competence score experiments on pre- and post-tests

Results from both groups showed that there was a significant increase in students' speaking performance after receiving treatment. To find out how far the effect of the treatment is specifically to answer the second problem formulation (Is there a significant difference between the control and experimental groups in the posttest?), Covariance analysis (ANCOVA) is used by referring to the acquisition of the pretest score.

TABLE IV
ANCOVA TEST FOR CONTROL GROUPS AND EXPERIMENTS OF POST-TEST RESULTS ON THE EFFECTS OF PRETENSIONS

Method	Group	No	Means	St. deviasi	F	Sig.
Konventional	Control	31	63.0536	6.69209	90.888	000**
Inductive	Experiment	30	84.4248	4.64979		

Level of significance .05**

Table 4 shows that there were significant differences between the experimental and control groups in the posttest that controlled the pre-test score [F = 24,286, p = 0,000] at level p <.01. A very significant difference in the communicative competence of students reinforces the results of the analysis that inductive learning methods using authentic material can improve students' communicative competencies. Figure 3 below shows the difference in posttest mean scores of the two groups.

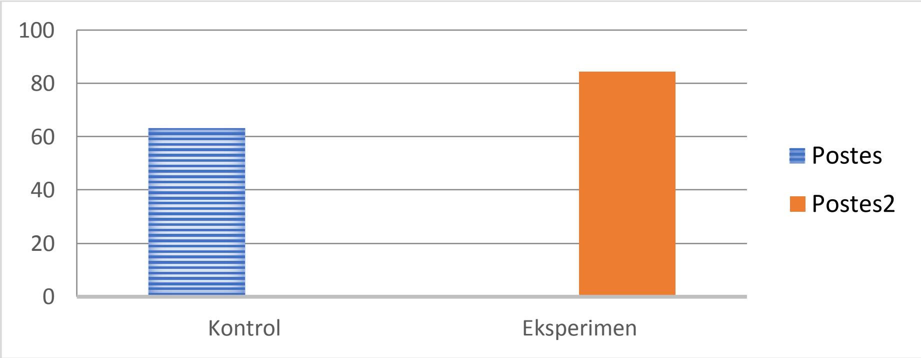

Figure 3. Average Group Communicative Competence Score Controls and Experiments on Postest

The figure shows that the mean score of the experimental group is higher than the control group in the posttest. This means that there is a significant difference between the application of deductive conventional teaching methods, namely presentation, training, communicative activities and inductive methods using authentic material embeded on conventional modified learning models, namely communicative activity, practice, presentation. The students' response to the application of learning with inductive methods in the Tourism English course showed positive results. Evidence of this statement can be seen from the results of questionnaire entries in each learning cycle. In cycle 1 there were 22% of students saying that they were very happy and 75% said they were happy, and 3% said that they were happy or unhappy, when they were asked about feelings and interests in learning English through integrated learning as shown in figure 3 below.

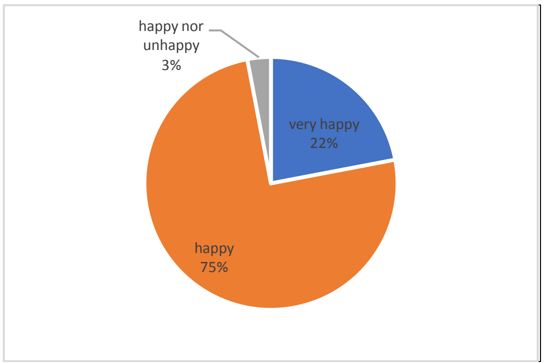

Figure 4 Student Perception of Implementation of the Inductive Method

Students' positive perceptions of the application of inductive learning methods using authentic material are shown through the active participation of students in class interactions. However, there are some problems faced by students during the teaching and learning process, such as some students feel less confident in communicating using English because they are afraid of making mistakes in grammar and pronunciation, vocabulary and the use of limited expressions in producing speech, it is difficult to understand greetings from other students during the presentation. However, most students said that integrated learning can minimize the problems faced by these students, because of the facilitation of communicative exercises and activities by group discussion techniques, spouse work, business games, role playing, web-based project assignments, and problem solving in problem solving is done interestingly, so that it can eliminate negative factors in the learning process, such as boredom, hesitation and fear in learning.

IV. Discussion

The results of the study show that the inductive method using authentic material in learning English in Tourism has a very significant influence on students' communicative English competence. This was evident after classroom action research was conducted in three learning cycles for the experimental group. After giving action to each learning cycle, namely cycle 1 is facilitated by brainstorming, pairwork, and group discussion, cycle 2 with business games and role-play, and cycle 3 with WebQuest and problem solving. Significantly increasing the English competence of students is also seen in the comparison of mean scores between pretest and posttest.

This increase was also supported by an increase in motivation and interest in learning as indicated by the results of filling out questionnaires. The questionnaire is formulated based on 3 main indicators, namely (1) effectiveness in the learning process both in offline and online activities; (2) the concept of learning based on the WebQuest project on cycle 3 learning; (3) student achievement in pre and posttest. In general, students have high interest and motivation to learn to do exercises and communicative activities in each learning cycle. In this case, the scaffolded and blended learning techniques are two key words for the success of student learning achievement. With scaffolding techniques

(Ginaya et al., 2018), students get direction about the rules and principles of grammatical systems, treasury and word selection to create a sentence context. This direction is designed in such a way as a scaffold technique as temporary support for concrete in a building construction and when the concrete is considered strong enough, the scaffolding will slowly be removed, as well as the rules and principles learning temporary assistance is provided to maximize the prerequisite knowledge of students to get understanding of the rules of the language and then slowly and surely students are given the opportunity to work on their own both exercises and communicative activities. While blended learning (Ginaya et al., 2018) was given in cycle 3 through the task of the WebQuest project by utilizing communication and information technology that strengthens face-to-face learning in the classroom. Students are eager to work online to get extensive information, some current issues, and knowledge accessed via the internet and the web in the context of project assignments based on the topics discussed in cycle 3.

The student's perception of learning that can be categorized as blended learning is very positive where students are very satisfied with this web-based learning technique. This supports the findings of Ginaya, et al. (2018), which examined the effect of blended learning on the speaking ability of 3rd semester students in the Business Study Program in Bali State Polytechnic Travel. This study revealed that the task of the WebQuest project as a learning method through the use of technology to strengthen conventional learning can significantly improve students' speaking abilities. The web-based project or WebQuest assignments strongly support productive skills speaking by students because the project integrates several advantages of language learning, such as analysis, synthesis, evaluation, assessment, problem solving and student creativity.

In addition, very lively classroom interactions with the learning techniques from brainstorming to problem solving make students interact optimally as in problem solving techniques students try to get better solutions as a problem-solving effort. These communicative exercises and activities aim to stimulate student-language creativity. In this case, student participation in the teaching and learning process increases well. This also means that students feel fun learning and they are encouraged to work hard by maximizing their potential to communicate in English. Therefore, the communicative competence of students increases significantly as shown in the posttest results. In addition, students get important input on the use of English from a variety of sources both online and offline in making training assignments and communicative activities that greatly help students deal with real situations they might face in the future.

Conversely, conventional learning in the control group is very inadequate where the instructions received by students are very monotonous, so they cannot perform optimally during the teaching and learning process. As a result, motivation and interest in learning is low, resulting in low learning participation as well. On the other hand, through scaffolding and web exploration techniques, students in the experimental group are guided to explore previously selected quantity and relevant web material and describe the quality for a learning content. Students browse the online site as a learning repertoire (Laborda, 2009). In other words, web material in the WebQuest assignment project provides a knowledge as a language input that Doughty and Long (2002) describe as linguistic complexity, quality, quantity, variation, authenticity, and relevance of the learning material they obtain when they surf the internet. Therefore, exposure to rich, relevant, and complex language input is a scientific finding as to why students in the experimental group are far superior to students in the control group in terms of the level of communicative competence.

V. Conclusion

Based on the findings and discussion previously stated, it can be concluded that the implementation of authentic material-based inductive methods towards improving communicative competence of students can create innovative, creative, collaborative, cooperative learning through facilitation of learning that is capable of generating critical thinking, supporting each other (sharing ideas), problem solving skills, the ability to negotiate (negotiating), provide service orientation, and have cognitive rigidity with a high level of critical thinking (high order critical thinking skills or HOTS). In essence, the learning process boils down to the development of the concept of green & sustainable tourism as a theme of superior research which is described as one of the related fields, namely communication & information technology and green human resources. Inductive learning using authentic material will implicitly support the achievement of the objectives of the above themes by increasing the sources and competitiveness of lecturers and the quality of English learning programs. Quality services will have a positive effect on stakeholders, which will eventually lead to the realization of green & sustainable tourism, the popularity of institutions, and the welfare of society in the end.

Considering the conclusions above, the inductive method using authentic material in modified-conventional learning is an innovative learning model as an alternative to learning English. In this case, the lecturer should actively facilitate scaffolded and blended learning techniques to make students motivated, engaged, active, and creative in doing exercises and communicative activities so learning English becomes fun. In addition, the learning process through training and communicative activities can evoke critical thinking skills of students, such as comparing, classifying, inducing, inferring, analyzing errors, building support, abstraction, analyzing perspectives. Therefore, the creativity of lecturers in designing fun and dynamic exercises and communicative activities can stimulate students' interest in learning and motivation.

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Analysis of Chinese President Xi Jinping's Ecological View: From the Perspective of Transitivity*

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***Abstract*—Analysis of ecological discourse can reflect the relationship between language and environmental issues. According to Systemic-Functional Linguistics, language is not only a means of action but also a means of reflection. This study aims to use systemic functional linguistics to analyze Chinese President Xi Jinping's ecological view based on the book *Xi Jinping's Comments on Socialism Ecological Construction (Abstract)* from the perspective of transitivity, hoping to raise people's ecological consciousness, and lead them to act ecologically and think ecologically in their daily life to protect our precious earth.**

***Index Terms*—ecological discourse analysis, transitivity system, Xi Jingpin, ecological consciousness**

I. Introduction

With the development of society productivity and the progress of civilization, humanity's cognitive capacity and the ability to transform nature gradually enhanced. Due to the human's unlimited exploitation of the nature, environmental issues have already become the global crisis which seriously affected the survival and progress of humankind. Human beings have to rethink their living and production modes, the relationship between human and nature as well as our views about nature and productivity. In the light of the global serious environmental pollution, deficient of natural resources and great damage to the natural ecosystem, in order to build a moderately prosperous society in all respects and the sustainable development of the world, it is necessary for our human to strengthen the construction of ecological civilization, to respect the law of natural development, to protect the balance of natural ecology, and to integrate the ecological concept into the modernization. Eco-linguistics, which studies the impact of language on the life – sustaining relationships among humans, other organisms and the physical environment, is normative oriented towards preserving relationships which sustain life (Alexander & Stibbe, 2014). There are two main research approaches, one is Haugen's mode and the other is Halliday's mode. Haugen's mode believes that ecological environment is the basic condition of the language development. Haugen's mode is always known as the social accountability. Halliday emphasizes the significant function of language in settling environmental problems. Nowadays, some linguists start to study Marxist thought in eco-linguistics. "Ecology studies the relationship between man and nature as well as the relationship between man and man. The concern of Marxism thought on the relationship between man and nature is essentially the same as that of Halliday's model of Eco-linguistics" (Liu & Hui, 2018, p.13). With the prominence of ecological and environmental issues and the transformation of ecological concepts, people gradually realized the important role of Marx and Engels' ecological civilization thoughts in establishing the construction of ecological civilization. As a systematic and scientific theory, the Marxism ecological philosophy has done the all-round research on human and natural relationships as well as tried to build an ecological harmony world. This study aims to use Marxism's natural ecological views as the philosophical foundation and Systemic Functional Linguistics as the linguistic theory basis to analyze Xi Jingpin's ecological views based on the book *Xi Jinping's Comments on Socialism Ecological Construction (Abstract)*, in order to arouse people's ecological consciousness.

II. Data Collection

Since the 18th National Congress of the Communist Party of China, Chinese government has been highlighting the socialism ecological construction. Chinese government has put forward many policies to protect our environment. This

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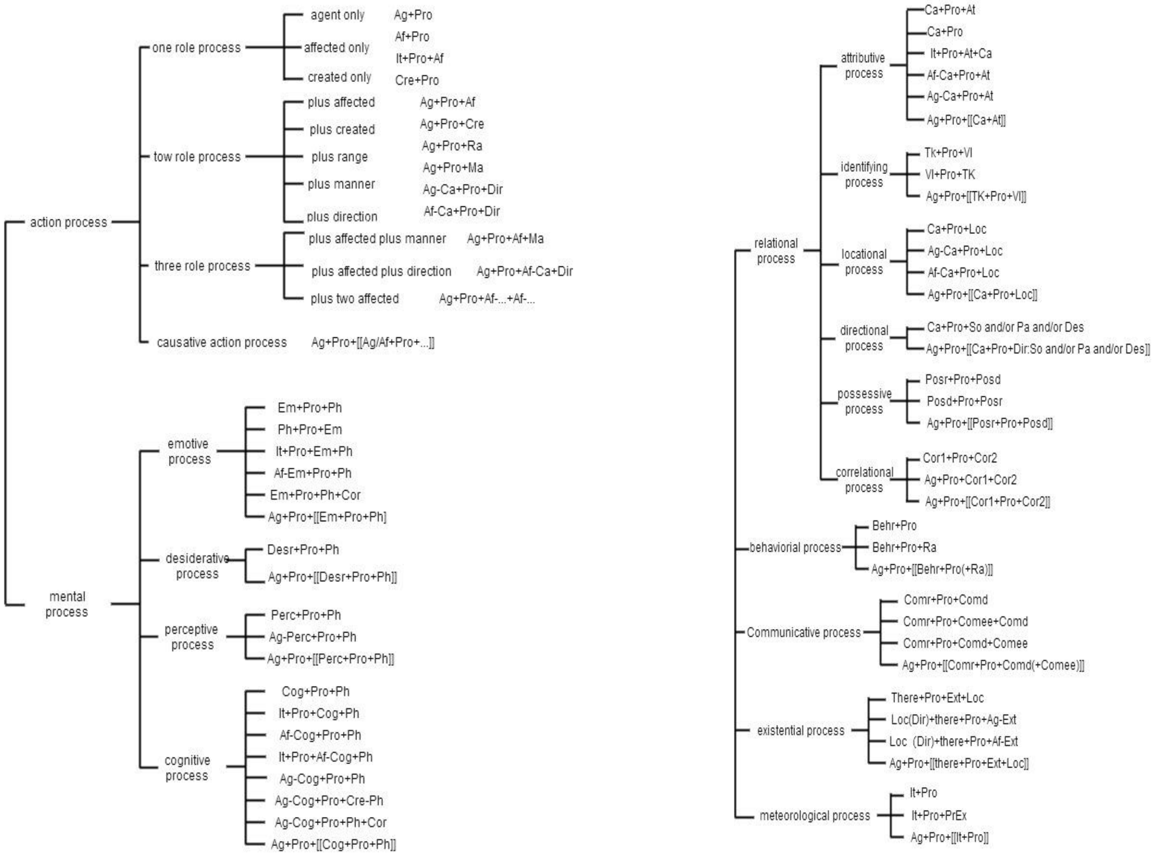
study will take two chapters of *Xi Jinping's Comments on Socialism Ecological Construction (Abstract)* as the data. Written by CPC Central Research Office, this book contains seven special topics about 80 important excerpts, including Chinese president Xi Jinping's reports, speeches, conversations, indications, comments and congratulatory letters which are related to the ecological construction. The author would study the six and seven subjects of the book. The name of the sixth chapter is that "strengthening citizens' environmental awareness and turning the construction of beautiful China into people's conscious actions". The name of the seventh chapter is that "appealing citizen to actively participate in international cooperation and work together to build a beautiful home on the earth". Chapter six includes 23 excerpts and 3459 Chinese characters (contain marks), which discusses the ecological construction from three angels including citizen, company and government. Chapter seven includes 37 excerpts and 8169 Chinese characters (contain marks). This chapter mainly discusses Chinese international ecological cooperation with other countries such as to fulfill the Paris Agreement. The author uses word segmentation software *ITCLAS*, corpus processing software *Antconc* to analyze the data and applies qualitative and quantitative methods to make an analysis of the excerpts, and supplement the methods of inductive and deductive. Furthermore, this study will be based on some basic concepts such as Maxis Ecology Philosophy and use them as the ecological standard to guide people when handling the environmental problems. Moreover, this study will probe ecological view from the angels of citizen, company and the government from *Xi Jinping's Comments on Socialism Ecological Construction (Abstract)* as well as to investigate the influence of the speech after analyzing its language phenomena.

