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# Directorial Approach of Reflective Darkness in Handling Plays with the Visually Impaired: Case Study of Federal College of Education (SP) Oyo, Nigeria

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**Abstract**—Practicability of theatre (irrespective of actor’s physiological condition) is the availability of a body that is capable of moving in an occupied space and responds to direction. Consequently, this study examines the process involved in directing plays for the visually impaired. It employs the analytical and historical methods while participant-observation serves as an instrument used. Adopted is Jaques Derrida’s theory of Deconstruction which is grounded in how communication is effected and how languages, codes, signs and movements and symbols are interpreted. Undoubtedly, the visually impaired persons are fit for theatre practice and directing them though challenging, is an interesting endeavor but this is better achieved through reflective darkness. It is hereby recommended that for the visually impaired, reflective darkness, which is a synthesis of spatial arrangement, verbal and non-verbal communication is the way to enhance their communication capability and creative ability. Therefore, attention should be given to people with special needs in general and the visually impaired in particular, as their involvement in theatre practice/performance will tremendously provide a better future for them as it ensures self-reliance which will be a complete departure from the usual degrading and dehumanising practices such as alms begging, crime and caricature known of them.

**Index Terms**—visually impaired, theatre, deconstruction, production

## I. INTRODUCTION

Drama is a mirror of life. In fact, citing William Shakespeare, Heminge (1996, p. 680) states that it is “mirror held up to nature”. This mirror is being held up by characters, and these characters are the agents of the action as Aristotle cited in Dukore (1974, p. 37) avers that “characters hold a second place. Thus tragedy is the imitation of an action, and of the agents, mainly with a view to the action”. The statement above implies that characters hold a central place in a performance as they are the agents, instruments or vehicles through which the plot of a play develops. As a matter of fact, Aristotle posits that character is the most important element in drama, after the plot. They are pivotal in the dramatic process. Every dramatic enactment, has the actor put his visual and aural faculties to play. Hence, Adedeji (1988, p. 1) posits that drama “include the use of mind, body and voice in expression for adequate communication with the audience”.

People with special needs such as the crippled, the visually impaired, the hearing impaired, the dumb and others find it difficult one way or other to participate in dramatic performances. In fact, “visually impaired individuals would normally experience a lot of difficulties performing jobs that require sight” (Durojaiye, 1996, p. 131). Durojaiye’s assertion poses the conviction that the disabled (the crippled, the visually impaired, the hearing impaired, the dumb, the normally retarded and others) are not predisposed to dramatic enactment. Therefore, there is the belief that there is a limitation to their contribution to the society, societal development and so on. Conversely, scholars, researchers and academics in education of people with special needs, such as Giwa (2008), Durojaye(2009), Okuoyibo (2010), Adebisi (2012), Ajobiewe (2014) posit that the visually impaired can as well contribute to educational and societal development. Hence, Ojo, (1996, p. 132) also avers that “the visually impaired can be well integrated into the society if adequate training and provisions are made to compensate for the loss of vision”. Thus, the ability and place of the visually impaired in the society cannot be overemphasized. Consequently, this study examines the visually impaired as apt subject to dramatic performances. It investigates Reflective Darkness, as a directorial approach to handling plays with the visually impaired.

### A Contextual Study of Visual Impairment

In recent times, people with special needs such as the blind, the deaf, the dumb, the crippled and so on, have been a subject of discussion in different disciplines in the academia. These discussions have been on how they can be relevant

in the society and to the society. This is because there is the notion that people with special needs are not germane in the society. That because of their inability, they cannot contribute to societal development. Amongst these set of people, are the visually impaired. The visually impaired in the context of this study, are people who are unable to see and those born blind which may be congenital or acquired. This inability to see may be congenital or acquired. The discrimination of the handicapped in general and the visually impaired persons in particular is not a recent phenomenon. In fact, “before the 20<sup>th</sup> century, handicapped persons were killed, domestically sold as slaves or used as sacrifices to the gods” (Giwa, 1996, p. 155). They were/are seen as nondescript. Even Adolf Hitler of Germany had the handicapped subjected to euthanasia and experimentation because he felt they were a liability to the state.

In Nigeria, “missionaries started custodian services while later the government laws further endorsed the right of the handicapped” (Giwa, 1996, p. 155). To integrate the blind and other impaired victims in the society, the Christian missionaries did not only play a major role, the Nigerian government also enacted laws to protect the interest of the visually handicapped. Thus, citing Nigerian Policy of Education, Giwa (1996, p. 155) states that “the Federal Government of Nigeria National Policy on Education has as one of its objectives that it will provide adequate education for all handicapped children and adults in order that they may fully play their roles in the development of the nation”. This has led to the establishment of subjects for the visually impaired in schools of primary and second study, the formation of departments for training students with disability in universities, and the creation of a college of education for educating the blind and people with special needs in general. A good example of such a school is Federal College of Education (Special) Oyo, Oyo State.

Furthermore, “blind pupils will require specialised equipment and additional elements in adapting to the environment... the blind will depend on tactile and auditory means in his/her attempt to reach the information which is easily available to the sighted” (Agbaje, 1996, p. 188). This is the reason the visually impaired have been portrayed by artists in a deleterious light. Hence, the *International Organisation on Arts and Disability Magazine* (2011, p. 11) states that artists such as filmmakers, playwrights and so on, portray “sensory disabilities such as deafness and blindness in negative light”. Hence, in some dramatic performances, the roles of traditional doctor or an antagonist, is usually played by someone with disability.

On the other hand, some people with disability do not see their disability as a challenge. Rather, they see it as a part of life. Citing Belluso, the *International Organisation on Arts and Disability* (2011, p. 1) states that “disability is an experience that shapes my life and view of the world, and a topic that I find endlessly fascinating because there is that universal element. It is the one minority class in which anyone can become a member at any time”. In corroboration of John Belluso’s claim, Akanbi (1996, p. 162) states that “people often forget that it is possible for the visually impaired child to be independent in these skills if he or she has acquired the skills”. If anyone could become disabled at any time, the responsibility to make sure the disabled are made self-reliant and independent becomes communal, that is why:

In 1979, the World Health Organisation (WHO) published two editions of an experimental manual on rehabilitation and disability prevention for developing countries. The volume introduced the concept of Community-Based Rehabilitation (CBR) of disabled persons. As the name implies, CBR involves measures taken at community level to use and build on the resources of the community, including the impaired, their families and the whole community. Such measures would be conditions to enable the disabled and handicapped to participate actively in the mainstream of community life (Ajobiwe, 1996, pp. 143-144).

Thus, the study attempts to stand between this existing gap and make theatre practice accessible for the disabled.

### **The Visually Impaired and Acting**

Though, there are a dearth of literatures on drama and the visually impaired. The few materials that are available on theatre and the visually impaired, are on music and dance. The subject of acting and the visually impaired have not been given adequate attention in Nigeria. Perhaps, this is because of the belief of the inability of the blind in executing certain functions. However, the *International Organisation on Arts and Disability Magazine* (2011, p. 10) states that:

The ancient Greek dramatists Sophocles, Aeschylus and Euripides include characters with disabilities in their plays as do the early writers from other cultures and eras. These characters’ disabilities determined how the character functioned but do not necessarily reflect how people with disability truly lived, thought, or behaved. In other words, most playwrights have used disability as a metaphor so that the character has a special meaning within the play. Usually these metaphors reflect and reinforce society’s negative or limiting attitudes about people with disabilities.

The ancient Greek dramatists thus, used characters with special needs not only as performers but also as a topic of discourse. In *Oedipus at Collonus*, King Oedipus is portrayed as visually impaired. However, in the past few centuries, the place of the blind, the deaf and dumb, the neurotic, and other people with special needs have been able to find a place in the theatrical space. Hence, the foray of an artist such as Bethoveen in the music art. Bethoveen, a musician and composer of international acclaim/repute was deaf. Though, this limited his aesthetic appreciation of his art, it did not deter him from composing more musical scores. In the same vein, Antonin Artaud, the proponent of the theatre theory, called *Theatre of Cruelty*, wrote most of his plays, when he suffered from neurosis and was being hospitalised in the sanatorium. Thus, Adeoye (2009, p. 6), notes that “Nietzsche’s madness, pneumonia and stroke were repercussions for blasphemy”. Though, not an artist in the real sense of the word, the philosopher cum art critic still surged in his career in spite of impairment.

Furthermore, Ojo (1996, p. 72), states that “children who are visually impaired learn to indulge in theatrical activities the same way as their sighted peers”. Abosi and Ozoji (1985, p. 1) also corroborate the above statement, that “no single mental activity of the congenitally blind is distorted by the absence of sight”. Therefore, visual impairment does not impede the creative ability of the blind-in-relation to acting. Creativity in acting and in other theatrical arts is not determined by the seeing faculty of the actor. There are some actors “and not only those with special needs, who will find some form of drama activities, or even the drama space itself, challenging” (Eibar, 2002, p. 18). However, this is predicated on the directorial approach the director uses in the directorial process. The visually impaired can be well integrated into the society if adequate training and provisions are made to compensate for the loss of vision. Indeed, “techniques and technology only need to be developed or adapted for them to perform duties that require vision and precision” (Durojaiye, 1996, p. 132).j

## II. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This study employs Jacques Derrida’s Deconstruction Theory. Jacques Derrida crystallised the theory of deconstruction also known as Poststructuralism. “The Poststructuralists point out that in a single text, one can find many meanings, all of them possible and all of them replaceable by others. Instead of showing how the conventions of a text work, deconstruction shows how they falter” (Dobie, 2009, p. 155). Therefore, this study explicates how the conventional approaches in directing falter, when it comes to directing the visually impaired.

Furthermore, in the context of this study, the theory of Deconstruction means a dislocation of all other approaches in directing and a reconstruction of what we appropriate as the theory of Reflective Darkness. Deconstruction “recognises that any human utterance has a multitude of possibilities of meaning. The simplest statement may be heard in a variety of ways, giving language a tendency to undermine itself by refuting what appears to be saying” (Dobie, 2009, p. 156). Deconstructionist believes that language is perceived, interpreted and reinterpreted in various ways. Therefore, Deconstruction Theory according to Dobie (2009, p 156) looks for places where texts contradict, and thereby deconstruct themselves, while the structuralists are scientific, the deconstructionalists are passionate and emotional.

The following are some of the notable features inherent in the deconstructionist theory of Jaques Derrida:

- enables directors to rework existing directorial approach(es).
- rejects conservatism
- seeks to bridge the gap between texts and performances.
- affords the director unfettered liberty with a text in performance.
- explicates how theory forecast instead of how they work.
- does not give room for stereotype.
- does not legislate strict adherence.

Therefore, Deconstruction theory will allow us to explore the directorial approach of Reflective Darkness which is the spatial placement or arrangement of actors and props on stage, with codified sound and bodily expression a director employs in passing across his message to the blind actors. However, the multi-faceted nature of interpreting gestures, body language and movements, becomes a weakness of Deconstruction Theory.

## III. METHODOLOGY

The methodology employed in this work is participant observation whose major aim is to gain a close and intimate familiarity with a given group of individuals and their practices through an intensive involvement with people in their cultural environment, usually over an extended period of time. There are five types of participant observation namely Non-Participatory, Passive Participation, Moderate Participation, Active Participation and complete participation. The researchers adopted complete participation observation which allows for deep involvement of the researchers with other members involved in the experiment. This is akin to the homestead methodological approach used in Theatre for Development whereby catalysts integrates themselves with community members to gain their confidence and trust in order to have a more accurate result. Usage of participant observation by reflective darkness is a synthesis of spatial arrangement, codified sounds and bodily expression, body contact, voice perception, verbal and non-verbal communication that a director employs in passing across his message to and through visually impaired actors. Its features include body contacts, voice perception, humour, props guide. spatial arrangement (space of the stage), codified sounds, inter-dependency, metrical measurement of stage area and steps counting.

## IV. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

The directorial approach employed in directing the visually impaired, is what determines the effectiveness or otherwise of the actor in enacting his role effectively. First, like in any other directing experience, thorough understanding of the script was undertaken by the director and while doing this, the director identifies the important roles that will be played by actors who are impaired. After this, he proceeds to rehearsal with his actors who in this instance are visually impaired. Typical of rehearsals, he begins with exercise sessions and this time around, his exercises were fashioned in respect of the condition of the visually impaired. First, he leads them in what is called

walking the stage. This he does by allowing them to walk the length and breadth of the stage, first with their mobility canes, next, he walks them without the mobility cane, but by himself. This time, he insists they count the number of steps taken from one end of the stage to the other in order for them to get to know the metrical extent of the stage in terms of the length and breadth. He allows them to key this into memory to be recalled later and execute into actions when it is needed.



Fig. 1: A researcher leading the visually impaired actors in walking the stage.  
Picture Credit: Researchers.

Furthermore, the director narrates the story line to the actors even before handling the script to them. This is in accordance with Gbegbin's submission that "Storytelling and drama techniques provide opportunities for impaired children to use language across a wide range of functions to explain, to reason, to predict, project or to imagine" (1996, pp. 79-80). It is ideal for the director to understand their peculiarity in terms of vision.

The next most important thing after keying in the measurement of the stage including the marked exists and entrances is the voice training. For a visually impaired actor, his voice is his most potent instrument. Hence, his voice ought to be handled in such a way that it possesses the appropriate timbre and resonance that makes it pleasing to the ear. That is why Styan (1979, p. 163) states that:

Much of the success of radio drama, even though it is using a blind medium, is due to the fact that the sound of a voice has the power to stimulate the listener's motor imagination, to excite him to reproduce imaginatively some muscular activity.

The director ensures this and made sure they understood his motives by letting them know what he seeks out in them. This is very important because a play well heard will make-up for the inadequacy of composition as well as picturisation which their lack of sight might generate. That is, clumsy pictures would be made up for with clear and resonate renditions by the visually challenged actors. Hence the director took cognizance of this and gives it the adequate attention it deserves.