III. Analytical Framework

This study mainly uses transitivity system to analyze the data. Leading with the Systemic Functional Linguistics, combining related research results made by Halliday, Matthiessen, Fawcett and Martin. Chinese linguists Guowen Huang and Wei He (2017) had complete the English Transitivity System and constructed Chinese Transitivity System .

TABLE I
THE ENGLISH TRANSITIVITY SYSTEM NETWORK (GUOWEN HUANG & WEI HE, 2017, P.29-30)



Huang and He have supplemented and further expounded the transitivity system. Similar to Halliday's Transitivity System, they describe human's experiential meaning as seven processes which include action process, mental process, relational process, behavioral process, communicative process, existential process and meteorological process (Huang & He, 2017, p.20). However, Huang and He (2017) also complete it from three aspects. First, they have changed the name of two processes. In table one, we can find that "material process" is changed to "action process" and "verbal process" is changed to "communicative process". Second, they integrate the relational process into six sub categories. Halliday (1985, 1994/2000) has mentioned the meteorological process which is between material process and existential process. But he had not specifically illustrated the meteorological process. Huang and He (2017) regard the meteorological process as a kind of process moods and describe this process in details. Based on the study of linguists Halliday, Matthiessen, Fawcett, and Martin etc. Huang and He (2017) not only have described the semantic structures of the main process moods including action process, relational process and mental process, but also have clearly described the semantic structures of the sub categories process including behavioral process, communicative process, existential process and meteorological process. From the aspect of analyzing, this theory basically covers all of the language phenomena, and it clearly describes the English and Chinese transitivity semantic structures. The particular semantic structures has improved the accuracy of transitivity system and could reduce the uncertainly factors while analyzing the language phenomenon.

This theory has achieved the combination of causativity and transitivity of English short sentences. There are six kinds of causative process which are causative action process, causative mental process, causative relational process, causative behavioral process, causative communicative process and causative existential process. We have analyzed about 110 different types of articles which written in English and Chinese and acquired rich experience about solving practical problems, which is helpful to enhance and construct English and Chinese transitivity system. (Guowen Huang & Wei He, 2017, p.33)

The author would also use the Interpersonal Semantic System under the eco-linguistics. Halliday (1994/2000) thinks interpersonal function mainly includes mood and modality system. Then, Martin and White (2005) investigate the vocabulary and divide appraisal system into attitude, engagement and graduation system and create appraisal theory. Ruijie Zhang (2018) believes from the perspective of eco-linguistics, interpersonal system should be developed on mood, modality and appraisal system.

IV. Findings

A. Word Frequency

Firstly, the author strictly abides by the rules and sorting techniques of Chinese transitivity system to classifying the book *Xi Jinping's Comments on Socialism Ecological Construction (Abstract)*. After marketing the role and process of all the sentences, the author also picks out the frequency of the words in the whole speech. The author has made three tables. Table one is the frequency of all the words in these two chapters Firstly, the author use Chinese word segmentation system *CITCLAS* which created by Chinese Academy of Sciences to segment the data, then the author use corpus search tool *Antconc* to work out the frequency of the words. Table one is about the results of the word frequency.

TABLE II
WORD FREQUENCY

Number	Frequency	Word	Number	Frequency	Word
1	252	de	31	28	shi (time)
2	131	nian (year)	32	27	guo ji (international)
3	99	yue (month)	33	27	she hui (society)
4	97	ri (day)	34	26	zhi shu (plant trees)
5	78	zai	35	26	zi ran (nature)
6	69	yao (need)	36	24	huan jin (environment)
7	66	qi hou bian hua (climate change)	37	23	jiang (will)
8	63	sheng tai (ecology)	38	22	tui dong (push)
9	62	fa zhan (development)	39	21	ren min (people)
10	59	shi (is)	40	20	xie shou (hand in hand)
11	57	dui(to)	41	20	deng (etc)
12	52	zhong guo (China)	42	19	er shi (twenty)
13	50	he (and)	43	19	gong (altogether)
14	48	he zuo (cooperation)	44	19	guo (nation)
15	45	ying (should)	45	19	ying gai (should)
16	42	jian she (construction)	46	19	tan (carbon)
17	40	ren min ri bao (Chinese Public daily news)	47	19	xing dong (action)
18	38	wei (for)	48	19	zhong yao (important)
19	36	le	49	18	di (low)
20	35	wo men (us）	50	18	xie ding (agreement)
21	35	jiang hua (speech)	51	18	fa zhan zhong guo jia (developing country)
22	34	quan qiu (global)	52	18	an quan (safe)
23	33	ba li (Paris)	53	18	xin (new)
24	33	lv se (green)	54	17	shi xian (achieve)
25	31	er (two)	55	16	chi xu (sustainable)
26	30	yi wu (duty)	56	16	huo dong (activity)
27	30	bao hu (protect)	57	16	neng yuan (energy)
28	29	wen ming (civilization)	58	15	chu ban she (press)
29	28	ren lei (human)	59	15	Jia qiang (strength)
30	28	gong tong (together)	60	15	guo jia (nation)

The author selects the top 60 numbers of the word frequency of the data. In the top ten lists, Chinese auxiliary *yao* appears 69 times, *qi hou bian hua* (climate change), *sheng tai* (ecology), *fa zhan* (development) appears 66 times, 63 times and 62 times. Words about nation include *Zhong guo* (China) appears 52 times and *guo jia* (nation) appears 15 times. The words which mean work together include *he zuo* (cooperation), *gong tong* (together), *xie shou* (hand in hand), *gong* (altogether) appears 48 times, 28 times, 19 times, 17 times. The words which are relate to nature includes *lv se* (green), *zhi shu* (plant trees), *zi ran* (nature), *huan jin* (environment), *chi xu* (sustainable) appears 33 times, 26 times, 26 times, 24 times, 16 times. And the words about people include *ren lei* (huamn), *ren min* (people) appears 28 times and 21 times.

B. Participant Role

According to Chinese linguists Wei He and Rong Wei (2017, p.601), the author divides the participant of the data into four kinds, which includes living, non-living, physical non-living and social non-living. Living could be divided into individual one such as personal pronoun, status word and name. Group human body is like people; non-human livings could be divided into flower species and plant species. While physical non-livings include three parts, which are mountain, landform and climate. Finally, social non-livings include things related to social factors such as country, economy, civilization.

TABLE III
PARTICIPANT ROLE IN THE DATA

Living:134	Human being:69	Individual	15
		Group	84
	Non-human being:35	animal	8
		plant	27
Non-living:340	Physical non-living: 40		
	Social non-living：300		

From the table, we find that the total number of participant is 474, while livings have 134 and non-livings have 340. For the livings, the number of human being’s participant is more than the non-human being. And for the non-livings, the number of social non-living is more than physical non-living.

C. Process and Proportion

Based on Chinese Transitivity System, the author has classified the data into seven processes. And count the numbers by using the corpus search tool *Antconc.*

TABLE IV
PROCESS AND PROPORTION OF THE DATA

Process	Proportion
Action Process: 448	71.68%
Relational Process: 118	18.88%
Mental Process: 21	3.36%
Behavioral Process: 0	0
Communicative Process: 14	2.24%
Existential Process: 24	3.84%
Meteorological Process: 0	0
Total number: 625	100%

From table 4, the total number of the process is 625. It is very obvious that the action process account for most of them is about 71.68%. Relational process covers 18.88%. Next one is existential process which covers 3.84%. And mental process, communicative process is 3.36% and 3.84% in the two chapter, while behavioral process and meteorological process have not appeared in the passage.

V. DISCUSSION

After analyzing the speech from Chinese Transitivity System, the author would discuss the speech from three dimensions.

A. Multiple Uses of Causative Word and Auxiliary

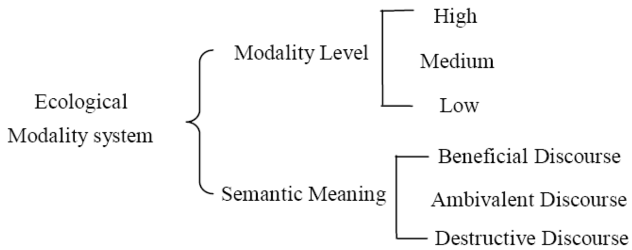
After using corpus research tool *Antconc* to analyze, the author finds that Xi Jinping's speech always use causative word and auxiliary. The causative word includes Chinese *ba, shi, rang, wei a*nd Chinese auxiliary *yao.*

TABLE V
CHINESE CAUSATIVE WORD AND AUXILIARY FREQUENCY

Causative Word	Auxiliary
Ba:9	*Yao*:69
Shi:7	
Rang:8	
Wei:25	
Total:49	Total:69

From table 5, we can find the frequency. Based on the modality system (Ruijie Zhang, 2018, p.103), the level of the modality and the semantic meaning have a close connection with each other. When we analyze the modality of the sentence, linguist should also consider the ecological meaning to estimate the semantic values of the passage.

TABLE VI
ECOLOGICAL MODALITY SYSTEM (ZHANG, 2018, P.104)



Chinese linguist Wei He (2013) told that Chinese auxiliary *yao* could be the meaning of permission for the word which follows *yao.* It means that the word *yao* supplement the author's attitude towards to the following actions. In English, the words *must, can* are often used to explain the author's attitude. Considering that, the modality level of Chinese word *yao* is in high modality level. Lei Wang (2018) concluded that Comparing with the ordinary sentence, sentences with the causative word *ba* are more subjective and the attitude is much stronger. Sentences with ba could be seen as one kind of special resource which emphasizes the high level of attitude. Jinfeng Li (2017) said that, when it comes to command and permission, Chinese word *rang* is in medium level and full of strong subjective attitude. The Causative word *shi* could be the degree modifier (Jinyuan Zhang, 2015, p.22). The degree modifier means to modify the modality of the core words. And causative word *shi* could make the level of the attitude much higher.

The main theme of these two chapter is appealing for the citizen, company, and government to work together to protect our environment. The theme of chapter six is about to strength the ecological consciousness of people, and to transfer thoughts into practical action. According to Maxis ecological philosophy, human is a part of the nature and nature is a part of human's body. As a kind of creature, human's consciousness, life, and activity both originate from nature. According to Max and Engels, human's living and development cannot depart nature, and we must respect and protect nature in a harmonious way (Jin Liu, 2011, p.39). It means that without nature, human cannot survive in the earth. Chapter seven is to appeal for every country to be concerned about the nature. Just as Xi Jinping (2013, p.23) said: "nature is full of happiness and beauty, and protecting nature should be a habit and responsibility." We can find that *Xi Jinping's Comments on Socialism Ecological Construction (Abstract)* is a beneficial discourse. It not only calls upon the citizen of China but also people all over the world to protect nature. And the book also has used many causative words and auxiliaries which are in high modality showing the strong resolution to carry on the great career. Analyzed from the modality level and the semantic meaning of the passage, this passage conforms to the ecological views of the Maxis. It has great influence and ability to broadcast the ecological conscious to the people around the world and lead us to protect our nature.

B. Eco-oriented Participant

Chinese linguists Huang Guowen and Chen Yang (2018) finds that there is a series of ecological expectation level towards participant. We can see this from table six.

TABLE VII
THE CHAIN OF PARTICIPANT EXPECTATION LEVEL (WENJUAN ZHOU, 2018, P.528)

Individual living+-+-+-Group living
(Action) (Cognitive)

↑

Non-human living+-+-+-Human Living+-+-+-Physical Non-living+-+-+-Social Non-living
(Beneficial Discourse)+1 +6 +11 +16

Based on the Marxism Ecological Philosophy, the data is a beneficial discourse. Zhou (2018) predicts the beginning of the chain is 1 and uses the number 5 as one level. Non-human living is in the first level, the expectation of human living is in the second. Physical non-human living is in third level and the social non-living is the top level. As for the individual living, people expect them to take practical action. And for the group living, people expect them to have ecological consciousness.

According to the data of the participant, in these two chapters non-human livings appear 35 times such as trees, wild animals. Human livings appear 69 times such as teenager and human being. While physical non-Livings appears 40 times such as river, sky and social non-livings which appears 300 times such as ecological civilization. In the process of Marxism in China, Chinese government has put out the "People Oriented" policy. It means to uphold the views of human and take the responsibility to protect the environment by insisting sustainable development mode. On the one hand, these words remind people to love the plants and animals, on the other hand, human beings live in a sustainable way. As a beneficial discourse, these languages are in line with the features of Chinese language contexts.

C. Eco-oriented Process

Natural production power means the productivity which involves with practice. Human being's basic productivity mood is practice (Xiaoxia Du, 2014, p.35). In the process of practice, human and nature could become one harmony unit. Through practice, the nature not only could sacrifice itself but the human beings can use their advanced technology and sustainable production styles to complete and mend nature.

We can see that the number of total action processes are 448 times, accounting for 71.68%. The view of practice is the theory principle and natural productivity consciousness of Marxism. Numbers of action processes stimulate the great significant of practice. The key verb of the action process could be divide into 4 parts, including action oriented such as *bao hu* (protect), *can yu* (join), leading oriented such as *chang yi* (propose), willing oriented such as *xie shou* (hand in hand), *rong he* (combine), developing oriented such as *jian she* (construct), *tui dong* (push). From these words, we can find the clear ecological protection views and positive ecological conscious. The passage also largely uses relational process, about 118 times and account for 18.88%. Marxism ecological views believe that the production of human's society is the combination of nature relationship and social relationship. There are two main relationships in the world, one is the relationship between people, and the other is the relationship between nature and society. The two relationships connect with each other and could not be taken apart. The relational process highlights the relation between nature and human beings and the future of the world. Such as the sentence "*fa zhan lin ye* (Plant trees) [Tk] *is* [Pro] *quan mian jian cheng xiao kang she hui de zhong yao nei rong* (important contents to build a moderately prosperous society in all aspects) [Vl] (relational process)"which explicitly shows that the important relationship between nature and our society. Mental process sentences such as "*ai* (love) [Pro] *lv* (green) [Ph] (mental process)" and "([Desr]) *xi wang* (hope) [Pro] " which deliver kind of great expectation towards the future. Communicative process sentence such as "([Comr]) *zan shang* (praise) [Pro] *fa fang zuo wei dong dao zhu fu chu de ju da nu li* (the great efforts that made by the meeting host French) [Comd] (communicative process)" which make the speech more dynamic. There are also existential process such as “*ge di huan bao tou ru* (the investment of ecological protection in each city) [Ag] *dou zai* (both are) [Pro] kuai su zeng zhang (developing in a fast way) [Ext] (existential process)” which means Chinese ecological construction is on its way.

From the above analysis, Xi’s ecological views is full of resolution and sincerity to call upon every citizen to care about our environment and to live in a sustainable way and work together to handle the ecological crisis hand in hand.

VI. Conclusion

Based on Chinese Transitivity System (Huang & He, 2017), Ecological Interpersonal System (Zhang, 2018) theory and Marxism Ecological Philosophy, the author analyzes Xi Jinping’s ecological views through two chapters of the book *Xi Jinping’s Comments on Socialism Ecological Construction (Abstract) from* three dimensions. The author analyzes the data by using the word segmentation software *ITCLAS*, corpus processing software *Antconc* which make the analyzing more scientific and precise. We find that Xi’s speech about ecological construction is persuasive and visionary. With rich connotation and profound thought, Xi Jinping’s ecological views are of great guiding significance for the environmental protection. Human beings have the right to pursue better life, however, we also should concern the living of nature. As nature has its own way of living and its own way of running (Ruijie Zhang, 2018, p.33), like Chinese linguist Guowen Huang (2016) said that we should be an ecological man who is full of ecological consciousness rather than ordinary homo economics who grabs what he can for himself.

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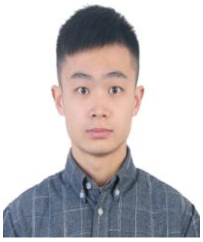

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A Review of Mobile Learning Research at Home and Abroad in Recent 20 Years*

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***Abstract*—Mobile learning is a new learning mode with the increasing popularity of multimedia technology and Internet application. It not only emphasizes the learner's subjective status and initiative, but also helps learners construct meanings through various forms of interaction. It is becoming a research area of multi-disciplinary participation, cross-cutting and Multi-thematic synthesis, and gradually becoming a core research topic in the field of educational technology at home and abroad. The analysis and classification of mobile learning research at home and abroad in the past two decades will help deepen the understanding of mobile technology tools and seamlessly apply them to mobile learning practice, so that technology can really promote learning.**

***Index Terms*—mobile learning research, review, home and abroad**

I. Introduction

The "Wireless Andrew" research project launched in 1994 was the first mobile learning research project in the world. After the project was launched, the global mobile learning research project was launched. Until 2000, Dr. Desmond Keegan, a renowned international distance education expert, introduced mobile learning to China in his report on the 40-year anniversary of Shanghai Television University. In his paper "From Distance Learning to E-Learning to Mobile Learning", Dr. Keegen divides distance learning into three stages: distance learning, e-learning and mobile learning from the perspective of distance education, according to the different forms and means of learning. He is optimistic that these three forms of learning are forming today's distance learning universities, network universities and not yet. Come to Mobile University. In recent years, with the development of mobile technology and application services, as well as the change of learning needs in the information society, education technology, adult education, computer, information technology and other fields began to pay attention to and study mobile learning. Major enterprises (mobile device manufacturers, communication companies) and schools began to explore the practical forms of mobile learning. Nowadays, mobile learning research has gradually become a hot academic topic, which has become the core area of relevant disciplines. After nearly 20 years of research and development, China's mobile learning research has made unprecedented development.

Mobile learning (M-Learning) is a new type of digital learning mode which combines the development of mobile technology and digital learning technology. In Europe and the United States, M-Learning or M-Education is generally referred to, and in China mobile learning or mobile education is generally described.

II. The Definition of Mobile Learning

At present, there are different understandings about the definition of mobile learning from different perspectives, which can be roughly divided into three categories: first, mobile learning as a new form of distance education; second, mobile learning as an extension of e-learning; third, from the perspective of cognitive learning, mobile and situational characteristics of mobile learning make it a brand-new one. Technology and learning style.

Mobile learning is a new form of learning that uses wireless mobile communication network technology and wireless mobile communication equipment (such as mobile phone, PDA, Pocket PC, etc.) to obtain educational information, educational resources and educational services. Compared with other forms of learning, mobile learning has the characteristics of convenient learning, individualized teaching, rich interaction and context relevance. (Ye Chenglin et al., 2004)

Some scholars have generalized the definition of mobile learning as a new form of learning that uses wireless mobile communication network technology and wireless mobile communication equipment (such as mobile phones), personal digital assistants (PDA, Pocket PC) to obtain educational information, educational resources and educational services. Mobile learning refers to the learner's ability to obtain information, resources or services at any place and at any time according to their own needs under the support of the network and terminal devices (smart phones, Pads, e-readers, etc.).

* Fund projects: Shandong Social Sciences Planning Research Project "Analysis and Mechanism of College Students' English Mobile Learning Adaptation from the Perspective of Dynamic System Theory" **(17CWZJ16)**; Shandong Education Science Planning Project "Application of Mobile Micro learning Based on Mobile Phone Terminal in College English Teaching" **(BCGW2017011);** Taishan University Teaching Reform Project "Research on the Application Practice and Effect of Mobile Learning Mode of College English Based on Smart-phones" **(201617)**

It is a new form of distance learning and provides the possibility for learners' lifelong learning (Tang Yueming, 2016).

The Mobile Education Laboratory of Peking University Modern Educational Technology Center defines mobile education as follows: Mobile education refers to the interactive teaching activities that students and teachers use mobile devices (such as mobile phones) more conveniently and flexibly, relying on the mature wireless mobile network, Internet and multimedia technology. Recommunication network technology and wireless mobile communication equipment (such as mobile phones, personal digital assistant PDA, Pocket-PC, etc.) to obtain educational information, en Haifeng (2010) believes that mobile learning is a new form of learning that uses wireless mobile ducational resources and educational services. The goal of mobile learning is to hope that learners can learn anything at anytime, anywhere and in any way.

In Finland, mobile learning is defined as a new way of learning using mobile devices because of the increasing demand for geospatial mobility and flexible learning, which is co-sponsored by Erlcsson, Insite, Telenor Mobile and IT Fornebu Knowation.

Clark Quinn, Director of Knowledge Planet's Cognitive Systems, defines mobile learning from a technical point of view: mobile learning is digital learning through IA devices, including Palms, Windows CE devices and digital cellular phones. When talking about mobile learning, he said, "Mobile learning is the combination of mobile computing and digital learning. It includes learning resources anytime and anywhere, powerful search ability, rich interaction, strong support for effective learning and performance-based evaluation. It is digital learning through information devices such as handheld computers, personal digital assistants or mobile phones. Dye and others define mobile learning as a kind of learning that can be carried out at anytime and anywhere with the help of mobile computing devices. Mobile computing devices used in mobile learning must be able to effectively present learning content and provide two-way communication between teachers and learners. Harris defines mobile learning as the combination of mobile computing technology and digital learning, which can bring learners an experience of learning anywhere and anytime. He further explained that mobile learning should enable learners to enjoy fragmented teaching anytime and anywhere through mobile phones or PDAs, and in this process, wireless information devices are often used more. Chabra and Figueired combine the idea of distance education and make a broader definition of mobile learning: mobile learning is to be able to use any device, at any time and anywhere to receive learning.

To sum up, we can generalize the definition of mobile learning as follows: mobile learning is an extension of digital learning, which means that learners can obtain information, resources and carry out learning anytime and anywhere with the help of miniaturized mobile computing devices and mobile interconnection technology.

III. A Review of Mobile Learning Research

Mobile learning is a new learning mode with the increasing popularity of multimedia technology and Internet application. It not only emphasizes the learner's subjective status and initiative, but also helps learners construct meanings through various forms of interaction. In view of the important role of mobile learning for learners, the academic community has also discussed mobile learning of English. Domestic research on English mobile learning mainly focuses on the following four categories:

The first is the theoretical model of English mobile learning, which involves the construction and exploration of mobile English teaching or learning mode;

The second is the research on English mobile learning technology, which mainly focuses on the design and development of mobile English learning system;

And the third is the Research on the construction of English mobile learning resources. Including the design and application of mobile learning resource packages, the exploration of integration of information technology or assisted mobile digital learning resource system with English curriculum;

The fourth category is the practical study of English mobile learning, aiming at focusing on the application and Empirical Study of mobile learning in English language competence development, including the empirical study of English listening, speaking and writing teaching and vocabulary teaching. Research on the application of sink learning;

The last one is the survey of the current situation of English mobile learning, aiming at investigating and analyzing the current situation of college students' English mobile learning, putting forward improvement strategies to improve the efficiency of mobile learning, and providing reference for future research.

The classification of English mobile learning research abroad is similar to that in China. It mainly involves the exploration of theoretical models or methods, the technical research of improving English vocabulary level and overall language level, the practical research of improving learners' English listening and writing skills and two or more skills, as well as the exploration of the use of English Mobile Learning strategies.

It can be seen that in recent years, researchers at home and abroad have focused on a single theoretical model, technology and design research, resource construction, strategy use or practical application of mobile learning. Multidimensional comprehensive research on English mobile learning needs to be carried out.

IV. Researches on Mobile Learning in China

A. Research on English Mobile Learning Resources Construction

Huang Chengyun et al. (2010) constructed a mobile learning system based on cloud computing, which greatly satisfied the learners' demand for timely and accurate access to learning resources. Second, innovations in the application field, such as Pang Chao et al. (2014), proposed a mobile learning system with postal characteristics and high efficiency on the basis of the original distance learning system. Yangye et al. (2014) of Jiangsu Normal University crossed the line. The key points and process of platform resource development and design are elaborated in detail.

B. Research on English Mobile Learning Technology

In order to improve learners' learning efficiency, the researchers put forward three application modes of mobile learning based on situational awareness, games and enhanced reality (Tang Yueming et al, 2013). Mobile learning has become a new form of distance learning, with high mobility, situational and interactive characteristics, and has realized learners' desire to learn at anytime, anywhere and with them (Zheng Jieqiong, etc.). Scholars Wu Lili et al. (2012) elaborated the key technologies and application prospects of augmented reality technology in smart phone terminal applications; researchers Yang Wenzheng et al. (2007) elaborated the development tool of mobile learning resources, "Flash Lite", and the advantages, processes and key technologies of using "Flash Lite" .

C. Research on the Theoretical Model of English Mobile Learning

Huang Ronghuai et al. (2008) introduced the theory, current situation and trend of mobile learning in detail; Fang Haiguang et al. (2011) proposed the roadmap of mobile learning system environment, which includes three levels (mobile learning system equipment environment, mobile learning system support environment, mobile learning system service environment) and six elements (network, terminal, platform, resources, content and activities). Yu Shengquan (2007) systematically combed the three generations of mobile learning from knowledge transfer to cognitive construction, and then to situational cognitive development, which laid a solid theoretical foundation for researchers of mobile learning and had a high academic reference value.

D. Practical Research on English Mobile Learning

Chen Yiqin (2013) took adult learners of online NPC as an example, and conducted a questionnaire survey on the current situation and needs of adult distance learners' mobile learning. Reflections mainly focus on rational thinking and practical puzzlement of mobile learning. Liu Bin (2010) proposed that mobile learning should be viewed comprehensively, dialectically and rationally, and mobile learning research should be carried out in combination with specific conditions, so as to maximize its value and avoid "improper" practice.

E. Survey of Mobile Learning in English

Yuan Yi (2016) combed the relevant literature and research results of mobile learning at home and abroad, based on the theory of lifelong learning and constructivist learning as the theoretical basis of this paper, to explore the current situation of mobile learning in College English. This study is divided into four dimensions: English Mobile Learning Tools, English Mobile Learning Information Resources, English Mobile Learning Behavior and English Mobile Learning Attitude. The application of mobile learning in College English is analyzed by questionnaire and literature. We have a comprehensive understanding of the respondents' gender, grade, specialty, types of autonomous learning and their understanding of mobile learning. Yang Liyuan and Li Jiawei (2015) focused on questionnaire survey, integrated literature analysis, statistical description and other research methods, selected Jiaying College students as the research object, investigated and analyzed the current situation of college students' English mobile learning, and put forward improvement strategies: attaching importance to the promotion of mobile learning, facing the role of mobile learning, setting learning goals scientifically, enhancing self-monitoring awareness, and benefit. Build a mobile learning platform with social tools. Yang Lin et al. (2014) surveyed and analyzed the current situation of mobile learning by using smartphones among college students in Gansu Province through statistical questionnaires, explored the needs and expectations of students for mobile learning, and put forward conclusions and suggestions for future research on mobile learning. Lin Moujin and Huang Huibin (2014) analyzed the current situation of College Students' understanding of mobile learning, the conditions of mobile learning, the utilization of mobile learning resources, the selection of mobile learning content and the effect of mobile learning through a questionnaire survey of mobile learning among college students in Xiamen. In view of the existing problems, the paper put forward some suggestions and strategies to improve the efficiency of mobile learning among college students. Miao Hongyan et al. (2014) established a model of College Students' mobile learning behavior based on TAM model. Taking the students of a comprehensive university in Jiangsu as the research sample, using the method of questionnaire survey and using SPSS to test the hypothesis of the model, it was found that college students' mobile learning behavior was influenced by perceived usefulness of mobile learning and their attitudes towards mobile learning. The perceived usability of mobile learning is determined by perceived usefulness and ease of use; the perceived ease of use of mobile learning is determined by perceived convenience of mobile learning and the degree of personalized choice; the perceived usefulness of mobile learning is determined by the needs of interpersonal relationships and perceived ease of use of mobile learning; the survival needs of College students and the needs of individual growth and development have no usefulness to perceived mobile learning. Significant impact. Zhang Yumei and Wang Xueming (2012) analyzed the current situation of mobile learning of Yinchuan University students through questionnaires in order to understand the mobile learning equipment, attitudes and behaviors that college students often adopt in order to provide reference for the development of mobile learning system and learning resources. Zhang Jieyin and Zheng Yanlin (2011) selected some college students as the research object to conduct a questionnaire survey, based on data analysis of College Students' attitudes and needs for mobile learning. Zhang Hao et al. (2010) Through the analysis of some students' understanding and interest in mobile learning in Yangzhou University, pointed out the difficulties encountered by college students in the process of mobile learning, and put forward their own opinions and suggestions on the development and design of mobile learning. Wu Shuting (2009) analyzed the current situation of College Students' mobile learning from three dimensions: learning tools, learning resources and learning behavior, using questionnaire, literature and interviews.

V. Researches on Mobile Learning Abroad

Researches abroad on mobile learning mainly focuses on some developed countries in Europe and North America. Stanford University's "Mobile Phone Learning" project is a precedent to explore the field of mobile learning. It is also a classical experimental study, which has a high international reputation.

A. Discussion on Theoretical Model or Method

Forhberg et al. (2009) strictly screened 102 mobile learning projects before 2007. Using the task model of Mobile Learners proposed by Sharples and Taylor, each project was analyzed based on six dimensions: context, tools, control, communication, subject and object (goal), and typical items in each dimension were introduced. The study creatively proposes that mobile learning can better support learning in the corresponding context, but it requires learners to use knowledge in the context rather than get knowledge. Because novice learners are often difficult to use knowledge, the participants of mobile learning should first locate themselves in advanced learners, so as to bring into play the maximum potential of mobile learning as a tool to stimulate deep reflection, communication and cooperation. This view is the third cognitive orientation of mobile learning mentioned by the author.

B. Exploring the Use of English Mobile Learning Strategies

Keskin and Metcalf (2011) combed the research literature of mobile learning in various fields including enterprises, universities and the army from the perspective of mobile learning theory. They listed behaviorism, cognitivism, constructivism, connectionism, situational learning, problem-based learning, location-based learning, context-aware learning, collaborative learning, and so on. Conversational learning, lifelong learning, informal learning, sociocultural theory, activity theory, navigation theory and so on. Combining with practical projects, this paper sorted out the implementation points of mobile learning which each learning theory concerned and the mobile technology which it mainly relied on. Ting studied a new form of cooperative learning in 2013: interwoven learning. This kind of learning is not only a conventional way to promote students' collective problem solving by mobile technology, but also an integration of learner-learner, learner-content, learner-instructor interaction in mobile technology, from communication itself to knowledge.

C. Technical Research on Improving English Vocabulary Level and Language Overall Level

Motiwalla (2007) affirmed the development prospects of mobile learning and pointed out that some technical problems, such as the use of human-computer interface, may become the bottleneck of the development of mobile learning. Tabuenca and Kalz (2015) and other researchers take New Zealand college students as subjects. When learning geography knowledge, how mobile technology helps learners self-regulate the learning time of each chapter. Through monitoring training, students' ability of time monitoring has been significantly improved, and their academic performance has been steadily improved. Antonio Garcia-Cabot (2013), a scholar from the University of Alcala in Spain, conducted an empirical study on the use of adaptive mobile systems in mobile learning to assess learning content and skills, skills and situations. The results show that compared with e-learning, mobile adaptation has a limited impact on the performance of practical skills learning. Researchers also collected information about the context of mobile system usage and compared it with traditional computer access. The results show that students learn in similar environments independently of the way they use to acquire learning content.

D. A Practical Study of English Listening and Writing Skills and More than Two Skills of High-level Learners

Olga Viberg (2013) took 345 college students from Sweden and China as subjects to investigate their attitudes towards mobile devices in second language and foreign language learning under different cultural backgrounds. The survey results show that the respondents' attitudes towards mobile learning are very positive. The top three factors leading to their positive attitudes are: personalization of mobile learning (83%), collaborative spirit required for mobile learning (74%) and authenticity of resources obtained through mobile devices (73%).

VI. Conclusion

In 2012, the Ministry of Education issued the Ten-Year Development Plan of Educational Informatization (2011-2020). It pointed out that higher education informatization is an effective way to promote higher education reform, innovation and quality improvement, as well as an innovative frontier of educational informatization development. It also put forward that by promoting the deep integration of information technology and education and teaching, promoting the modernization of educational content, teaching means and methods, and realizing personnel training. Innovation of Nurturing Model (No. 5 of Education Technology [2012]. Mobile learning, with its advantages of mobility, wireless, portability and resource sharing, will not only fill the gap of traditional learning, but also become a new hot spot of educational informatization (Huang Zhenyi, 2017).

As a new way of learning with the increasing popularity of multimedia technology and Internet applications, mobile learning makes learning more free and unconstrained, and greatly improves learning efficiency. At the same time, mobile learning emphasizes learners' subjective status and initiative, which is more dependent on the development of information technology and mobile device applications. Through digital simulation, collaborative learning and conversational interaction modules are created. Mobile learning can effectively help learners visualize their learning management, give full play to their "situation", "collaboration", "conversation" and "management" functions, and help learners construct meanings (Yang Yang, 2016). However, in recent years, most of the research on mobile learning focuses on the practical research of technology and design. The Strategy Research Based on theory is not systematic and in-depth. Some researchers (Chen Weichao, Liu Navy, 2009; Liu Yandong, 2012; Mou Hongwei, 2017, etc.) try to study the instructional design of mobile learning under the guidance of constructivist learning theory, but there is no structure. We should make up for the shortcomings of the above research in future research. Under the background of current teaching informationizion, we should adopt scientific learning theory to guide the construction of contemporary college students' English mobile learning model, carry out teaching practice, and adopt quantitative and qualitative research methods to verify the learning effect, and propose changes. Make suggestions to maximize the learning effect.