Fig. 2: Visually impaired actors singing and dancing during voice training session  
Picture Credit: Researchers.

Furthermore, the director built a very high level of confidence and trust in the actors. That is, he made them to get them out of their shells and helped them overcome the complex of low self-esteem that they are generally characterised with. This he achieved by building intimacy and sense of belonging in the actors. Though humorous, was careful and choosy about his jokes and nature of humour he employs for fear of misinterpretation. Having achieved this desired level of trust and confidence in his actors, he then admonishes them to rely solely on his eyes for their seeing. That is,

he begins to “see” for every actor in rehearsals, this is important in order to eliminate mechanical acting. Thus, the visually impaired actor relies solely on the director for guidance and sight and therefore was able to walk on stage without exaggerated precaution or inhibition. They begin to walk freely and confidently on stage as if they can see. This is very important in Reflective Darkness as an approach of directing as it is the very reflective situation in which the director serves as mirror or eyes that sees and allows the actor to reflect his sight in their performance. The actor sees on stage through the director’s sight and performs based on his guidance.

Thus, he needs to invent and originates various communication codes with which he communicates with his actors (beyond spoken words e.g. clapping and whistle blowing). Also, the director answers questions from the actors in relation to the story line



Fig. 3: A researcher and the visually impaired actors discussing the various communication codes invented by the researcher.  
Picture Credit: Researchers.

The next phase is the casting process which is democratic in nature. That is, the directors allow them to choose a select roles they feel they can handle. Two major reasons for adopting this is to increase intimacy with the actors as well as to boost their sense of self-esteem, secondly, it helps them to have the feeling that they are an integral part of the play, hence to put in their best.

However, during course of the rehearsals, observation was made keenly to ascertain that the actors are suitable for the role, and if not, appropriately change them. This casting of course is after audition as it may be fatal to cast without audition. This warning again was sounded by Agoro who states that “do not cast people who you know personally, unless they happen to audition” (2001, p. 80). In doing this, the director was not to be biased in his casting so as to select the right actors for the right roles. Casting the visually impaired is challenging, this is because, they are the ones who suffer low self-esteem the most, out of all impaired persons, hence, there is always this initial reluctance to come out of their shells. It is due to this reasons and many more that the director needs to employ reflective darkness style which not only make them feel at home but also be able to engage in character portrayal. The director must lead the actors in effective script interpretation. This was an onerous task for the visually impaired as we are deconstructing their conventional means of reading which is the braille. The director at this stage gives his actors a sense of belonging and carefully narrates the events in the performance to them and what is expected of them. He was not dictatorial which eases communication gap and made them feel more at home.

Having understood the play, the directors allow them to do what they can do on stage through improvisation. He however makes adjustment where and when it is necessary. With this, there was an exploration of the creative impulse of the actors by the director. The actors bring their own idea which the director critically examines. This directorial approach could be linked to the Montessori teaching approach in which “the teacher’s role is to guide the child from any harm and concentrate in the training of the senses” (Okuyibo, 2008, p. 180). Despite the directors exploration of the creative ability of the actors, he discards their unnecessary contribution and integrate the necessary ones into the performance. At the embryonic stage of rehearsals, the director made sure that the visually impaired actors memorised their lines and also know their blockings before full blockings are effected:

When you are in verbal intercourse on the stage, speak not so much to the ears of the eye’. Stanislavsky’s paradox is easily resolved, since intonation and gesture, the terms by which is specified any motion by one actor for himself, are twin and inseparable. (Styan, 1979, p. 98)

It is in rehearsals that the director employs the ingredients of reflective darkness on the actors who are visually impaired. In order to bring about a successful production, he employs the space of the stage (Spatial arrangement) body contact and codified sounds to pass instructions to his actors. This, he achieves, by establishing defined exits and entrances for the actors who already know the metrical extent of the stage area and then rely on their sense of rhythm in reflecting this measurement in rehearsals, such that two actors coming from two different directions on stage, counting

and executing the recommended number of steps, cannot collide on stage despite not seeing. Coupled with this, the director relied on voice perception to achieve good and pleasing pictures on stage.



Fig. 4: Visually impaired actors relying on spatial arrangement move on stage without colliding with one another.  
Picture Credit: Researchers.

Apart from the above, the directors employed the use of props as well as fellow actors as “body contact” to make his challenged actors aware of themselves on stage. That is, the director made use of props and other actors to prompt his actor on stage. He instructs them that, once the actor comes into contact with either an actor or a prop he moves no more. This entails that the director placed his actor and properties strategically on stage in order to conform with his blockings and how he wants to move his actor on stage.



Fig. 5: Visually impaired actors are trained to freeze on contact with another actor  
Picture Credit: Researchers.

## V. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

Directing the visually impaired in a play production is not an easy task. Beyond the director’s attention on his cast, he also works with the stage manager whose task includes easing the director of the strenuous task of directing the visually challenged and be ready to take orders and be able to work patiently and diligently with the visually impaired actors in order to achieve the director’s intent. Increasing the comfort level of the visually impaired is where theatre provides opportunities to stretch and grow, not only in speaking within larger groups, but expanding life enhancing skill as well. The outcome of this experiment reveals that drama can liberate the visually impaired from inferiority complex, low self-esteem and act as a socialising medium of fraternisation as well as elicit the creative ability in them, with a view towards creating a place for them in the society.

This is in view of the discovery that societal perception of the disability limits their expression and creative power. In the same vein, it discovers that discrimination against the visually and the hearing impaired contribute immensely to their low self esteem and further degrade their hidden talent which invariably leads to inferiority complex. Also, psychology becomes an important factor in directing the impaired as it is highly challenging and interesting especially with the visually and hearing impaired. Directing the impaired opens the director to streams of communicative network.



In the disabilities of the impaired lies great opportunity that could be explored by themselves and concerned stakeholders for self dependency.

## VI. DISCUSSION

The theatre could be a good teaching intervention medium for the impaired. It can also facilitate socialisation between the unimpaired and the impaired thereby obliterating every form of inferiority complex in their psyche. It is recommended that integrative approaches should be adopted in the process of directing people with one form of disability or the other. This will extend the frontiers of directing the impaired beyond the vocational exploration by projecting it as only a means to an end but rather as an end in itself. It will be a welcome development if upcoming researchers beams their searchlights on the therapeutic tendencies of the directing practice by focusing their engagement to serve as therapy for the impaired, just as consistent involvement of the impaired will keep them relevant in problem solving situations and expose them to overcome some disability challenges.

Giving the creative power of the impaired as revealed by this experiment, Non Governmental Organisations (NGOs), governmental agencies and policy makers need to take more interest in their plight as they are willing to contribute their own quota to the development of the nation despite their various challenges. Adequate measures should be put in place to prevent accident on stage by making sure that actors are familiarised with given stage for performances which may be remarkably different in structural design from the rehearsal stage.