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Vocabulary Learning via Reading: Is Input Modification Useful?

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***Abstract*—Since authentic texts address native speakers, they might lack the reader-friendly attributes which can help EFL learners to read and understand them. Also, learning the new vocabulary through reading can be difficult for EFL learners. As such, in order to utilize these texts as teaching materials in EFL classes, they should be modified. The present study investigated Iranian intermediate-level EFL learners and how they acquire English language vocabulary incidentally from modified English texts while their primary task is reading for meaning. In order to measure the impact of lexical input modification on the improvement of foreign language vocabulary learning, 60 adult Iranian EFL learners between the ages of 18 and 22 in two intact classes were selected and randomly assigned to two homogenous groups of control and experimental. The analysis of the data revealed that incidental second language vocabulary learning could be improved effectively by lexical input modifications such as lexical and typographical elaboration.**

***Index Terms*—input modification, vocabulary learning, input enhancement, input elaboration, reading**

I. INTRODUCTION

Texts which are primarily written by and for native speakers lack L2 reader-friendly features which can work as an obstacle in the acquisition of vocabulary through the reading activity. Reading as a source of input for EFL learners should possess several features which are often observed in and characterized by face-to-face conversational interaction between proficient and less proficient users of a language. Modification of the reading materials is one way to provide EFL learners with an excellent source of input and boost the learning of vocabulary. The purpose of modification of input, either in spoken or written language, is to increase comprehensibility. Several studies have focused on the effects of input modifications of various types and forms. As Sharwood Smith (1991) puts forward, the type of input received by learners can facilitate their comprehension of the language. One question in SLA research is how modified input boosts the comprehension of EFL learners.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Text modification intends to facilitate comprehension of the readers and is of three types: input simplification, input elaboration, and input enhancement. Through input simplification, those vocabulary items and grammatical structures which are particularly comprehensible for native speakers are removed from a text, while in input elaboration, as the name suggests, the text remains intact but the definition of the unfamiliar words are given in the text. Also, the sentences with complicated syntactic structures are simplified to enhance the readers' comprehension. However, input enhancement employs bolding, italicizing, or underlining in order to draw learners' attention toward the target structures of the language. Visual input enhancement, as a type of input enhancement, can stimulate learners to pay attention to specific features of language by "manipulation of the written input" (Loewen & Inceoglu, 2016, p. 90).

Schmidt's (2001) Noticing Hypothesis provides a theoretical justification for applying input enhancement. It is worth mentioning that most of the research studies conducted on input enhancement have focused on language forms rather than vocabulary (e.g., Izumi, 2002; Jahan &Kormos, 2015; Leow, Egi, Nuevo, & Tsai, 2003; Rashtchi & Gharanli, 2010; White, 1998). However, there are studies which have addressed the role of input enhancement in the learning of the second or foreign language vocabulary. One such study is Kim (2006) that manipulated lexical elaboration and textual enhancement to examine whether they could enhance Korean English language learners' incidental vocabulary learning. The result of the study showed that lexical elaboration led the participants to recall the words and structures more effectively. However, Rott (2007) discovered that the frequency of input or semantic enhancement gained by employing glosses was more effective than the modification of input in enhancing the rate of productive vocabulary gain.

Furthermore, among the studies of enhancement, two factors of oral input enhancement and working memory were also found by Sagarra and Abbuhl (2013) to raise the effectiveness of recasts. Using other enhancement techniques and tools has been investigated, as well. Gascoigne (2006), for example, found that the production of second language materials embedded with enhancement activities such as reading from an illuminated screen can have powerful effects on language learning. Barcroft (2003) investigated the role of input enhancement in vocabulary learning of English native speakers who were learning Spanish as their second language. The participants were exposed to 24 Spanish new words and their English equivalents. In the first phase of the study, 9 out of 24 words and in the second phase, 3 out of 24 words were enhanced. The results revealed no effect either on the learning rate of the 9 enhanced words or unenhanced words in the first phase of the study. However, a positive effect was noted for enhancing 3 out of 24 words on learning rates for the enhanced words based on some dependent measures.

Bishop (2004) assessed the effects of textual modification or enhancement on noticing and understanding of prefabricated chunks and found that the participants in the experimental group paid more attention to the chunks which were unfamiliar for them and had a significantly better performance on the comprehension test. Later, Gasgoine (2006) found a positive effect on another type of explicit input enhancement and modification in a study that investigated diacritics in beginners learning French and Spanish. In her study, a group of learners (the experimental group) was required to retype a passage in either French or Spanish and then was given key codes showing how to produce diacritics. The results revealed that these students had a significantly higher recall of diacritics than the control group. This finding suggests that explicit measures such as asking students to notice the enhanced forms may be more effective at this level, particularly if combined with repeated and more prolonged exposure to the targeted items.

Input flood, as Han, Park, and Combs (2008) clarify, is another type of enhancement or modification that can add to second language acquisition which grows the salience of a target language feature through artificially modifying its recurrence. An extensive body of studies support the effectiveness of ‘input flood’ which illustrates that reiteration is a critical element in the process of approaching proficiency in the second language (e.g., Ellis, 2002; Rashtchi & Mohammad Yousefi, 2017; VanPatten, Williams, &Rott, 2004). Research on single words shows that input flood helps second language learners experience unknown items before the actual occurrence of learning (Chen & Truscott, 2010; Pigada& Schmitt, 2006; Webb, 2007). The Chinese participants in Chen and Truscott’s (2010) study, who were learning English were exposed to unknown words which were repeated one, three or seven times in 13 reading passages. Following Webb (2007), the researchers administered seven tests to exploit the diverse aspects of lexical knowledge and came up with the conclusion that at both productive and receptive levels, repetition had a positive impact on learners’ learning.

As a consequence of the fact that researchers have developed an interest in ‘input flood’, Hamed Mahvelati and Mukundan (2012) compared the effect of input flooding (as an implicit input enhancement activity) with consciousness-raising (as an explicit activity) on the learning of lexical and grammatical collocations and found that the participants in the consciousness-raising group performed significantly better than the input flooding group. In another study that focused on input flood, Szudarski and Carter (2014) investigated Polish students’ learning of verb-noun and adjective-noun collocations. Two instructional strategies of input flood only, and a combination of input flood with input enhancement were utilized. Both the receptive and productive tests indicated that the integration of input flood and input enhancement is more helpful in second language collocation learning. Choi (2016) also explored the effect of textual enhancement on the learning of collocations and used two passages, one with target collocations enhanced in the text and another passage consisting of unenhanced collocations. Findings showed significantly superior performance in the textually enhanced group in comparison with the control group on the target collocations test. The study also showed that the duration of eye fixation of the groups on the enhanced items which was measured by using eye tracking software was longer for the experimental group and the control group had a better performance in recalling the non-enhanced collocations. The implication of the study was that although textual enhancement could promote noticing the target words, the increased attention might negatively affect the participants’ recall of the texts.

Conversely, many studies and research findings illustrate the failure of input enhancement techniques in making a difference in the process of learning certain linguistic items and structures. Leow (2001) explored the effects of textual enhancement and noticing on Spanish formal commands and intake. Thirty-eight native speakers of English who had enrolled in a first-year Spanish language program participated in the study. The same 242-word text was read by both a control group and an experimental group. The experimental group was given a textually modified version, in which all targeted verb forms were underlined, and only the formal imperative morpheme was bolded. The researcher did not find a significant difference between the noticing of experimental and control groups regarding the enhanced features of language or their comprehension of the reading text. Leow also found no significant advantage of the enhancement on the readers’ intake.

Izumi (2002) examined whether output and visual input enhancement could facilitate the learning of English relativization by adult ESL learners. The results of his study did not show the priority of input enhancement in the process of learning. Barcroft (2002) explored the effect of semantic and structural elaboration on learning Spanish vocabulary and reported that, intensifying semantic processing can “inhibit one's ability to encode the formal properties of new words” (p. 323). In their study, Leow et al. (2003) examined whether textual modification could be beneficial concerning ESL or EFL learning. The 72 first-year college students who participated in their study were exposed to texts where English present perfect and present subjunctive structures were either enhanced or not enhanced. No significant benefit could be found in textual input enhancement over the unenhanced input in the immediate recognition and comprehension posttests. Combs’ (2008) study on topic familiarity and input enhancement indicated that neither topic familiarity nor textual input enhancement could have an impact on the learning of the language forms. As Lee and Huang (2008) found out through a thorough review of 16 prior studies and literature search which had been conducted on the effects of 'visual input enhancement on grammar learning,' the second language learners who were provided with the visually-enhanced texts and the ones who were not, had performed almost similarly in grammar learning. Kim's (2010) study intended to explore whether visual input enhancement could increase the salience of unfamiliar English vocabulary while reading. The results revealed that although visual input enhancement helped the learners notice the forms, the rate of unknown vocabulary acquisition within the reading process did not increase.

Petchko (2011) investigated the impact of the textual modification on incidental vocabulary learning while reading among intermediate EFL students. Twelve non-words enhanced in the texts were given to the students in the experimental group, while the control group did not have them. Productive and receptive tests were given to both groups to measure the effects of the treatment regarding the students' recognition of the meanings of words and to examine whether they could remember the meanings of the target items. The results of the posttest showed no significant differences between the groups regarding the recognition of forms and recall of the meanings. In another study conducted by Ertürk (2013) the comparison of pushed output, input processing, and visual enhancement did not show any privilege in favor of visual input enhancement for drawing the participants' attention toward the forms under scrutiny.

Although extensive studies have addressed the efficacy of input enhancement in the acquisition of forms and features, the findings are controversial mainly because of the wide range of different methodologies adopted by researchers (Han et al., 2008). As Han et al. (2008) pointed out, in order to draw any reliable conclusion concerning the role of textual enhancement in attracting learners' attention to form further research is required. Valuable information can be provided on the effectiveness of these techniques, merely by examining their effects separately or in combination.

The purpose of the present study was to determine whether lexical input modification through reading had any statistically significant impact on the improvement of second language vocabulary acquisition of Iranian intermediate level EFL learners. Therefore, it seemed crucial to provide an answer to the following research question:

RQ: *Do input modification via lexical elaboration and typographical enhancement and no input modification similarly affect Iranian EFL learners' vocabulary learning?*

III. METHOD

A. Participants

Sixty intermediate Iranian EFL learners aged between 18 and 22 years in two intact classes participated in the present quasi-experimental research with non-equivalent control group pretest-posttest design. They were studying TEFL in Islamic Azad University, North Tehran Branch and had taken a reading course in the second semester of their study and were selected based on convenience sampling. As there was no information available to determine the homogeneity of the participants regarding their proficiency level at the outset of the study, a general English proficiency, extracted from the Comprehensive English Language Test (CELT) was administered. The results revealed no statistically significant differences between the groups' general language proficiency before the treatment.

B. Instrumentation

The researchers used three different instruments for data collection. The first instrument was a general proficiency test which was extracted from the CELT. The test initially consisted of 70 questions and was piloted with 30 TEFL students at the same university. The item facility (IF) and item discrimination (ID) indices of each item were calculated. Sixteen items which had item facility below 0.37 were considered to be too difficult and were discarded from the test. Table I shows the reliability estimates of the three subparts (grammar, vocabulary, and reading) of the test, which were computed through K-R-21 formula. The reliability of the total test signified a high reliable index ($r = 0.82$). The revised version of the test was used to ensure the homogeneity of the participants.

TABLE I.
THE RELIABILITY OF THE PROFICIENCY SUBPARTS

Subtests	K	KR-21
Grammar	22	0.85
Vocabulary	15	0.81
Reading	17	0.76

The next instrument was a vocabulary pretest. Three weeks before the main study, a group of students at the same level of language proficiency who were studying at the same university was asked to read the unelaborated original texts and write down the words they did not know. The 64 lexical items not known by the participants were selected as the target words for the study. The overall non-recognition rate of the items was 96 percent for 61 lexical items. The next three lexical items which were known by 10 percent of the participants were replaced with low-frequency words. For instance, the noun "awareness" was replaced with "cognizance" which was known by none of the participants.

A vocabulary posttest was used as the third instrument of the study. The achievement test consisted of different sections, including multiple-choice items (20 items), matching items (20 items), and true/false items (20 items). The test was piloted with a group of students at the same level of proficiency and from the same university. The items met the B-index between 0.07 and 0.11. The dependability of the achievement test was examined by estimating the threshold loss agreement via Subkoviak approach (Brown, 2005). The estimated dependability was 0.83.

C. Materials

Two types of materials were used in this study. Initially, some articles from the Internet (e.g., Readworks.org) which are written by native speakers of English for reading comprehension practice were selected (Appendix A). The unmodified versions underwent two main modification types of "lexical elaboration" and "typographical enhancement" (Appendix B). An example of a target word that is both lexically elaborated and typographically enhanced is shown below where a target word (i.e., wonder) is boldfaced, and its meaning is provided in the form of a definition right after which means.

A sentence of unmodified text:

The Snows of Kilimanjaro are one of the wonders of the natural world.

A sentence of modified text:

The Snows of Kilimanjaro are one of the **wonders,** *which means something remarkable to be admired, of the natural world.*

The modified versions of the texts were given to the experimental group, whereas the control group received the original unmodified texts.

D. Selection of the Target Words

Those words which their meanings were unknown to the participants were the target words in this study. Additionally, these target words were modified through either elaboration or enhancement. For the participants to acquire these words, the elaborated ones were defined explicitly or implicitly. In order to provide an enhanced input, they were boldfaced as well. As previously stated, in the original texts, the target words were neither elaborated nor enhanced. Thus, the acquisition of L2 vocabulary from modified texts and the unmodified texts was compared.

E. Procedure

After administering the piloted general proficiency test to the 60 students who were participating in the study and ensuring that the two intact groups were homogeneous at the onset of the study, the groups were randomly assigned to the experimental (Text Modified Group) and the control group (The Text Unmodified Group). The treatment took ten sessions, and each session lasted for 90 minutes. The same teacher taught both classes.

1. The Text Modified Group (TMG)

Each session consisted of two phases of while reading and post-reading activities. During the treatment, the participants were asked to read one version of the modified passages (totally ten passages) and answer the reading comprehension questions without having access to the text (while reading phase). General discussions about the reading passages were conducted in the class by the teacher for about 30 minutes after the reading activities were completed (post-reading phase). The teacher did not provide any explanations regarding the passages or the meaning of the words while reading or when the students were answering the comprehension questions. They could ask their questions during the classroom discussion in the post-reading phase.

2. The Text Unmodified Group (TUMG)

The participants in the control group used unmodified versions of the reading passages. Each session was divided into the three phases of pre-reading, while-reading, and post-reading activities. Each session started with skimming the text by the students (pre-reading phase). The students went through the passages and underlined the words and sentences they did not understand. Then the teacher answered the participants' questions regarding the passage. Afterward, the participants read the texts aloud for the second time and answered the reading comprehension questions while they had access to the main passage (while-reading phase). In the post-reading phase, the teacher conducted classroom discussions and provided some comprehension-check questions to ensure the participants have understood the reading passage.

IV. RESULTS

In order to find an answer to the research question of the study, the following statistical analyses were performed.

Table II shows the descriptive statistics regarding the standardized proficiency test administered before the advancement of the study. As the table signifies, the distribution of the two groups was normal at the beginning of the study since the obtained values were between ±1.96.

TABLE II.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY TEST

	TUMG	TMG
N	30	30
Mean	15.67	15.50
Median	15.50	15.00
Std. Deviation	4.06	4.25
Variance	16.50	18.12
Skewness	.057	0.116

The Levene’s test, as shown in Table III, (F= 0.02, p= 0.78) indicated no statistically significant difference between the variances of the groups. The result of the independent samples t-test, (Table III) also revealed that there was no statistically significant difference between the means of the TMG (M= 15.50, 4.25) and the TUMG (M= 15.67, SD= 4.06) regarding English proficiency t(58) = 0.24, p= 0.8).

TABLE III.
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST FOR PROFICIENCY TEST

Leven’s Test for Equality of Variances	**T-test for Equality of Means**					
Equal Variances Assumed	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
	0.02	0.78	0.24	58	0.80	0.26

Vocabulary Pretest: The vocabulary pretest, as mentioned above, consisted of a list of words which was administered to the participants of the study to ensure that they did not know the meaning of the target words used in the present study.

Vocabulary Posttest: After the treatment, the participants in both groups sat for the posttest. Then the papers were scored, and the results were analyzed. Table 4 presents descriptive statistics.

TABLE IV
DESCRIPTIVE RESULTS OF GROUPS, POSTTEST

	TUMG	TMG
N	30	30
Mean	15.77	17.97
Std. Deviation	4.53	3.89
Variance	20.59	15.13
Skewness	-.165	-.350

The Levene's test, as Table V indicates, revealed that the two groups were homogenous in terms of their variances (F = 1.27, p = 0.26). The result of the independent samples t-test between the TUMG (M= 15.77, SD= 4.53) and TMG (M=17.97, SD= 3.89) showed a statistically significant difference between the means of the groups; t(58) = 2.12, p = 0.03). This result led to the conclusion that the treatment was effective enough to make a significant difference between the means of the TUMG and the TMG groups. Consequently, it could be asserted that lexical elaboration and typographical enhancement had an impact on L2 vocabulary acquisition. The magnitude of the differences in the means (mean difference=2.33) was moderate (eta squared=0.07).

TABLE V.
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST FOR VOCABULARY, POSTTEST

	Leven’s Test for Equality of Variances		**T-test for Equality of Means**			
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Differences
Equal Variances Assumed	1.27	0.26	2.12	58	0.03	2.33

V. DISCUSSION

The analysis of the results on the posttest revealed that there was a significant difference in the test scores of the students of TMG, in comparison with TUMG. In other words, the participants in the TMG outperformed the participants in TUMG regarding vocabulary learning. Thus, using lexical elaboration and typographical enhancement as a tool could enhance the vocabulary knowledge of the participants. It can be argued that lexical elaboration and typographical enhancement can be an educational tool which can improve learners’ vocabulary knowledge and should be integrated into EFL classes.

This finding can exploit Schmidt (1994), who argued that drawing L2 learners’ attention to target language forms can help them notice the gap between the current interlanguage and the target language. According to Schmidt's Noticing Hypothesis, "the necessary and sufficient condition for the conversion of input into intake for second language learning to take place" (Schmidt, 1994, p. 17 is learners' noticing to the features of L2 in the written or spoken input. Therefore, the enhancement of the input (Sharwood Smith, 1991; 1993), as was the technique employed in the present study, could draw L2 learners' attention to the intended L2 input. This finding is in line with several studies (e.g., Rassaei, 2015; Rashtchi & Gharanli, 2010; White, 1998) which have reported that input enhancement could boost learners' performance in different language abilities. However, there are studies which contradict the finding of the present study (Bayonas; 2017; Izumi, 2002; Leow, 2001; LaBrozzi, 2016 Wong, 2003). Also, this study is in contradiction with VanPatten (1990) who found that it is difficult for second language learners especially at the beginning levels to pay attention to both form and meaning at the same time.

Additionally, this study supports the assumption that explicit lexical elaboration, promotes the learning of unfamiliar words inserted in written texts. It can be argued that elaboration provides the necessary input that L2 learners need for learning a second/foreign language. Likewise, it provides EFL/ESL learners with natural discourse models produced by native speakers. Performance of the participants suggests that textual enhancement and elaboration facilitate L2 comprehension at the sentential level, and elaborating target lexical items can facilitate their learning. These findings are consistent with general tendencies found in the previous studies of text modification, L2 comprehension, and vocabulary acquisition (Crossley, Louwerse, McCarthy, & McNamara, 2007). The present study also finds support from the scholars who assert that simplified input contributes to a higher level of comprehension than unmodified input (e.g., Gass, 2005; Lee, 2007; Long, 2015). Gass (2005) argues that modified language makes the language input comprehensible although she refers to Chaudron (1987) and Yano, Long, and Ross (1994) who have not found that modified input is easier to understand than the unmodified one.

VI. Conclusion

The present study may have implications for pedagogy. Positive effects of lexical elaboration on both comprehension and vocabulary acquisition found in the present study lend support to the use of this technique in teaching vocabulary. An advantage of lexical elaboration is that it can be used with relative ease; adding synonyms to supposedly unknown words will not require much time and effort on the part of the language teachers and/or text writers, yet positive effects on both comprehension and vocabulary acquisition can be expected.

Appendix A. Global Warming (Unmodified Text)

The Snows of Kilimanjaro are one of the wonders of the natural world. Year-round winter right on the Equator, high on the roof of Africa. But as the world gets warmer, the snows are retreating. Greenpeace members had set up their video-link right on the snow line. Participants in Marrakech could see the shadowy figure of Joris Thijssen perched on bare rock, with snow on the pinnacles behind.

"Hello ladies and gentlemen, welcome to this press conference live from the Kilimanjaro. At the moment I am at approximately five thousand meters high, the roof of Africa..."

Nothing could be more dramatic than the retreat of the Kilimanjaro ice cap. When it was first mapped in 1912, there were twelve square kilometers of ice and snow. Research published at the beginning of this year showed that more than eighty percent of that has now disappeared. A third of the original ice mass has melted in just the last twelve years, and it looks as if the rest of the permanent ice cap could be gone by 2020. If the shining cone of Kilimanjaro melts, the world will have lost something of great beauty. But there will be practical consequences as well. The melting glaciers water the lower slopes of the mountain, and those are the most densely farmed and densely populated parts of Tanzania.

Appendix B. Global Warming (Modified Text)

The Snows of Kilimanjaro are one of the **wonders,** which means something remarkable to be admired, of the natural world. Year-round winter right on the Equator, high on the roof of Africa. But as the world gets warmer, the snows are retreating. Greenpeace members had set up their video-link right on the snow line. Participants in Marrakech could see the shadowy figure of Joris Thijssen **perched,** which means sit lightly on the edge of something, on bare rock, with snow on the pinnacles behind.

"Hello ladies and gentlemen, welcome to this press conference live from the Kilimanjaro. At the moment I am at approximately five thousand meters high, the roof of Africa..."

Nothing could be more dramatic than the retreat of the Kilimanjaro ice cap. When it was first mapped in 1912, there were twelve square kilometers of ice and snow. Research published at the beginning of this year showed that more than eighty percent of that has now disappeared. A third of the original ice mass has melted in just the last twelve years, and it looks as if the rest of the permanent ice cap could be gone by 2020. If the **shining cone,** which means the dazzling white snow and ice on the top of the mountain, of Kilimanjaro, melts, the world will have lost something of great beauty. But there will be practical consequences as well. The melting glaciers water **the lower slopes of the mountain**, which means the areas of the mountain nearer the ground, and those are the most densely farmed and densely populated parts of Tanzania.

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Teaching of Pragmatics: Issues in a Global Age*

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***Abstract*—This article reviews literature on pragmatic teaching in three domains: (1) instructional methods in interpragmatics (2) pragmatic teaching resources (3) test and assessment of pragmatic ability .It aims at providing a comprehensive perspective of the available choices for pragmatics teaching and the ways that second language learners' pragmatic development can be enhanced in the classroom. In the area of instructional methods, this article reviews researches under the theoretical SLA framework of explicit versus implicit instruction, input processing instruction, and skill acquisition and practice. In the domain of pragmatic teaching resources, two types of pedagogical resources are reviewed: textbooks development and the possibility of the application of CA based research material and electronic corpora to the classroom pragmatics teaching and learning. In the discussion of test and assessment of pragmatic ability, two categories are reviewed. The first is the comparative study of the six types of instruments to test second language learners' pragmatic ability which is aimed to provide statistical and practical aspects for the test developers and test users. The second reviews the teacher assessment and its related assessment instruments in the application of pragmatic teaching .Finally, this article discusses unique challenges and opportunities pragmatics teaching faces in the current era.**

***Index Terms*— pragmatic teaching, interpragmatics, pragmatic development**

I. INTRODUCTION

The cultivation of pragmatic ability in second language teaching context has come into vogue in recent decades. Teaching of pragmatics to second language learners is a complicated issue involving different factors both inside and outside the classroom. Many researchers up till recently have done a lot of empirical studies which give insights as to the pragmatic teaching.

A. Definition of Pragmatics

What is the pragmatic ability that has gained such attention in second language pedagogy? Pragmatics has various definitions according to different standards and theoretical orientations. According to Crystal (1997, p301), pragmatics is "the study of language from the point of view of speakers, especially of the choices they make, the constraints they encounter in using language in social interaction and the effects their use of language has on other participants in the act of communication". Here, the act of communication involves not only speech acts such as apologizing and complaining but also different types of discourse. Pragmatics according to Kasper(2001，p2) should be seen as "interpersonal rhetoric"—the way speakers accomplish goals as social actors needing to get things done and attend to their interpersonal relationships with other people." Alco´n and Martı´nez-Flor (2008) tries to explain pragmatics from second language acquisition. It focuses on the investigation of speech acts, conversational structure and conversational implication. According to them, the study of second language pragmatics is referred to as interlanguage pragmatics (ILP), which distinguishes linguistic knowledge from social knowledge. Leech (1983) and Thomas (1983) divide pragmatics into two parts: pragmalinguistics and sociopragmatics. Pragmalinguistics refers to the linguistic resources for conveying communicative acts and interpersonal meanings; sociopragmatics refers to the social perceptions underlying participants' interpretation and performance of communicative acts.

B. Pragmatic Teaching Overview

The field of pragmatic teaching today deals with a range of issues faced by language learners and second language teachers who teach and assess them. Many of the issues addressed include the teaching approaches, the materials adopted in the classroom and the test and assessment. This article reviews a selection of the existing literature and discusses diverse issues related to pragmatics teaching and learning in three categories: (1) effectiveness of specific instructional methods of pragmatics learning; (2) instructional materials and resources for pragmatic development in formal classroom settings; (3) test and assessment utilized to evaluate learners' pragmatic ability.

II. INSTRUCTIONAL METHODS IN INTERPRAGMATICS

The examination of the instruction effect of pragmatic ability is based on the assumption that pragmatic competence is teachable in the second language classroom. The instructional methods discussed in the paper fall into two categories

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in terms of theoretical basis. The first one is Schmidt's noticing hypothesis which claims that learners must notice second language features in input for subsequent development to occur in the acquisition of these features: Previous instructional studies have applied this theoretical paradigm by adopting various instructional methods such as explicit pragmatic information provision, input enhancement and consciousness raising of pragmalinguistic forms.

House (2008) studied the using of translation to improve pragmatic competence. He saw translation not only as a linguistic procedure (didactic function), but also an act of inter-cultural communication (pragmatic function). The conceptions in functional grammar are utilized when explaining his points. The context of situation is divided into three component: the ideational, the interpersonal and the textual which are equivalent to the semantic, the pragmatic and the textual aspect. He claims that if translation is used in a way that students can realize their pragmatic potential, it can be used as an exercise to relate linguistic forms to their communicative function. Translation would play an important role in developing learner's communicative competence. When designing the instructional methods, he mentioned the possibility of including translation activities such as the explicit comparison of cultural phenomena in the first and second language communities; the creative production of both source and target language texts; the changing of the Field, Tenor and Mode in the original text, the translated text or both and the evaluation of the translations from both teachers and language learners. He also made comparison between overt translation and covert translation and claimed that covert translation should be preferred over overt translation. In his study, translation is no longer seen as a tool to improve linguistic knowledge but as a way to promote learner's pragmatic competence and ability to recognize the contrasts between native and foreign cultures.

Another group of studies focusing on the awareness raising can serve as representative of the pragmatic teaching methods.

Kondo (2008) in her study provided some evidence that pragmatics could be taught through instruction; learners became aware of the pragmatic similarities and differences between their native language and the target language. In her opinion, second language learner is not the "model" native speaker. In the process of learning another language, he or she is creating a new interlanguage and identity. The successful communication is a "matter of optimal" instead of "total convergence". The language learner should reflect on their linguistic choices, compare linguistic features and come up with an interlanguage of their own. The study explored how learner's choices of refusal strategies changed after explicit instruction involving fives steps (feeling, doing, thinking, understanding and using). The comparisons between JEB (Japanese Learners of English before instruction) and JEA (Japanese learners of English after instruction) showed that after instruction their choice of refusal strategies changed and became more similar to the American pattern. However, they still retained some culturally specific features of their own language. However, there are some limitations as to this study. First, when the data was acquired in pre-test and post-test, the instrument used was Oral Discourse Completion Task (ODCT), which required students to read a written description of a situation and to say aloud what they would say in that situation into a tape recorder. This probably would only reflect student's metapragmatic knowledge instead of their real interpragmatic ability, since speakers' intuition about their language use might be different from what they actually say. The real time interaction requires people's immediate response which allows no second thinking or pause. The second language learners could still forget the appropriate answer. Another limitation as the author said herself is the relatively small number of subjects involved in the instruction and the lack of a control group. However, it still has shed some light on the kinds of pragmatic knowledge learners can acquire through instructions.

The effectiveness of awareness raising instruction method was further confirmed by a study by Liddicoat and Crozet (2001). The starting point for this research was the teaching of the question "*T'as passé un bon week-end?*"(*Did you have a good weekend?*), because it presents cross-cultural difficulties between speakers of French and speakers of Australian English. The participants of the study are a group of French learners. However, in the French cultural context, the question is not a ritualized one. It is used to start a conversation and the resulting talk is quite long. The teaching activities were divided into four phases according to the methodology developed in Crozet (1996): awareness-raising phase, experimentation phase, production phase and feedback phase. After one year's instruction, the students had developed an awareness of culture norms in the target-language group. This study has shown that interaction norms can be acquired even within a short-term program. However, it seemed that not all elements of discourse were equally learned. The elements which related to the content of talk are more easily learned and integrated into target language interaction than those related to the language form. The study seems to suggest that cultural variability is easier to instruct because the impact of noticing can be more readily integrated into talk. This study brought new insights into pragmatics by incorporating some key concepts: conversational style, conversation content and awareness raising. Although the study focuses on a single speech event, the real issue deserves our attention is that identical utterances in two different languages may actually have very different pragmatic and cultural meanings.

Another theoretical paradigm as guiding framework for pragmatics instruction is input processing and skill acquisition theories. The input processing theory aims to describe cognitive process that is involved when the learner is processing input (VanPatten, 1996, 2007). Input processing theory have recently been applied to pragmatics instruction in a study by Takimoto (2009), which studied the effects of input processing instruction on learning request forms in L2 English. He applied three types of tasks: (1) input with explicit metapragmatic information; (2) input without explicit information; (3) problem-solving tasks. Learners first listened to a conversation with request forms and evaluated their appropriateness. Four types of tasks were used to assess the instructional effect: a discourse completion task, a role-play task, a written appropriateness judgment task, and a listening appropriateness judgment task. The three experimental groups outperformed the control group, but there were no significant differences among the treatment groups in the posttest. A delayed posttest revealed the sustained effect of structured input tasks. His research has proved the effectiveness of processing instruction.

Input processing theory and instruction have also been used in the instruction of Chinese pragmatics. Li (2012) examined the effects of explicit metapragmatic information and structured input tasks on learning request forms in Chinese. Building on the cognitive theory of the ACTR model (Anderson, 1993), he regards acquisition of pragmatic rules as a transition from declarative knowledge to procedural knowledge. The ultimate goal of skill acquisition is to reach a stage when one's language ability becomes automatic, leading to fluent, accurate performance.

Li investigated whether different amounts of practice could produce different effects in the speech act of requests. Learners were divided into three groups: an intensive training group, a regular training group, and a control group. The intensive and regular training groups received explicit instruction on request forms. The intensive group practiced twice as much as the regular group. The control group received metapragmatic explanation but had no practice. Two methods were used to assess the learning results: a listening appropriateness judgment task and an oral discourse completion task. Results didn't show difference on accurate judgment of request forms in the listening task. As to response times, the intensive group's speed became significantly faster after practice, however the other two groups didn't show such effects. Analysis of the oral production of requests also showed complicated results. The effect of practice wasn't as significant on fluency as it was on accuracy. To a certain degree, the research results have proved skill acquisition theory which claims that declarative knowledge is shared among different skills (e.g., listening and speaking), but procedural knowledge requires skill-specific practice (DeKeyser, 2007).

III. PRAGMATIC TEACHING RESOURCES

Teaching pragmatics involve the use of linguistic resources for both performing communicative acts and explaining social perceptions of these acts. So teaching materials should include several key elements: social context, functional language use, and interaction. Therefore, teaching materials and resources should be designed in a way to incorporate these important elements.