## VII. CONCLUSION

Conclusively, this paper opines that the theatre is good for the visually impaired, because they are also suitably fit for theatre practice despite their challenging predicament. That the theatre, being the mirror which reflects the society's image for evaluation, and given the universal beliefs that; someone in the darkened medium (auditorium in the theatre) sees images clearly in a lit medium (on stage). The visually impaired being in the darkened medium of the society, sees the society clearer and succinctly enough to adequately reflect such society in re-enactment in such an emotionally deep manner that can effect very positive changes in the society. That the Reflective Darkness, which is a synthesis of spatial arrangement, voice perception, body contact, codified sounds, verbal and non-verbal communication on stage is the way to enhance their communication capability and creative ability. It is therefore suggested that more attention should be given to people with special needs in general and the visually impaired in particular, as their involvement in theatre practice/performance will tremendously provide a better future for them. It will ensure self-reliance and a complete departure from degrading and dehumanising practices such as alms begging, crime and caricature known of them. It is equally recommended that Nigerian theatre directors should not sideline the visually impaired in the pre-production, production and the post-production stages of the theatre enterprise.

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**Olatunji Olayinka AIKOMO** is an accomplished artist who has put in about 18 years of teaching at Federal College of education (Special) Oyo. He attended University of Ilorin where he obtained his B.A and M.A in Performing Arts. He is currently on his doctoral programme at Federal University, Oye-Ekiti.

# Bridging the Gap for English Language Testing Study in Fiji: Proposing an Evaluation of the Writing Proficiency Level of Pre-first Year and Post-first Year Undergraduate Students

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**Abstract**—Language testing is a complex field of study as there are various factors that need to be taken into account when preparing and assessing the students' language proficiency. However, it plays a pivotal role in society. With the results of language tests used for immigration purposes, university entrance qualifications as well as employment opportunities. Scholars attest that it is obligatory for language teachers to constantly 'assess their students' oral and written performances', and the *Common European Framework of Reference for Language* (CEFR) offers a variety of oral and writing scales which provide the 'opportunity for a common standard'. This paper argues the significant gaps that are yet to be address in a language testing research and highlights why a study needs to be conducted in Fiji with the university students. The article discusses applying a quantitative methodology thus, a longitudinal research design to conduct a language testing study on writing proficiency levels of undergraduate students; compare the writing proficiency levels of pre-first year and post-first year university students by using academic essay tests of the same cohort; and finally determine undergraduate students' progress (or lack of) in written English over the course of their program.

**Index Terms**—language testing, Fiji, CEFR, language proficiency, applied linguistics, writing

## I. INTRODUCTION

### Language Proficiency in Applied Linguistics

In the discipline of Applied Linguistics, various fields exist which largely have yet to be explored in the Pacific. One of these fields language testing, can be branched out as language proficiency, which is yet to gain prominence in research in Fiji. This paper discusses the need for a study on written English proficiency of university students in Fiji. Language proficiency is 'the ability of students to use a language in order to make and communicate meaning in spoken and written contexts such as writing an academic paper or addressing a professional audience' (Murray, 2015, p.70). In Fiji, the English language proficiency plays a crucial role as it is essential for everyday living for example, academic performance, university entrance, employment opportunities as well as commerce (Hopf, McDonagh, Wang, & McLeod, 2018, p.1). However, much of the research that has been conducted on language proficiency in Fiji has yet to attempt a longitudinal study such as that proposed. Deverell (1989) conducted a research at the University of the South that looked at the English proficiency level of foundation year students. The findings provided an implication that 'at least 100 science and 100 social science students lacking proficiency in English' would begin each year with a 'less than fifty percent chance of passing in ten subjects in the foundation program' (Deverell, 1989, p.15). Thus, the paper proposes for the first quantitative evaluation of the undergraduate students' progress (or lack of) in written English over the course of their university program.

Fiji is a 'multilingual, multiracial country' situated in the South Pacific with various languages that make up the nation. Bordering both "the Polynesian and Melanesian parts of the South Pacific, is Fiji with a number of dialects of Fijian" (Geraghty, 1984) and a "multiplicity of Indian languages: Hindi, Gujerati, Punjabi, Urdu, Telegu, Tamil, Malayalam" (Mugler, 1996), and a number of minority languages, the most prominent being Rotuman. In Fiji, since the 1926 Review of Education Commission established "the main language policy-the practice of instruction in the mother tongue in the first three years of primary school and thereafter English replacing the first language; there has not been a major shift in language policy" (Fiji Education Commission, 2000.p.290). The role of 'English increased dramatically as a consequence of a 1916 Education Ordinance policy whereby the government provided financial aid to independent schools on the condition that they taught some English' (Mangubhai, 1984). English is the official language and the language of instruction at primary and secondary levels. However, it is the second language for most people. Students who enroll at university arrive with various levels of proficiency. Hence the relevance of further research.

Further, Cummins (2000, p.202) suggests that 'the controversial issues surrounding bilingual education can only be solved if there is an adequate conceptualization of the nature of language proficiency and of its assessment, specifically relating to academic achievement'. But, for Fiji substantial research in the field of language testing and specially

language proficiency has yet to explore a quantitative evaluation. This claim was echoed in a language proficiency research in Fiji where the researchers attested that lack of research in language testing or in language proficiency can be attributed to ‘the complex linguistic environment, a lack of locally developed testing material, and the limited historical study of Fijian children’s language proficiency’ (Hopf, McDonagh, Wang, & McLeod, 2018, p.2).

Therefore, arises a need for a research that will determine the writing proficiency level of undergraduate students in a longitudinal study, whereby the comparison will be made between the pre-first year and post-first year students’ writing test. This will give an insight into what are the differences as well as the achievements in writing proficiency of undergraduate students in their one-year university programme. Moreover, the result of the study could be used at a later time to redesign programs in order to provide better support in areas (such as sentence structure, vocabulary usage, mechanics, punctuation, spelling and capitalization) where students performed poorly.

As to writing proficiency, it has fundamentally been assessed by evaluating written segments from language tests’, which are interpreted in terms of ‘the degree of task fulfilment and evidence of target language control’ and according to these criteria, with the results of the test then being evaluated and classified according to the ‘expectations of what learners can do at particular levels of language proficiency’ (Leclercq, Edmonds, & Hilton, 2014; Hawkey & Barker, 2004). Thus, if a study is conducted it will be a landmark study for Fiji as well as the South Pacific as it will be the first quantitative evaluation for writing proficiency for higher education. Finally, it will further contribute to the literature in the field of language testing as an original work in Fiji.

## II. BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

This study on writing language proficiency sets out the following parameters on why a research is worth carrying out in Fiji in the field of Applied Linguistics.

Firstly, language proficiency as a quantitative evaluation (longitudinal study) is an unexplored field in Fiji’s higher education sector as the earlier studies example Elley & Mangubhai (1981), Otsuka (2006), Shameem (2002), and Hopf, McDonagh, Wang, & McLeod (2018) focused only on primary school students and studies such as Elley & Thompson (1978), Fitzcharles (1984), Chand (2015) and Deverell (1989) are limited cross-sectional design. Therefore, a study will be a new contribution to the existing literature as it is evidently a notable gap. Secondly, in other countries writing proficiency comparison in undergraduate students has not been researched in depth even though they (Singapore, Malaysia, Thailand, Hong Kong, Canada and others) have looked at L1 and L2 based writing topics as will be revealed in the literature review.