Ishihara (2010) in her study briefly reviewed the researches on pragmatic teaching resources in recent years. According to the study, when teaching pragmatics to second language learners, teachers should adapt their teaching materials or prepare supplement teaching resources. According to the previous research, among the present pragmatic instruction materials, very few of them are based on the empirical studies. Most of the publications on EFL teaching are based on the native speaker's intuition; the conversations in the text tend to be rigid and sometimes pragmatic factors are not taken into consideration or treated as one of the teaching objectives. The American English was taken as an example; the act of closing a conversation is very complex and involves a lot of take turning(the shutdown, the pre-closing, the terminal exchange).The researcher found that the conversations in many textbooks (eight out of twenty) didn't have complete closing. The study mentioned an investigation about the speech act of complaint in seven English textbooks which found that there was a mismatch between what was written in the textbook and the spontaneous conversation. According to the study, complaints in real conversation often function as a bonding device or creating solidarity between conversation partners. However, this function was misrepresented in most of the textbooks as an expression of negative feeling or dissatisfaction. The author also found that EFL textbooks contained little explicit information about pragmatics for the teachers to explicate. The range of the speech acts included in the textbook was very limited and there wasn't enough sampling of the conversation for the students to detect the conversational implicature. One study she mentioned focused on the speech act of request in an EFL tourism textbook published in Spain. It found that there was a lack the contextual information for these requests and it tended to neglect the use of modifiers. Another study compared the greetings in seven EFL textbooks in Japan and naturally occurring greetings in American English and found that textbooks misrepresented naturally occurring greetings. She also found that in many of the Japanese language textbooks, there was a clear boundary between male and female language. The existence of gender-neutral language and cross gender usage was disregarded. This gender stereotyping is not only misleading but also has reinforced the traditional gender norms. So the author suggested the usage of research-based material when adapting textbooks. She introduced some empirical-based resources for the teachers to teach complaints, requests and conversation closings. It serves to illustrate how the pragmatic instruction should be conducted in class. Ishihara's article is an overview of the literature on pragmatic textbooks research in recent years. It's worth noting that it included the conception of "conversation implicature" and "gender language" into the analysis of the instruction material. These can serve as extra criteria for the second language teachers when they select or adapt teaching resources in the future.

In an another article written by Cohen and Ishihara (2010)，it mentioned the use of authentic language data, conversation analysis and electronic data in the pragmatic instruction. Two studies were mentioned in the paper to illustrate the application of CA. One study is the comparison of telephone openings by L1 speakers of Farsi and L1 speakers of German using CA. It found that Iranian and German telephone openings are different in that Iranian included inquiries about people's health and family in their openings while German openings tend to be short and lack ritual inquiries. The second study dealing with the responses to compliments has shown the advantages of CA when comparing German and American responses to compliments. It found, in the explanation of the transcribed conversation, that Germans usually respond to the compliment by giving *a same strength second assessment (* e.*g. I know, right?)* , which is rare in American conversations where people usually downgrade when they give second assessment.

In the article, the author also introduced two types of instruction activities where CA can be included in the pragmatic teaching. The first one used the example of the question “Did *you have a good weekend”* in French. The following teaching procedures were suggested to make the students aware of the different responses in Australia and France. (1) discussion of stereotypes of L1 and L2 cultures and how they originate from differences in cultural norms; (2) comparison of L1 and L2 responses to the question “*Did you have a good weekend?”*; (3) discussion of different features of conversation in French and Australian English; (4) reconstruction of the conversation in L2; (5) role plays;(6) peer assessment of each other’s role play. The second example focuses on the negotiation of refusals in Spanish. The following steps were proposed: (1) identification of speech act; (2) introduction of the conception of politeness and indirectness in refusals; (3) listening to the L1 and L2 refusals and discussion about the differences in the conversations; (4) use of naturalistic data to examine refusal strategies and discussion of the refusal strategies; (5) analysis of the organization of natural discourse; (6) role play and peer feedback.

The use of language corpora in pragmatic instruction is also proposed in this study. A language corpus is defined as “a large collection of computerized texts available using corpus software programs”.(Biber et al, 1998,p4). One way to use electronic corpus in pragmatic teaching is to take a phrase used in a specific speech act and search the database for contextualized examples. Searching for words or language structures that have been tagged would be preferred. However, the author noticed the lack of correspondence between language form and pragmatic meaning which makes the application of linguistic corpora limited. Since locating forms that performs a specific function in a corpus can be difficult, corpus studies of L2 pragmatics usually focuses on formulaic expressions or prefabricated chunks. She advised that if the desired material was not available in the corpus, teachers could manually annotate the functional categories. In addition, teacher should edit data from a corpus before using them for instruction since the raw data have many false starts, discourse markers and ellipsis that are distracting. It is also suggested that when material from a corpus was used, the curriculum writers should add certain details by way of a footnote.

Although the application of CA and electronic corpus to pragmatic research is still far from enough and its effectiveness in the instruction is debatable, this paper offers some insightful advices on how the teachers should explore ways to utilize authentic language and instruction materials in their pragmatic teaching.

IV. Tests and Assessment of Pragmatic Ability

Brown (2001) in his research listed six types of instruments to test second language learners’ pragmatic ability. They are written discourse completion tasks(WDCT), multiple choice discourse completion tasks(MDCT), oral discourse completion tasks(ODCT), discourse role-play tasks(DRPT), discourse self-assessment tasks (DSAT) and role play self-assessments(RPSA). The research compared the six types of measures both in EFL (English as foreign language) class and JSL (Japanese as a second language) class. The participants in the EFL study are 25 volunteers from an English language program and they spent 3 hours to finish all six types of tasks. The participants in the JSL study are 47 American learners of Japanese at universities in Tokyo. The questions used on the six measures are to test students’ use of the speech acts: requests, refusals and apologies. Eight items were created for every speech acts. So there are twenty four items for all the six tests except the DRPT and RPSA. DRPT was designed in 8 scenes and RPSA contain only eight items. The responses in WDCT, ODCT, DRPT and DSAT were scored by three raters on a 5-point Likert scale and RPSA were rated by learners themselves. The responses in MDCT were scored right or wrong and the number of the right answers was multiplied times 5 to maintain the same scale with other instruments. Each of the six types of test was examined for their reliability and practical features. The result of the analysis showed that the six English language versions of the tests did not work as well as the Japanese language version in terms of their reliability, variance and intercorrelations. Furthermore, EFL tests were probably subject to stronger method effects than the JSL tests. The research also demonstrated the practical features of the six types of tests. It explained that WDCT were easy to administer because they were in written format which allowed for large scale group testing. However, one of the disadvantages of WDCT was that learners could only produce and comprehend written language. The oral production was not encouraged. Plus, they were difficult to score. MDCT were both easy to administer and easy to score. However, it required only receptive language skill and couldn’t test learner’s oral production. The advantages of ODCT were the testing of oral production and quick to administer. However, it had disadvantages in that it required elaborate lab equipment. They were also difficult to score because they required recruiting and training of the raters. DRPT encouraged oral production but they must be done individually. DSAT encouraged self-reflection and easy to administer. However, they were not useful for high-stakes decisions. The advantages of RPSAs were the encouragement of self-reflection on pragmatics ability and easy to score. However, they were difficult to administer because they must be administered individually.

This comparative study provides statistical and practical aspects of the six tests for the test developers and test users. They can draw inferences from the research result to make their own choice in the future.

Ishihara (2010) wrote a paper focusing on the teacher based assessment of learners ‘pragmatic ability in the second-language classroom. It has provided some assessment instruments, the learners’ language use as well as the example teaching feedback. He suggested that the teaching of pragmatics should use research based teaching materials, in this way the assessment of pragmatics can show the authentic language use than the teacher's intuition and both teachers and students can refer to the data showing how native speakers respond in the similar situation. Some examples of exercise (research based information about apologizing in Japanese) are provided to show what an assessment instrument like. One type of teacher assessment is the evaluative rubric assessing learners' receptive and productive pragmatic ability. The rubric includes three areas of focus: linguistic aspects (pragmalinguisitc ability); cultural aspects (sociopragmatic ability); analytic aspects (metapragmatic ability). Some lists of specific questions and related examples are also provided for the classroom teachers to reflect upon when applying these rubrics to the assessments. The teachers can select the ones suiting their instructional purpose. When teachers assess students' pragmalinguisitc ability, they should consider their use of vocabulary/phrase; grammatical structure; strategies for a speech act; choice of pragmatic tone; use of organization; use of discourse markers and use of epistemic stance markers. When mentioning the assessment of sociopragmatic abilities, the author suggests that teachers should not only include the productive skills but also the receptive skills. When it comes to the receptive skills, it means students should learn to interpret what others say. The assess instruments of receptive skills can be elicitation of the explanation of speakers' intended meaning and acceptability judgments using multi-choice questions or questionnaires, both of which are provided with detailed examples. As to the assessment of learner's productive skills, some examples of analytic scoring instruments, learners' language and teacher feedback are given. The third one is the assessment of students' metapragmatic ability. Again two examples are given that elicit the students' analysis of how L1 and L2 are used in authentic context.

With the discussion of the value of research-based material in assessing pragmatics and its examples, the author reminded that teachers should distinguish more important pragmatic features from the less important one, focusing on the ones likely to cause serious pragmatic failure. Another factor which should be taken into consideration is that some learners might want to behave differently from what is expected in the target culture norm in order to preserve their subjectivity and identity. In such cases, the teachers should respect their intentions. The authors provides some suggestions and examples of assessment based on learners' intentions.

Besides teacher assessment, students' self-assessment can afford learners with an opportunity for evaluate themselves. This can take the form of metapragmatic reflection which entails students' evaluation of their own L2 awareness and production. In this process, the teachers are advised to provide scaffolding which can direct students' attention to key features of pragmatics. Learners' self-assessment can be put side-by-side with the teachers' assessment so that they can compare them.

This research has provided the classroom teachers with evaluation rubrics to follow when they assess students' pragmatic ability. Also, a huge number of detailed examples and suggestions are given as to the teacher assessments and students' self-assessments. The various types of framework for practice can enhance future pragmatic teaching.

V. Conclusion

In this paper, a body of select literature is reviewed as to instructional methods, teaching materials, and test and assessment in the classroom. Pragmatics involves various types of elements— language forms and functions, situational contexts, social relationships between the speakers, cultural norms. A huge variety of possibilities and challenges involved in teaching pragmatics has made it an extremely challenging task. Likewise, in the era of poststructuralism, there are additional issues to consider when it comes to the pragmatic instruction, such as pragmatic norms for teaching, learners' subjectivity and identity when following these community norms. Although these different types of issues have created many questions for both the researchers and teachers, answers will be given continually as to the best instructional choices for the learners' pragmatic development. The many challenges and opportunities we are currently facing will continue to expand future study in the area of interlanguage pragmatics and applied linguistics.

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Blended Learning Using Video Blogs in Teaching English as a Second Language— A Case Study of International Trade Practice Course

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***Abstract*—Blended learning starts late but develops rapidly in China owing to the advancement of information technology. In the last decade, researches on blended learning have drawn much attention in the field of interdisciplinary education and have become relatively mature. International Trade Practice Course, one of optional courses for English majors, features as systematization and practicality with the aim of cultivating cross-disciplined and multiple talents. Nevertheless, the practical requirements of the course are hard to fulfill due to the limitation and restriction of the traditional teaching method. The emergence and promotion of video blogs provide a new approach for blended learning that makes up for the deficiency of unitary teaching method. This paper intends to study the status quo and the effect of blended learning using video blogs in international trade practice course. By using the methods of questionnaire, field trip and interview, the author collected the effective data and information in order to offer some rational suggestions on blended learning in second language learning.**

***Index Terms*—blended learning, video blogs, international trade practice course**

I. Introduction

With the rapid evolution of modern information technology, the reform of teaching method is highly demanded. Therefore, blended learning on the basis of internet has become a new educational means. In the meanwhile, video blog has become the trend among the masses owing to the popularity of popular media. The emergence of video blog brings new vitality into blended learning. Nevertheless, there still remains an unsolved problem concerning how to integrate online and traditional learning. This study will focus on the application of the new notion called blended learning in the field of second language acquisition. International trade practice course has been concerned by English majors, especially those who are engaged in Business English. However, cases and knowledge in the textbook can't keep pace with changing world. Taking international trade practice course as an example, we will focus on how M-learning, especially using video blogs, compensates for the restrictions of traditional and single learning mode. Accordingly, instructors can fully exert the advantages of blended learning through providing sufficient and comprehensible language input so as to enhance the harmony between teacher-directed learning and student-oriented learning.

II. The Background of Study

A. Policy Background

At the end of February, a blueprint of China's education development in the upcoming decade was promulgated by the Communist Party of China Central Committee and the State Council. China's Education Modernization 2035 plan illuminates the direction of the modern educational system that enhances the higher education and vocational education. With the aim of making China a powerhouse in aspects of education, talent and human resources by 2035, one of its missions is accelerating the pace of education reform in the era of information. The Action Plan 2.0 for Information Technology Application in Education is an effective approach to realize educational modernization in China. Education informatization has distinct superiority due to multitudes of presentation modes, rapid dissemination and without temporal and spatial restrictions. In turn, the educational reform will provide a solid foundation for rejuvenating China and realizing the Chinese dream.

With a new conception of Internet Plus Education advancing, the education has been transformed into blended learning which integrating online learning into traditional learning. In the era of data, online learning materials are mushrooming, which will change the education landscape.

B. Theoretical Background

Stephen Krashen, one of celebrated American linguists, put forward the input hypothesis which has laid a major cornerstone for further studies in the field of SLA. The input hypothesis places great emphasis on the comprehensible input (CI), which also named as “i+1”. In the process, “i” indicates learners’ current level of knowledge; the next stage is “i+1”. Moving from stage i to stage i+1 involves a vital condition that the acquirers understand the input so as to output automatically (Stephen Krashen, 1983). This process is accomplished with the aid of context and extra information. Runqing Liu (2005) echoed the idea of that input is a critical element of pragmatic acquisition. Kasper and Schmidt (1996) pointed out that the definition of pragmatics determines the close relationship between pragmatic knowledge and social knowledge. Lambert (1955) holds the view that motivations of learning another language include the emotional input of the language community as well as the interest of the language.

In spite of the thought behind blended learning can be traced back to 1960s, the formal description of it did not exist until the late 1990s. Margaret (2002) put forward a fairly detailed description of blended learning. She expounded the process of blending learning which integrates Web technology to achieve instructional aim. Graham (2006) flagged up the blended learning system as an integrated system combining traditional face-to-face instruction with online instruction.

The studies and researches on blended learning in China started late. As the advance of information technology, the amount of research activities been growing promptly and reach its peak in 2015. Wenyu Liu and Jian Zha (2009) investigated into the effectiveness of English learning by means of blended learning. Weidong Dai and Xuemei Wang (2011) concluded a research concerning foreign language teaching in the backdrop of Internet plus. Runqing Liu (2014) pointed out that studying anywhere at any time has gained popularity, and the boundary of conventional learning and online learning has become blurred.

Blended learning places emphasis on self-directed learning. In other words, the premise of blended learning is that students study with spontaneity. The effect of autonomous learning depends on learning motivation and learning strategy. Oxford and Nyikos (1989) made the definition of strategy, which means a concrete action of learner with the purpose of making study more easy, effective and self-oriented. In addition, Qiufang Wen stressed that motivation is one of the most essential elements of learning strategy. Chunxing Zhang (1998) stated that motivation is the key to coping with difficulties in study.

C. The Introduction of Video Blogs

A video blog, usually abbreviated as Vlog, is the most prominent form of computer-mediated communication (CMC) in the web 2.0 era. The origin of video blogs can retrospect to the 1980s. At that time, an eminent artist called Nelson Sullivan recorded videos around South Carolina and New York. In 2000, Adam Kontras posted a video together with a blog entry with the aim of informing his family and friends about his relocation in Los Angeles in chase of show business, which later become the longest-running one in history. In November of that year, Adrian Miles coined vog as the abbreviation of his video blog, which comprises still images with changing texts. 2004 is marked as the year of the video blog by Steve Garfield who launched his own video blog. Moreover, thanks to the establishment of YouTube which is the leading video sharing site, video blogs have enjoyed considerable popularity since 2005.

Video blogs is a variant of blog by means of videos instead of texts or pictures. The widespread application of the video blog is due to its unique characteristics. Initially, since everyone can be a video blogger, video blogs cover various fields and are rapid updated. Through video blogs, people can find what is happening recently in a certain field. Besides, the majority of video blogs are short, so watching video blogs is an excellent method to take full advantage of fragmented spare time to learn something. In addition, unlike documentaries which are time-consuming in post production, editing video blogs is much effortless so that they can be posted in time.

For instance, there is an ESL (English as a Second Language) American English learning channel in YouTube called Rachel’s English. The video in this channel is posted every week and the duration is approximately 5 to 20 minutes. With the aim of helping non-native speakers learn English in the aspects of pronunciation, vocabulary and grammar, Rachel posts English videos concerning some social hot topics or hit TV series. Recently, she posted a video with several brief clip from a TV show named Grey’s Anatomy. Subscribers can learn English at the speed and pace that native speakers use by studying TV show scenes in great depth. Furthermore, China Daily also releases multitudes of English video blogs about some important events which take place recently in China, such as the National People’s Congress and the Chinese Political Consultative Conference (NPC&CPPCC), and the Second Belt and Road Forum for International Cooperation.

III. RESEARCH DESIGN AND FINDINGS

A. Research Objects

This study carried out questionnaire investigation to university students who have learned International Trade Practice Course mainly from Zhejiang, Hainan, Wuhan and Sichuan provinces. The author randomly selected 112 students in different grades from the research objects as satisfied samples. A total of 112 questionnaires were collected in SO JUMP, a professional online platform in respect of questionnaire survey. 103 respondents in collecting samples have learned International Trade Practice Course, with effective rate of 91.96%.

Among the respondents, 58.93% are from school of foreign languages, and the rest 46 students, accounting for 41.07%, are from other schools. 4.46% students are freshmen, 20.54% students are in sophomore year, a large proportion of respondents (58.04%) are in junior year, and the rest 16.96% are in senior year. Since most universities set up International Trade Practice Course in the third year curriculum, the majority of respondents are junior students.

B. Research Methods

At the beginning of the year, the author established the project of "Blended Learning Using Video Blogs in Teaching English as a Second Language— A Case Study of International Trade Practice Course". With the aim of collecting information and figuring out vulnerabilities, the author then sent the online questionnaire in SO JUMP to the respondents for random sample collection. The content of the questionnaire covers the basic information of the students, the students' attitudes toward blended learning as well as the condition of using video blogs in International Trade Practice Course. And the questionnaire which lasted a month was closed on May 22nd with full validity. In order to get comprehensive understanding, the author also did on-the-spot investigation and interview in International Trade Practice Course.

C. Research Results and Date Analysis

TABLE I.
RESPONDENTS' DEGREE OF FAMILIARITY WITH BLENDED LEARNING

	Number	Rate
Yes	48	42.86%
No	64	57.14%

From table 1, it is apparent that there are still a large number of students who have not known about blended learning though the notion of blended learning is put forward many years ago and developed for decades.

TABLE II.
OPINIONS TO ADVANTAGES OF BLENDED LEARNING COMPARED WITH TRADITIONAL LEARNING METHOD

Advantages	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Maintain Neutrality	Agree	Strongly Agree
More Learning Materials Are Advancing With Time	1 (0.89%)	4 (3.57%)	22 (19.64%)	73 (65.18%)	12 (10.71%)
Higher Learning Motivation	0 (0%)	3 (2.68%)	30 (26.79%)	64 (57.14%)	15 (13.39%)
More Prominent Student-Based Orientation	1 (0.89%)	3 (2.68%)	33 (29.46%)	64 (57.14%)	12 (10.71%)
Easier to Understand and Acquire Knowledge	1 (0.89%)	4 (3.57%)	33 (29.46%)	57 (50.89%)	17 (15.18%)

From table 2, scores are determined as -2, -1, 0, 1, and 2 according to the degree that strongly disagree, disagree, maintain neutrality, agree and strongly agree respectively. As for advantages of blended learning, compared with the traditional learning method, both more learning materials and higher learning motivation (score 91) rank the top1. The number of respondents who agree and strongly agree with more learning materials which are advancing with time is slightly higher than higher learning motivation. Thus, the respondents consider that the obvious benefit of blended learning is more learning materials which are advancing with time. More prominent student-based orientation (scores 85) rank second only to these two benefits, while the feature that it is easier to understand and acquire knowledge (scores 83) is regarded as the least important one.

TABLE III.
RESPONDENTS' INTEREST IN WATCHING VIDEO BLOGS IN SPARE TIME

	Number	Rate
Yes	83	74.11%
No	29	25.89%

TABLE IV.
ATTITUDES TOWARD BLENDED LEARNING BY MEANS OF USING VIDEO BLOGS

Attitude	Number	Rate
Support	71	63.39%
Neutrality	41	36.61%
Oppose	0	0%

The table 3 and table 4 indicated that the video blog has become the trend owing to 74.11% students are interested in watching video blogs in their spare time as leisure activity. As for their attitudes toward blended learning by means of using video blogs, 63.39% students are in favor of it, and the rest students (36.61%) are on the fence, while no one is opposed to it.

TABLE V.
RESPONDENTS' OPINION ON THE FOUR SKILLS PRACTICE IN CLASS

Aspects	Number	Rate
Listening	77	74.76%
Speaking	94	91.26%
Reading	40	38.83%
Writing	55	53.4%

From the table 5, it is easy to notice that the majority of respondents (91.26%) have a desire for improving speaking skill in class. And the need of listening skill improvement (74.76%) is next to speaking skill improvement. Nevertheless, the improvement of reading skill (38.83%) and the improvement of writing skill (53.4%) are considered as relatively less important focuses.

TABLE VI.
THE CONDITIONS OF USING VIDEO BLOGS IN INTERNATIONAL TRADE PRACTICE COURSE

Frequency	Number	Rate
Every class	24	23.3%
Sometimes	59	57.28%
Seldom	20	19.42%

Timeliness	Number	Rate
Three months	40	38.83%
Six months	26	25.24%
One year	21	20.39%
Three years	16	15.53%

Relevance with knowledge	Number	Rate
Totally consistent	16	15.53%
Generally consistent	81	78.64%
Slightly inconsistent	6	5.83%
Totally inconsistent	0	0%

Duration	Number	Rate
Three to five minutes	50	48.54%
Five to ten minutes	43	41.75%
Ten to fifteen minutes	10	9.71%

In terms of the condition of using video blogs in international trade practice course, the application of video blogs is not frequent on account of that 57.28% respondents said that usage of video blogs in class is occasional, and only 23.3% respondents watch video blogs in every class. Thanks to that video blogs are posted in time, the video posted within three months takes the lead accounting for 38.83%, and second to it is the video posted within six months (25.24%). Nevertheless, still 15.53% respondents said that the videos that they watched in class are a little bit out-dated as the timeliness of these video is about recent three years. As for the relevance between videos and knowledge taught in class, the great mass of video blogs (78.64%) are generally consistent with the knowledge taught in class, and no one is totally inconsistent with the knowledge. Besides, teachers give prominence to short videos as videos lasted for three to five minutes (48.54%) are used most frequently, and five-to-ten-minute videos (41.75%) also take a large part in class.

TABLE VII.
THE IMPROVEMENTS MADE THROUGH MEANS OF VIDEO BLOGS IN INTERNATIONAL TRADE PRACTICE COURSE

Improvements	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Maintain Neutrality	Agree	Strongly Agree
Broaden the Knowledge of International Trade	1 (0.97%)	0 (0%)	32 (31.07%)	60 (58.25%)	10 (9.71%)
The Range of Vocabulary in Business English	1 (0.97%)	0 (0%)	30 (29.13%)	60 (58.25%)	13 (12.62%)
Spoken English	1 (0.97%)	1 (0.97%)	27 (26.21%)	55 (53.4%)	19 (18.45%)
Learning Initiative	0 (0%)	2 (1.94%)	36 (34.95%)	48 (46.6%)	17 (16.5%)

From table 7, scores are determined as -2, -1, 0, 1, and 2 according to the degree that strongly disagree, disagree, maintain neutrality, agree and strongly agree respectively. From the perspective of the improvements made through means of video blogs in international trade practice course, most of the respondents hold the view that the improvement in spoken English (scores 90) is significant, following by increasing the range of vocabulary in business English (scores 84) and enhancing students' learning motivation (scores 80). However, the improvement in the knowledge of international trade (scores 78) is considered as relatively less prominent.

TABLE VIII.
THINGS THAT STUDENTS WOULD DO WHEN PLAYING VIDEOS IN CLASS

Things	Number	Rate
Watching with certain questions	47	45.63%
Watching just out of interest	54	52.43%
Do other unrelated things	2	1.94%

TABLE IX.
ATTITUDE TO ASSIGNMENTS IN THE FORM OF WATCHING VIDEOS IN MOVING PLATFORM

Attitude	Number	Rate
Learning immediately	22	21.36%
Learning before the next class	59	57.28%
Forget learning	22	21.36%

The table 8 shows that 52.43% respondents watch videos played in class just out of interest, and 45.63% students watch video with certain question hoping to eliminate the confusion in knowledge, while only 1.94% respondents said that they would do other unrelated things.

From the table 9, it is illustrated that 57.28% students would finish the assignments in the form of watching videos in platform immediately, and 21.36% respondents said that they would learn before the next class. However, 21.36% students explain that they are apt to forget learning due to some particular reasons.

IV. DISCUSSION ABOUT THE PROBLEMS

A. The Restriction of the Textbook

In the interview, when the author asked students about their views towards international trade practice course, a majority of them voiced that the cases in the textbook are slightly behind the times. Nevertheless, one of the requirements of international trade practice course is to advance with the times. The renewal and edition of textbook is time-consuming so that the cases in the textbook can't keep pace with the changing world. Therefore, students cannot acquire the latest information through traditional teaching method, such as the notion of Comprehensive Progressive Trans-Pacific Partnership (CPTPP) and the current situation of Sino-US trade friction.

As a participant in international trade practice course, the author holds the view that the course emphasizes on practice, but the textbook merely remains theoretical. Students just learn several trade terms, such as FOB (Free On Board), CIF (Cost, Insurance and Freight) and CFR (Cost and Freight), but seldom put the theory into practice. Thus, students are not familiar with the practical problems happened in international trade.

B. A Lack of Sufficient Comprehensible Input

In the on-the-spot investigation, the author found that the terms and concepts in business English are elusive. Besides, the textbook just illustrates the abstract knowledge in words. Therefore, a large number of students expressed that what they learned in class is easy to forget. The knowledge that teachers instill into students is considered as indirect knowledge. It is forgettable for lacking students' own experience. What's more, the traditional unitary teaching method merely focuses on the textbook. Compared with native speakers, students lack the appropriate language environment apparently, and they don't have sufficient opportunities to practice, particularly after class.

C. Low Learning Motivation of Students

Through the interview, the teacher showed her concern that most students tend to lose interest for the abstract knowledge and a lack of participation. The application of case study and documentary in class seems to affect them little. In addition, playing videos dose arise their interest in some degree, but multitudes of students just watch it without independent thinking so that it doesn't deepen their understanding of knowledge. Besides, few students show a willingness to broaden the knowledge of international trade after class. In other words, the limitation of traditional teaching method leads to low learning motivation of students.

V. SUGGESTIONS

This paper takes international trade practice course as an example to probe into the condition concerning using video blogs in teaching English as a second language on the basis of blended learning. In view of the above data-analysis, the author identifies multitudes of problems unsolved, and proposes the following suggestions so as to enhance blended learning mode in English acquisition and interdisciplinary study.

A. Popularizing Blended Learning among Students

Blended learning has been a hot trend in education, which integrates online learning with traditional method together. It combines the cutting-edge technology in online learning and participation and interaction offered by traditional teaching method. In the last decade, a great number of researchers have dedicated to this field. However, the data from the questionnaire indicates that a lot of students are still unfamiliar with blended learning. Apparently, traditional learning method has been limited to the textbooks so that unitary teaching method is no longer applicable to students. The concept of blended learning emphasizes on the integration of new and old methods working seamlessly together to enhance learners' comprehension and get a better achievement.

With the advancement of information technology, electronic devices are not merely a tool for entertainment, but also a new approach to broaden the knowledge. Blended learning has transferred from E-learning to M-learning, which means that students can learn more than in traditional classroom teaching. In the Internet Plus age, a variety of the online learning platforms are mushrooming, such as Massive Open Online Courses (MOOC) and NetEase Open Course, characterizing of studying without the restriction of time and space, convenient to review as well as low payment.

B. Strengthening Student-oriented Teaching

In the age of big data, the role of the teacher in class has transferred from a sage on the stage to a guide on the side (Runqing Liu, 2014). In other words, the teacher has changed into a councilor or facilitator rather than the only source of knowledge, reflecting the student-oriented. The knowledge teachers instructed into learners is apt to be forgettable owing to that it is indirect knowledge. Therefore, it is essential to combine with participating learning in class, which is student-oriented in terms of teaching process. In order to guarantee every student is engaged in class, the number of students in class should be limited within 20 to make sure the classroom efficiency.

Arousing the initiative of students is the core of improving the teaching quality and also the key to reflecting student-oriented teaching. The data from the questionnaire in the table 5 illustrates that a majority of students yearn for improving their spoken English in class due to their lack of sufficient opportunities to practice it after class. In the future English teaching, efforts should be made to highlight the core point of the improvement in English speaking skill by means of presentations and group work. The special-design classroom arrangement that students sit in a circle rather than in a line as customary is a proper way to help them discuss without reserve. In addition, simulating international trade in online platform is also a good choice to cultivate interest. In this way, Students can learn the business process in the real multinational trade through their own experience by imitating the role of exporter, importer or factory.

C. Utilizing Video Blogs in English Teaching

Nothing is more significant than the fact that learning materials should be filled with creativeness and strong timeliness. Nevertheless, the cases in the textbook can't keep pace with the changing world for the reason that the renewal of textbook is slow. Since video blogs renew quickly and are posted in time, utilizing video blogs in teaching is an excellent method to enhance the timeliness and arouse the interest in the meanwhile. For instance, China Daily has posted a series of video blogs in its WeChat official account during the period of the National People's Congress and the Chinese Political Consultative Conference (NPC&CPPCC) and The Second Belt and Road Forum for International Cooperation.

International trade practice course is one of optional courses for English majors with the aim of cultivating their cross-disciplined and comprehensive capacity. Students can expand their scope of knowledge in the field of international trade through case study, but this course emphasizes on language learning in essence. Compared with native speakers, second language learners lack sufficient language input. Those video blogs posted by China Daily which are mainly about interviewing foreign journalists and representatives and other video blogs in YouTube can make up the disadvantages of traditional teaching method. Students can take full advantage of video blogs by listening and imitating what the native speaker said, which is also called as comprehensible input and output in second language acquisition.

D. Improving Teaching Evaluation and Feedback

Teaching evaluation and feedback should be contained in a complete teaching design. Although blended learning put emphasis on autonomy and freedom, it is vital for teachers to have some feedback from students and conduct a process evaluation so that they can appraise academic accomplishment of students.

The data from the questionnaire in the table 8 and table 9 shows that students are inclined to watch videos in class just out of interest and finish the assignment merely before the next class rather than immediately. Thus, teachers should raise several correlative questions before playing videos in class, and invite students to answer the question randomly. After class, teachers should assign some integrated exercises to deepen students' comprehension. Teaching evaluation here should be integrated formative assessment with summative assessment, which is not necessarily synonymous with dictations, quizzes etc. More presentations and group work can motivate students to learn instead of just study for examinations owing to the result which combines students' self-evaluation, peer assessment and teacher's assessment.

VI. CONCLUSION

Blended learning is the integration of traditional teaching method and online learning, which stems from the need of the actual teaching process. In the era of information technology, the electronic device is more than a tool for entertainment, but a new approach for online learning. Although the development of blended learning is on the track, multitudes of students are still unacquainted with it. Therefore, it is necessary to promote blended learning among college students.

According to the characteristics of the video blog, it serves as a form of fragmented learning, which converts the image of the abstract knowledge to deepen students' comprehension. Utilizing video blogs in English teaching breaks the restrictions of the textbook, instilling students with sufficient comprehensible input in the native language environment.

In addition, international trade practice course is a course with high requirement of keeping pace with the changing world, while the textbook is considered as slightly out-dated. Thus, video blogs are regarded as a proper option to serve as seasonable learning materials. However, only when students watch video blogs with the purpose to figure out certain questions, can this truly mobilize learning initiative. Besides, international trade practice course also emphasizes on practical application. English majors can improve their language skills by means of watching video blogs; at the meanwhile they can also put the theory into practice through stimulating the international trade process in the certain online platform.

Nevertheless, this survey is tentative in this field aiming at proffering several suggestions geared to the need of blended learning by using video blogs. There may be some errors in the data gathered by the questionnaire owing to that the respondents may have ambiguous standards towards particular questions.

All in all, keeping the wheels of history, it is beyond doubt that blended learning, especially utilizing video blogs in English teaching, is the suitable method for second language acquisition and highlights the student-oriented teaching as well.