To add on, in 2015, the Prime Minister of Fiji, Mr. Frank Bainimarama made comments at a function that ‘creating and maintaining the quality of written expression in the English language in Fiji is very important’ (Ravulo, 2015). He further added that “‘far too many people in schools, tertiary institutions, government, and the private sector make basic spelling, grammar and sentence construction errors even those who have got higher degrees from overseas universities’”. Ravulo (2015) highlights that Bainimarama claimed that in the civil service people either had not learnt or ‘had forgotten that words are the tools they use to convey ideas’. However, these statements were based on mere observations, without any primary research data to back up the statements. Therefore, this calls for a research in the written English proficiency levels, which will either support the observations or prove it otherwise.

Finally, the research can be replicated in other multilingual or countries where English is a second language so that the universities there can take precautionary measures in maintaining the appropriate level of written language proficiency level.

## III. LITERATURE REVIEW

This section will review relevant literature in the field of language testing. It begins by defining proficiency, then provides an overview of the field of language testing before proceeding to highlight relevant research that has been carried out as well as gaps. It concludes by outlining the reasons, why further research in language testing is still needed in Fiji.

### A. *Defining Proficiency*

Scholars have stated that it is challenging to describe proficiency (Davies 1989, Bialystok & Sharwood 1985). One of the issues that teachers, researchers, students and language testers encounter is defining ‘what it actually means to be proficient in an L2’ (Leclercq, Edmonds, & Hilton, 2014, p.5). Some of the definitions include ‘proficiency as the ability to make use of competence’ (Taylor, 1988) or ‘the extent and adequacy of the learner’s control of the language skills in social interaction, acquiring and providing information, and his/her use of them in necessary instrument for nonlinguistic purposes in the border sense’ (Oller, 1983). A similar definition was provided by Higgs (1984) who stated that proficiency is “‘the ability to function effectively in the language in real life contexts” (p.12).

### B. *An Overview of Language Testing*

The field of language testing can be traced as back as 1,500 years. During the Sui Dynasty (581-618) in China, formal testing began in order to identify individuals who were most suitable within the empire for crucial positions in the administration, without any biasness of their social class (O’Sullivan, 2012, p.9). However, modern English

language testing only appeared on the scene from the 20<sup>th</sup> century. In order to test the language performance of persons from the British colonies who wished to pursue education in the UK, the Cambridge Proficiency Examination (CPE) was introduced in 1913. The examination was designed ‘on a coherent philosophy of language learning’ developed by Henry Sweet (1899) and for this reason Sweet is attributed as the founder of Applied Linguistics (Coombe, Davidson, & O’Sullivan, 2012, p.11). The developers of CPE prepared the first examination in 1913 using Sweets’ method as is depicted in Figure 1 on the guideline of the content of a test.

**Part 1**

Phonetics (teaching of & practical application) ‘start with the spoken language’

**Part 2**

Grammar; Vocabulary; Study of Texts; Translation; Conversation

**Part 3**

Essays on language & languages

Figure 1 Henry Sweet’s Rationally Progressive Method (O’Sullivan, 2012, p.11)

The first CPE in 1913 measured the candidate’s language performance that set a precedent for the approach to assessment, which is still dominant in Britain and much of Europe. Figure 2 reveals the content of the first Cambridge Proficiency Examination where similarities can be observed between it and Sweet’s (1899) method such as phonetics, translations, and grammar as well as conversation.

**Writing**

Translation (English to French or German) – 2 hours

Translation (from French or German to English) + English grammar- 2 ½ hours

Essay- 2 hours

English Literature – 3 hours

English Phonetics- 1 ½ hours

**Oral**

Diction- 1 ½ hours

Reading & conversation- 1 ½ hours

Figure 2 Contents of the 1913 Cambridge Proficiency Examination (O’Sullivan, 2012, p.11)

On the other hand, the United States was interested in standardizing students’ written performance. Thorndike (1911, 1912) developed the first standardized examination in 1908 whereby he collected a large sample of students’ handwritten essays and asked 200 teachers to organize the scripts in order of legibility. He then created a scale upon which he placed a set of exemplar scripts after which he asked the teachers to compare the samples with the ones on the scale and the closest match would indicate the level. Further, using the same methodology Hillegas in 1912 designed the first standardized scale for written composition and in 1914 Courtis compiled the first standardized examination of English language. Courtis (1914, p.391) explained that ‘on the basis of these tests and the requirements of the school it is possible to conclude that an eighth-grade child of standard ability should be able to write an original story at the rate of 18 words per minute and that legibility of the writing should be 60 on the Ayres scale (this measured the relative accuracy of judgments of handwriting), and there should not be more than five mistakes in punctuation per hundred words, two spelling, and two in syntax. In addition, in careful reading the rate should be 230 words per minute, and that in the reproduction of the material, 12 of the original words should be used per minute and that these words should constitute 50 percent of the words used in the reproduction’.

In the early 1960s, another milestone was reached in this field of English language testing, when in the United States the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) was implemented. After the introduction of TOEFL, the development of general proficiency examinations continued for another three decades (O’Sullivan, 2012, p.14). 1979 saw the introduction of the Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC) in response to a request from the Japanese Ministry of Trade and Industry for the purpose of testing of language for business contexts. The validity of TOEIC test can be argued upon as the test focuses on general English and result reporting using a norm-referenced reporting system. According to O’Sullivan (2012, p.14), a norm-referenced reporting system ‘reports the performance of each individual in terms of the rest of the candidature’.

In the UK, by the early 1980s, the formation of the English Language Testing Service (ELTS) addressed the issue of testing language for specific purposes. Soon, ELTS became the International English Language Testing System (IELTS) which is still prevalent in many countries and used extensively for migration and immigration purposes (O’Sullivan, 2012, p.14). IELTS is considered more of a holistic approach to testing language proficiency which is one of the major reasons why it has become more marketable, similar to the TOEIC.

Finally, by the 1990s the use of IELTS grew from a few thousand candidates per year to over a million. Due to this growth there was a decline of other tests such as the Cambridge ESOL Main Suite in the early years of the 21<sup>st</sup> century, which implied a shift in emphasis from general to specific purposes testing. As a final point on the overview of language testing, recent years have witnessed the emergence of TOEFL iBT (Internet-based TOEFL) that can be

classified as ‘more acceptable for performance and criterion-referenced test analysis’ than the ‘traditional classical test statistics’ (O’Sullivan, 2012, p.15).

#### IV. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

In Fiji, the latest study that was conducted in the field of language testing was by Hopf, McDonagh, Wang, & McLeod (2018). It describes the linguistic landscape of Fiji having covered all aspects of those languages which exist in Fiji and how they are being used for communication or ‘as a medium of instruction in schools’. The study investigates the ‘factors that influence Fijian primary school students’ English language proficiency with a total of 150 participants where 75 were students and 75 were caregivers. A quantitative research design was employed (cross sectional). The study revealed that the family’s home language had a significant impact on English proficiency and the student academic performance (Hopf, McDonagh, Wang, & McLeod, 2018, p.11). However, the study did not present proficiency in the other languages spoken by the students.

In language testing research, the ‘*Common European Framework of Reference for Language*’ (CEFR; Council of Europe, 2009), has been influential in defining proficiency levels (A1-Breakthrough, A2-Waystage, B1-Threshold, B2-Vantage, C1-Effective Operational Proficiency, and C2-Mastery); since its inception in 2001. It is considered a ‘useful tool in the development of language test’ and has been accepted as the ‘most significant recent event on the language education scene in Europe’ (Kantarcioglu, & Papageorgiou, 2012, p.82). The *Language Testing* journal on language assessment provided significant evidence in its special issue (2005) on how influential CEFR is in the field of language testing. CEFR has been used in numerous language testing studies such as Byram & Parmenter (2012) of French, Polish, Bulgarian, Argentinian, Chinese, and Taiwanese language; D éz-Bedmar (2012) of the English language, Morrow (2004) of the French language, Little (2005) of the Irish language, Fulcher (2004) of European languages, Alderson, et al. (2006) of the Dutch language, and Hulstijn, Schoonen, De Jong, Steinel & Florijn (2012) of the Dutch language.

D éz-Bedmar (2012) carried out a study in Spain to investigate the various proficiency levels ‘within the same institutional groups’ and ‘the nature of negative linguistic properties’. This research used the CEFR proficiency levels and a computer-aided error analysis (CEA) to verify the written essays of the English section of the University Entrance Examination. A total of 302 participants were employed in this study and were required to write an essay on the topic ‘Where outside Spain would you like to go on a short pleasure trip?’ (Callies, D éz-Bedmar, & Zaytseva, 2014, p.79). The findings of the study revealed that the majority of the secondary school leavers performed at the same B1 proficiency level on the CEFR. The study did not analyze errors at each proficiency level but selected only A2 level that showed students made frequent errors with the use of modal auxiliary verbs. This provides a useful framework for a future study and the CEFR proficiency level will be used in classifying, which level the pre-first year and post-first year undergraduate students stand at in the longitudinal study.

He and Shi (2012) conducted a study in Canada to investigate the writing performances of a group of ESL students on the Language Proficiency Index (LPI). It explored the relationship between topic bias and candidate performance for timed impromptu essays. The paper distinguished between topic based essay testing and timed-impromptu writing tests. This is useful to determine if topical knowledge is required in preparing an English proficiency test. He and Shi point out that “test writers have long striven to devise prompts that avoid cultural or subject-specific bias that might disadvantage certain groups of test takers” (p.444). However, they indicate that fewer studies have investigated whether standardized tests are actually general enough not to require particular cultural or subject-specific knowledge. Furthermore, the relevant studies discussed by He and Shi (2012) reveal that there has been no study conducted on the English proficiency level of undergraduate students. In addition, the studies highlighted by He and Shi (2012) are concerned about field specific writing tests and general topic based. Of worth noting is the six-point analytic rating scale with three components: content, organization, and language (p.449) that was used in this study.

Pappamihiel, Nishimata, and Mihai’s (2008) research brings to light how the role of writing has become pivotal in international standard tests such as Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL). The study was conducted in the United States and the participants included second language learners from Korea, Spain, Greece, Thailand, Russia, France and, Japan. These 27 adult English Language Learners (ELLs) enrolled in an intensive English program and the data was gathered during a class where two writing samples were collected with a timed assessment of 30 minutes. Further, this research investigated the issue of whether students benefited from using their L1 when writing in English under timed conditions. Pappamihiel et al (2008) used Cummins’s (2000) theoretical framework of Common Underlying Proficiency (CUP) Hypothesis. CUP refers to the ‘interdependence of skills and linguistics knowledge’ that an L1 learner uses in interpreting the L2 (Cummins, 2000, p.191). This will be helpful in a proposed study as the rubrics designed by Pappamihiel, Nishimata, and Mihai (2008) will be used to assess the essays. The study used McNamara’s (2000) score analytic method, which illustrated a clear way of analysing the essays. The findings revealed that the participants who had lower levels of English proficiency scored significantly better when brainstorming in English than when they used their L1 to brainstorm (pp.389-391). The limitations of the study discussed two pivotal points, one that their sample size was small and second that they did not employ one specific L1.

Alfaki (2015) attempted to investigate writing problems encountered by Sudan’s university students. The study employed 20 participants where data was gathered through content analysis. After a random selection of students from the age of 18-21 the participants were instructed to write an essay of 150 to 200 words. Thereafter ten English language

teachers who were selected at random were appointed to examine the 20 samples. The findings revealed various errors such as spelling, errors with tense, vocabulary choice, grammatical errors, uncertainty of modifiers, redundancy, use of transitions, paragraph development and cognitive problems. Even though the study has outlined the major areas of concern in writing, the author could have analyzed the findings better. For instance, in the analysis of a sentence Alfaki (2015, p.49) points out to the errors in word choice but does not discuss the error of tenses where the participant has written ‘brought’ instead of ‘brought’. The sample size is also quite inconclusive; a large number of participants would be able to allow significant amount of data to be collected. Finally, the study has not provided a discussion on the rubrics that was used in the study to assess the students writing skill. This study could have been strengthened if the proficiency levels of the participants were outlined instead of limiting the focus on the writing problems. Alfaki’s (2015) study is insightful for a future study as it lists the various categories that need to be highlighted when analyzing the proficiency levels of the undergraduate students in pre-first year and post- first year.

**Proposed Methodology**

As this article proposes a study to determine the writing proficiency level of undergraduate students in the field of language testing; it is best to use a test as highlighted in the literature review section. Therefore, two tests (academic essays) should be prepared which will be used in for the pre-first year students’ program and then one for the post-first year of their program. There are more than three prominent universities in Fiji where this study can be carried out.

The test will have sociolinguistic questions such as the students name, age, race, gender, and first language on the cover page as the test will be designed specifically for this research. The marking of tests can be done by the researcher and for objectivity all the marked scripts will be given to the researcher’s Head of Department and subsequently to the Head of School.

The scores then be recorded using the rubrics provided by Pappamihel, Nishimata, and Mihai (2008). In determining or comparing the proficiency level of two groups it is crucial to use a method that is able to statistically make this possible and a test provides this mechanism. Rahman (2017) supports this notion, attesting ‘a test is something that demonstrates one’s competence-incompetence, ability-inability; and that shows an individual’s position in the scale consisting of variables such as fail, pass, average, satisfactory, good, and excellent’.

Moreover, a distinct advantage of this method is that an academic test assists in taking a pivotal decision of whether or not a student should be allowed to progress to the next level. Another advantage is that it can compare the performance between students and indicate if a student needs more help or not (Rahman, 2017, p.103) for the remaining two years of their programme. Therefore, using this method will fit in well with the quantitative research design when the data analysis is conducted.