APPENDIX. QUESTIONNAIRE

国际贸易课程中基于视频博客为媒介的混合学习调查问卷

本问卷旨在研究以视频博客为媒介的混合学习在国际贸易课程中的现状及有效性。问卷采用匿名的方式，题量少，仅用于学术上的统计和分析，感谢大家的填写。

一．您所在的学院

1）外国语学院　2）非外国语学院

二.您所处的年级段

1）大一　2）大二　3）大三　4）大四

三.之前是否听说过混合学习

1）是　2）否

四.与传统的教学方法相比，混合学习的优势有哪些

1.学习语料与时俱进　1）很不同意　2）不同意　3）一般　4）同意　5）非常同意

2.学生学习积极性更高　1）很不同意　2）不同意　3）一般　4）同意　5）非常同意

3.学生主体地位更突出　1）很不同意　2）不同意　3）一般　4）同意　5）非常同意

4.更容易理解和掌握知识点　1）很不同意　2）不同意　3）一般　4）同意　5）非常同意

五．平时生活中是否喜欢观看国外的视频博客（Vlog）

1）是　2）否

六．您对移动学习，特别是以外语视频博客为媒介的混合学习持有什么态度

1）支持　2）中立　3）反对

七．所在学院是否有开设国际贸易课程（若选择“否”，则结束问卷）

1）是　2）否

八．在课堂学习中希望侧重于哪些方面的练习（可多选）

1）听　2）说　3）读　4）写

九．在课堂中外语视频博客的运用频率如何

1）每堂课都有　2）偶尔一次　3）非常少

十．课堂中视频的内容题材时效性如何

1）近三个月　2）近半年　3）近一年　4）近三年

十一．课堂中的视频与知识点相关性如何

1）非常符合　2）大致符合　3）有些不符　4）非常不符合

十二．　课堂中的视频资源一般时长为多久

1）3-5 分钟　2）5-10 分钟　3）10-15 分钟

十三．在课堂播放视频时

1）会带着对知识点的问题观看　2）出于有趣的目的观看　3）干其他的事情

十四．您觉得在国际贸易课程中运用视频博客进行学习哪些方面得到了提升

1.国际贸易的知识面　1）很不同意　2）不同意　3）一般　4）同意　5）非常同意

2.外贸英语的词汇量　1）很不同意　2）不同意　3）一般　4）同意　5）非常同意

3.英语口语的表达方式　1）很不同意　2）不同意　3）一般　4）同意　5）非常同意
4.学习的积极性　1）很不同意　2）不同意　3）一般　4）同意　5）非常同意
十五．老师在移动平台上布置的视频资源会及时学习吗
1）立即进行学习　2）下次上课前学习　3）会忘记学习
十六．对于这种以视频博客为媒介的混合学习的模式还有什么建议？

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Pemaliq Words of Human Death within the Society of Sasak-Indonesia: A Linguistic Anthropology Study

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***Abstract*—This study aimed to describe the world's view and cultural values conceptualized by the community of Sasak on *pemaliq* words of human death. Non-participatory observation and in-depth interview methods were used to collect the data. The data were analyzed using a qualitative descriptive approach. It applied Miles and Huberman analysis model consisting of data collection, data reduction, data display, and conclusion. The results of the study showed that *pemaliq* words of human death used by the Sasak community in Sigar Penjalin Village, North Lombok Regency, Indonesia, reflected the perspective of the ancestors in understanding the nature of death. It means those who experience death are the physical matters, while the human spirits keep on living and they are in a holy place, namely in *alam alus* (subtle world). The Sasak community of Sigar Penjalin Village forbid the use of *matè* 'died' as a word for human death, not only it is considered impolite, but it is believed in bringing *tulah manuh* 'misfortune' to those who are using that particular word. Therefore, the ancestors of the Sasak community in Sigar Penjalin Village is in practice of using certain words as a way of avoidance, namely the word *adèq* 'nonexistence', *ngènangang* 'leaving', and *ulèq* 'returning home' (euphemistic words), in which all are used to represent the word *matè* 'died'. Cultural values reflected in the use of those words, namely the values of religiosity, consciousness, and politeness.**

Index Terms*—*Pemaliq*, world's view, cultural values, and linguistic *anthropology

I. Introduction

Interdiction or taboo has become part of the culture and rooted within the Indonesian community. The production and usage of things that are taboos prove that the Indonesian communities have their own perspectives in understanding reality. It relates to understanding things that must not be done because they are considered endangering the communities. In other words, the ancestors of the Indonesian community since ancient time have produced specific rules that limit and control the lives of every individual; controlling words, actions, and behaviors to prevent people from using arbitrary words and perform arbitrary actions and behaviors.

The interdiction or taboo in every region in Indonesia is known by different terms. In Sasak community, Lombok Island, it is known as *pemaliq*. The Sasak community used *pemaliq* as a medium of communication expression that contains taboos in saying certain words, behaving disrespectfully, and acting arbitrarily. It means *pemaliq* is made into a local rule that must not be violated (Hakim, 2008, p. 298; 2015, p. 342 and Selake, 2011, p. 31). Moreover, *pemaliq* is used by Sasak community as a powerful energy source to shape its personality. Therefore, the Sasak community considered their production of *pemaliq* as one of the cultural products containing a valuable and essential concept of thought that can be used as a guidance and principle in performing communication, behavior, and action (see Koentjaraningrat, 2015, p. 153; Uhi, 2016, p. 76-77; Daeng, 2008, p. 46). This consideration means that *pemaliq* words have cultural meanings and values that can be applied in managing life.

Concerning this short article, the writer will explain *pemaliq* words of human death. As have been stated, the words are produced and used by the Sasak community, Sigar Penjalin Village, North Lombok Regency, Indonesia. In this case, the practice of using *pemaliq* words of human death is considered a taboo language. This language is a form of manifestation on the concept of the ancestors' understanding within Sasak community in Sigar Penjalin Village towards the mystery of human existence. Moreover, the production and expression of *pemaliq* words of death is a manifestation of cultural values that can be applied in managing life, especially in the form of politeness and courtesy. Hence, the practice of using *pemaliq* words of death is seen as a taboo language that reflects the avoidance of the utterance of certain inappropriate words referred to the people who passed on due to those words are considered to be harmful (see Wardhaugh, 2010, p. 249; Douglas, 2001, p. 4). In other words, certain words that are considered inappropriate to be uttered for those who passed on can result in adverse impact to those who spoke them; they will experience misfortunes within their lives (Yusuf & Yusuf, 2014, p. 21). The misfortune may occur due to the arrogance of the speakers' unwillingness to respect and honor those who passed on. It means that the practice of using *pemaliq* words of death can fall into a method of forming moral behavior (see Allan & Kate, 2006, p. 1; Freud, 2001, p. 22; and Laksana, 2009, p. 65).

In Indonesia, studies on taboos related to death had been carried out by previous researchers, for example, the studies conducted by Barus et al. (2018) on "Linguistic Taboos in Karonese Culture", and Laksana (2009) on "Tabu Bahasa: Salah Satu Cara Memahami Kebudayaan Bali". These studies still focus on issues regarding the type/form, function and the meaning of taboo language, also the method of avoiding forbidden words. However, these studies have not highlighted another aspect of taboo language that is considered very important, namely the cultural values contained in each taboo language.

Based on the explanation above, *pemaliq* words of death practiced by the Sasak community in Indonesia have become an interesting object to be studied deeply and comprehensively. Therefore, the essence of this short article aims to describe the speaker's world point of view and cultural values reflected in the expression of the lingual forms of *pemaliq* words of death.

II. Theoretical Framework

The researcher applied linguistic anthropology theory for this research. Linguistic anthropology is the theory that examines the role and meaning of a language that builds a culture (Foley, 1997, p. 3; 2016, p. 251). In other words, linguistic anthropology investigates the practice on the use of a language that forms and gives meaning to culture (see Salzman, Stainlaw, & Adachi, 2012, p. 14-25; Danesi, 2004, p. 7; Crystal, 2008, p. 27; and Sibarani, 2014, p. 314; 2015; 2004).

Furthermore, Duranti (1997, p. 2) also asserted that linguistic anthropology is a study of language as a cultural resource and speaking as a cultural practice. Thus, Duranti (1997, p. 3-4) emphasized that the concept of a language in linguistic anthropology as a symbolic source used in social and communication settings has a vital role in manifesting the real and unreal world's view or the aspect of ideational and material that realize the existence of the human being (cf. Palmer, 1996; Geert, 1973, p. 10-12). Therefore, the language features that create *pemaliq* of death are considered as conceptualization codes that are embedded within the social construction and had become a reflection of the human experience (Sharifian, 2017, p. 2). The language feature that objectifies *pemaliq* words related to death influenced Sasak community's view on the reality of life and their personality (see Astawa, Budiarsa, & Simpen, 2019). To that, this justifies Wang & Jia (2016) perspective that the use of language within a culture can give an understanding of the production of the culture itself in regards to reality and itself.

III. Research Method

This research was conducted within the indigenous community of the Sasak in Sigar Penjalin Village, North Lombok Regency, Indonesia. This research is descriptive qualitative research that describes lingual expression data. The data expressed manifests *pemaliq* words of death in a narrative manner. The data was obtained through the method of in-depth interviews and non-participatory observation. The collected data was analyzed using Miles and Huberman's (1994, p. 10-12) flow path models. The models consisted of four, namely: data collection, data reduction, data display and conclusion. (1) data collection; collecting utterances expressing taboos that are mentioning death and the use of evasion words; (2) data reduction; simplifying and adjusting the data by only selecting data that are related to *pemaliq* words of human death; (3) data display; presenting the data in the form of lingual expression that showed the interdiction of mentioning the human death. In addition, this section also describes the content of the evasion words that are used to replace the avoided words, exploring the meaning and cultural values embedded in evasion words based on ethic and emic approaches; and (4) conclusions; drawing conclusions from the perspective of Sasak community in Sigar Penjalin Village towards the mystery of human existence.

IV. Results and Discussions

The community of Sasak in Sigar Penjalin Village considered the behaviors of mutual respect and honor between human beings are not limited only to the people but also to those who passed on. In this case, the Sasak community in Sigar Penjalin Village produced specific rules that can be used in respecting them. The rules applied to those people are known as *pemaliq* that must not be violated, and if so it is believed to bringing *tulah manuh* a 'misfortune', for instance, it is taboo to name the process of a dead person with the word *matè* 'die'. See the example in the following *pemaliq* expression.

(1) *Deq kanggo ny-(s)ebut matè tau siq ngènangang*
NEG allow DA-say to die people REL dead

‘It is not allowed to use the word ‘*die’* for the dead people’

The *pemaliq* expression above illustrates that Sasak community in Sigar Penjalin Village has forbidden the usage of the word *matè* ‘die’ in referring to human death. The word ‘matè’ in this case, is considered inappropriate to be applied to humans. Its meaning is believed to be less polite and has a low sense of values. The utterance is improper to be heard by the people, primarily if heard by the family of the ones who passed on. Hence, the word *matè* ‘die’ itself refers to the death of animals or plants. Thus, if the word *matè* ‘die’ is used for human death, then humans are considered animals. To distinguish between the death of humans and the death of animals or plants, the ancestors of Sasak community in Indonesia had produced and used specific words to replace the use of the word *matè* ‘die’, that is, using euphemistic words such as *adèq*, *ngènangang*, and *ulèq*.

The word *adèq* lexically means ‘non-existence’. This word is categorized as adverbial, a word that describes the state of things. The word *adèq* is used when a person is dying or several minutes after passing away. This word is usually uttered by a *kiai* or a religious figure who checks on the condition of the dying person. It is to ensure whether s/he is still alive or not. In this case, when a dying person is truly dead, then a *kiai* will announce the death of a dying person to all the family members. Regarding the above situation, the word *adèq* in this context is known as a word that refers to the soul of the deceased who had left his physical body. In other words, the spirit that livens up the physical matter of a human is *adèq* ‘no longer existing’ within the human body. See the data below:

(2) *Wah adèq-nya, Inaq Samenah ni*
Already NEG PRON-3, Mrs Samenah this
‘Mrs. Samenah is no longer existing’

The sentence above was uttered by a religious leader who examined *Inaq Samenah’s* condition to reassure whether she was still alive or already passed away. In this case, when the physical matter of *Inaq Samenah* had shown no sign of living, which was proven by the non-existence of her pulse and breath, the religious leader who examine her condition then informed her relatives that she had passed away. Thus, the word *adèq* ‘no longer existing’ uttered by the religious leader on data 2 refers to the fact that the soul of *Inaq Samenah* no longer existed in her physical matter.

Meanwhile, the word *ngènangang* is a word categorized as a verb and in a syntactic structure, always functions as a predicate. Morphologically, the word *ngènangang* is formed by the addition of the confix *{ng- ang}* + *ènang* → *ngènangang*, which lexically means ‘leaving’. The word *ngènangang* is usually uttered by *penyilaq*; a person who is in charge of informing a person’s death to a relative or other people, and at the same time inviting them to attend the prayer and the funeral. See the example of the use of the word in the data below:

(3) A : *Aku kte berain diq seninan man Salik nu ngènangang*
PRON-1 here tell PRON-2, wife uncle Salik that leaving
‘I’m here to tell you that uncle Salik’s wife had left/passed away’

B : *Sekumbèan ia ngènangang?*
When PRON-3 leaving
‘When exactly did she pass away?’

A : *Tonèq lemaq*
Just now morning
‘This morning’

Data (3) showed that speaker A is penyilaq who informed the death of uncle Salik’s wife to speaker B. In this case, when speaker A informed the news to speaker B he used the word *ngènangang,* which was then also being used by speaker B after receiving the information from speaker A. However, the word *ngènangang* within the understanding concept of Sasak community in Sigar Penjalin Village is actually a word that informs the spirit’s departure of the deceased to return to God. In this case, the Sasak community of Sigar Penjalin Village understood that the departure a person to meet his Creator has *ngènang* ‘left’ his physical matter, leaving all family, relatives, and loved ones forever. To leave a physical matter here means that the human spirit that has departed will leave its body to be in eternal life. Furthermore, the context of leaving the family, relatives, and loved ones illustrates that the person who passed on travels earlier to real life. In other words, this world is claimed to be a terminal for everyone waiting for a vehicle or to be picked up, which will take them to a place as the final destination. In this regard, those who passed on earlier are those who were picked up earlier to be taken into the place of his final destination.

The following word *ulèq* is a word categorized as a verb, which lexically means ‘returning home’. Concerning death, the word *ulèq* illustrates that a person who died is an actor (subject) who travels *ulèq* back home from a place to its origin or original residence. For more explanation, look at the data below:

(4) *Cukup wah menangis, ikhlasang seninan diq teger tenang ulèq!*
Enough already crying, be sincere wife PRON-2 so peaceful returning home
‘Stop crying, you have to let your wife go sincerely so she can return home peacefully!’

Data (4) showed that a speaker was advising a man who was left by his wife. The sentence reflected that the speaker was trying to give comfort, strength, and understanding to the man that his wife is actually on a journey of *ulèq* ‘returning home’ to her origin/the place where she once came from. In this context, those who passed on have returned to their owners, to God the Creator. Hence, it can be emphasized that the word *ulèq* reflects the understanding of Sasak community in Sigar Penjalin Village that this world is not an eternal place; however, it is only a temporary place or a stop for the route to eternity. The place of eternity for the deceased in this case is in the *alam alus* (subtle world) (cf. Budiwanti, 2000, p. 145).

The understanding of Sasak community in Sigar Penjalin Village, which is conceptualized in the practice of using the words *adèq, ngènangang,* and *ulèq* as references to the word *matè* 'die' as explained above, is related to the understanding of the three worlds of human life. The sasak community of Sigar Penjalin Village conceptualizes the three worlds of human life into (1) *alam peteng* (in the womb), (2) *alam benah* (in the real world), and (3) *alam alus* (the world after death).

Alam peteng (in the womb) is the starting point of human life, and it is believed to be the place where humans received the orders and decisions of the Creator. Furthermore, the received command in that world will be practiced by humans after being born into the next phase of life; *alam benah* (the real world). In this case, *alam benah* (the real world) is seen as a place where humans actualize their existence as servants. As the servants, humans must obey the orders and stay away from things prohibited by the Creator. Furthermore, *alam benah* (the real world) is also understood as a waiting place for being picked up to the third world, which is *alam alus*; the subtle world as the final destination for facing the Creator. Thus, the three worlds of human life essentially describe the journey of human life itself, in which initially starting from the subtle world (*alam peteng*) to the real world (*alam benah*) and returning to the subtle world (*alam alus*). In other words, the three worlds of human life understood by Sasak community of Sigar Penjalin Village are the understanding of the existence and non-existence of human beings.

The explanation of the evasion words in the form of euphemism words above reflected that *pemaliq* words of death contain cultural values that can be applied in managing life. The cultural values of *pemaliq* words of death consist of the value of religiosity, the value of consciousness and politeness. The value of religiosity is the value that describes the belief in human existence as a creature created by God and will return to God. The value of consciousness is the value that represents human consciousness in understanding the presence of its physical body only as an outer layer that will get damaged and becoming soil again. Meanwhile, politeness is the use of kind words, words that have a high sense of values and are appropriate to be uttered to all human beings, even to those who passed on.

V. Conclusion

Based on the discussion above, it can be inferred that *pemaliq* words of human deaths, which are being used by Sasak community in Indonesia, have shown that there are perspectives or concepts in understanding the nature of human existence. In this case, the ancestors of the Sasak community had conceptualized their views on the nature of human existence through lingual items that express *pemaliq* words of death, especially on euphemistic evasion words.

Pemaliq words of death are the local rules produced by the ancestors as a mean of control to avoid the occurrence of arbitrariness in a speech to prevent the happening of misfortune. In other words, *pemaliq* words of death are used to create mutual respect and honor among human beings even to those who passed on because the essence of the person's death is the deceased of his physical matter, while his soul will stay alive.

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