V. CONCLUSION

It is timely for a research such as this to be carried out because of the development in testing tools and the experience gained in assessing proficiency since the creation of the CEFR in Europe. After employing a number of qualitative and quantitative methods, the Council of Europe refined more than ‘2,000 language descriptors used in proficiency scales’ globally prior to forming the CERF levels (Kantarcioğlu, & Papageorgiou, 2012, p.85). Due to the nature of the way the descriptors have been ‘positively phrased’, it has gained popularity as it motivates the learners on what they can do instead of stating what they are not capable of doing. The CEFR has a total of six levels which are:

TABLE 1  
COMMON EUROPEAN FRAMEWORK OF REFERENCE FOR LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY LEVELS (ADAPTED FROM ENGLISH PROFILE., 2015)

Language Proficiency levels		Descriptors
A1: Breakthrough	Basic user	Can communicate in basic English with help from the listener
A2: Waystage		Can communicate in English within a limited range of contexts
B1: Threshold	Independent user	Can communicate essential points and ideas in familiar contexts
B2: Vantage		Can use English effectively, with some fluency, in a range of contexts
C1: Effective Operational Proficiency	Proficient user	Able to use English fluently and flexibly in a wide range of contexts
C2: Mastery		Highly proficient-can use English very fluently, precisely and sensitively in most contexts

It is pivotal for a new contribution such as the objectives of this research, to be carried out so that it can measure the level of changes and the key components that change in the learners pursuing higher education qualification (undergraduate students). Language tests have largely concentrated on cross sectional studies on the various issues discussed earlier. They have yet to carry out a longitudinal study with the same students from pre-first year to post-first year of the duration of their university term and investigate how much their writing proficiency level has changed over the year. This article provides a clear framework to do precisely that.

Also, paramount stakeholders such as the Fiji Higher Education Commission (FHEC), Ministry of Education, and higher education providers will be interested in the findings of this research in implementing any policy change for all higher education institutions. Finally, the study can be used by other researchers to investigate oral proficiency level of university students or even explore reading proficiency.

## APPENDIX

## A). Sample of the Essay marking Rubrics

Easy Marking Rubrics	
<b>Content</b>	30–27: Excellent to very good: Knowledgeable, substantive, thorough development of thesis, relevant to assigned topic
	26–22: Good to average: Some knowledge of subject, adequate range, limited development of thesis, mostly relevant to topic, but lacks detail
	21–17: Fair to poor: Limited knowledge of subject, little substance, inadequate development of topic
	16–13: Very poor: Does not show knowledge of subject, nonsubstantive, not pertinent, or not enough to evaluate
<b>Organization</b>	20–18: Excellent to very good: Fluent expression, ideas clearly stated and supported, succinct, well organized, logical sequencing, cohesive
	17–14: Good to average: Somewhat choppy, loosely organized but main ideas stand out, limited support, logical but incomplete sequencing
	13–10: Fair to poor: Nonfluent, ideas confused or disconnected, lacks logical sequencing and development
	9–7: Very poor: Does not communicate, no organization, or not enough to evaluate
<b>Vocabulary</b>	20–18: Sophisticated: Wide range, effective word or idiom choice and usage, word form mastery, appropriate register
	17–14: Good to average: Adequate range; occasional errors of word or idiom form, choice, usage; but meaning not obscured
	13–10: Fair to poor: Limited range; frequent errors of word or idiom form, choice, usage; meaning confused or obscured
	9–7: Very poor: Essentially translation; little knowledge of English vocabulary, idioms, word forms; or not enough to evaluate
<b>Language use</b>	25–22: Excellent to very good: Effective complex construction; few errors of agreement, tense, number, word order or function, articles, pronouns, prepositions
	21–18: Good to average: Effective but simple construction; minor problems in complex constructions; several errors of agreement, tense, number, word order or function, articles, pronouns, prepositions; but meaning seldom obscured
	17–11: Fair to poor: Major problems in simple and complex constructions; frequent errors of negation, agreement, tense, number, word order or function, articles, pronouns, prepositions; sentence fragments, run-ons, deletions; meaning confused or obscured
	10–5: Very poor: Virtually no mastery of sentence construction rules, dominated by errors, does not communicate, or not enough to evaluate
<b>Mechanics</b>	5: Excellent to very good: Demonstrates mastery of conventions; few errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing
	4: Good to average: Occasional errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing but meaning not obscured
	3: Fair to poor: Frequent errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing; meaning confused or obscured
	2: Very poor: No mastery of conventions; dominated by errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing; or not enough to evaluate

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# The Stimulation of Written Texts in Students from Espiritu Santo University through the Scientific Communication and Research Methodology Classes

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**Abstract**—In this paper, a theoretical-methodological analysis was conducted on the teaching of the construction of written texts in The Espiritu Santo University (UEES, in its Spanish acronym) Scientific Communication classes, with an interdisciplinary nature, conceived from the bibliographic review and the use of updated criteria on the subject. As a result, the aim is to explain the importance of textual construction as an interdisciplinary ability. The need for the application of this functional component was demonstrated not only by specialized teachers of Language and Communication but of other subjects such as Research Methodology and Academic Writing. It also became evident that they constitute a cognitive domain that is common in the work of all the subjects and a pillar on which the efficiency of communication is based, while it also promotes essential skills for the performance of education professionals, as well as competences in communication and research.

**Index Terms**—higher education, teaching-learning process, language and communication, research methodology, critical thought, textual construction, interdisciplinary abilities

## I. INTRODUCTION

Language is an essential part of identity, an expression of a people's culture, and a pillar of nationality, but most importantly, educators are aware that it is an effective mean for the creation of thought and communication. The construction of texts in the mother tongue is essential to learn different subjects and has a primary role in education. Therefore, the objective of this work is to explain the importance of textual construction as an interdisciplinary ability and competence. In attempting to achieve this objective, an overview of the main components of the writing and review process are presented, and insight into the content of each significant phase of writing to producing work is offered based on evidence and expertise in the field.

The bonding subjects and project follow-up, as part of the discipline of Communication and Research Methodology, are established as the interdisciplinary macro axis that is a source of multiple knowledge, essential in the learning of all subjects. Hence, the need for pedagogues to insist on the outstanding role of language in the transmission and assimilation of knowledge in classes and outside them. Reading and its comprehension, oral and written communication, spelling, and vocabulary, are all cognitive domains that are common in the work of all the subjects and pillars upon which the efficiency of communication is based. These are abilities that are necessary for the professional performance of education. However, at its most fundamental level, writing is the expression of thought, and this expression represents the level of knowledge and understanding a student has on a particular subject (Carter, Salamonson, Ramjan & Halcomb, 2018).

At present, the challenge is to develop in the students of UEES the communication and investigative competencies through the construction of written texts from different interdisciplinary subjects, where Research Methodology, Scientific Communication, and Language and Communication stand out. We intend this research to contribute to the training of competent professionals who express themselves eloquently, elegantly, and that extrapolate all this in written language through papers, essays, and scientific articles. The remainder of this document contains an overview of the writing process, including the development stage, planning, the actual written production of the work, review, orientation stage, execution state, and control. This document then concludes with a summary and outline of key points.

## II. THE WRITING PROCESS

### Development

This research work is a valid document, from a theoretical and a methodological point of view, for the teaching of textual production aimed at teachers specialized in language and other disciplines. It focuses on the need to understand textual construction as a process where teachers and students must pass through different stages and phases. For its development, specialized bibliography on the subject was consulted (García-Alzola, 1975; Repilado, 1975; Grass, 2003; de Beaugrande, 1994; Hayes, 1996; Cassany, 1999; and Romá, 2007, among others) and more updated criteria of Ortiz, 2010 and Romá, 2011 was used. Each of these works, produced in Spanish, represents a seminal presentation of the conceptual process underpinning writing and its purpose. Each was also included because of its implications for bilingualism and the communicative differences that exist when translating text or learning a new language.

The current conception of language teaching in Higher Education is based on the cognitive-communicative and sociocultural approach, defined as:

“[...] a psychological configuration that encompasses cognitive and metacognitive abilities to understand and produce meanings, knowledge about linguistic and discursive structures, and the skills and abilities to interact in diverse socio-cultural contexts, for different aims and purposes. This articulates the cognitive and metacognitive processes, the mastery of discursive structures, and the socio-cultural performance of the individual, which implies his or her personal development (cognitive, affective-emotional, motivational, axiological, and creative)” (Cassany, 1997). This quote reflects the cognitive and communicative link both conceptually and physiologically, whereby a thought underpinned by activation of the prefrontal cortex signals the transmission of an impulse to elicit production via some physical medium, whether it be vocally, through writing, or via the use of a word processor (Hathaway, 2015). Regardless of the medium, writing is communication and reflects the dissemination of human emotion to others (Carter et al., 2018).

This focus methodologically supports the understanding, the analysis, and the construction of texts, functional components that are part of any subject of the curriculum. For the application to be practical, it is necessary to begin with the discovery of the value and functionality of the linguistic resources used; as well as to promote their analysis in situations where humans interact and participate with different purposes. Furthermore, it is necessary to confront students with dissimilar texts constructed in different functional styles, so they can understand the need to choose the appropriate code for their style of communication, as well as the communicative intention in order to construct texts more authentically and creatively. Presenting a diverse range of sources in a progressive and increasingly challenging manner can produce complexity and depth of learning, which is more transferrable to a range of educational contexts and settings (Huisman, Saab, van den Broek & Van Driel, 2019).

Text construction is a common component that all subjects must tackle in the careers of the UEES. With the help of a teacher and independently, students must write short and coherent texts of a narrative, descriptive, expository, and dialogued nature, as well as the production of different types of summaries. Despite the actions carried out, these still do not satisfy the expectations of the study plan, as well as the scientific writing of the Research Projects and Subject Projects. However, many students struggle with this process and require an individualized understanding of their communicative levels to maximize the learning process. Writing and text construction is an essential component of all aspects of higher education but must be effectively combined with applied learning scenarios whereby students are allowed to communicate dynamically with one another and critically reflect on what has been learned (Hathaway, 2015).

The management of the construction of different types of texts requires the teacher to have a deep mastery of the content in order to guide the development. The essential requirements to achieve this are to be a great communicator, have professional abilities, and bear a comprehensive general culture acquired through constant training, while at the same time bringing new knowledge and skills to their training, and systematically activating those already acquired. Additionally, this process allows teachers to more effectively guide students in the text construction process and produce more in-depth and more sophisticated knowledge of the subject matter (Hathaway, 2015).

Writing is a complex process that involves different operations that allow the person who writes to represent and communicate what he or she feels, thinks, and knows, as well as to better understand what he or she communicates. In other words, writing enables the communicator to mobilize and develop their thinking. Doing it under the conditions of a particular communicative situation implies, at a minimum, the management of a set of complex activities (the activation of the relevant linguistic and thematic knowledge or the organization of information according to the objectives and discursive aims) that are carried out in a particular way depending on the social and cultural context in which the production of writing makes sense. If the teacher can thoroughly understand this complicated process and the sociocultural context in which it occurs, then she or he will be a more effective educator and able to guide students through their learning and cognitive development.

Adjusting texts to the multiple demands and various communicative situations requires writers to clarify that the production of a text is the result of a long and complicated process in which there is evidence of several phases that go from planning to its edition, where each of these requires elements of cognitive essence. To write a draft and be done, do not reflect the complexity of the process sufficiently. Writing must be considered a process that is underpinned by multiple stages, completed not just by the writer but by peers, reviewers and editors. The first draft represents just the original expression of thought but does not illustrate the formal articulation of a complex concept or idea at this early stage.

The debate about text construction has created many models which focus either on products, their characteristics, and aims; or on processes that are at stake right up to their production. Each of these models contains distinct and

independent assumptions about outcomes that occur when texts are constructed and developed in unique ways, and each may also be applicable in diverse settings and contexts. When referring to how writing has been oriented, an analysis should be made of the different models that have been used to do so. These models are representative of the different periods through which the teaching of textual construction has passed: as a product and as a process. In the analysis of text as a product, the study focused first exclusively on writing, and then as a process. In addition to the model driving the production of a text, the socio-cultural context in which it is produced must also be considered. A failure to do so would limit the transferability of what has been produced and also reduce the dissemination of the ideas being expressed to those who may find it valuable. For this reason, constructing text based on the use and application of sociocultural theory is critical to contemporary higher education.

Research has shown that the process is not linear because the text is done and continuously redone; it is planned and planned again; it is corrected, and so on. For these reasons, it appears it does not follow several discrete stages but a few subprocesses that interact. Currently, the topic specialists (Cassany, 1997; de Beaugrande, 1994; Hayes, 1996; among others) defend the existence of three stages: orientation, execution, and control, as well as three operations: planning, text production, and self-review. Each of these stages is discussed in greater detail below.

Textual construction is first and foremost a psycholinguistic process, which means that the text is constructed first in the mind, so it needs stimulation which is achieved when students are faced with writing in contexts and real and practical usage situations; therefore, the emphasis should not be placed on the formal or grammatical aspects of the language, but on the thought that is produced, obviously without abandoning linguistic aspects that facilitate communication. Writing represents just the mechanical aspect of this psycholinguistic process. A careful reviewer or editor can discern meaning from perhaps sophomoric, rudimentary or undeveloped writing styles and abilities and guide the student toward the more effective crafting of language in order to express her or his complex ideas and emotions. To reiterate what has been said above, textual construction has different phases, as shown by Cassany (2013), which we have had the opportunity to systematize as part of this research at UEES in the classes of Research Methodology and Scientific Communication, which are repeated and recreated in the act of writing. This is an example of what each phase consists of:

#### **Planning**

Before the act of writing, planning facilitates the creation and organization of the text. It is the moment when the student, from a particular communication situation, can create summary tables, conceptual maps or notes, and discuss with their classmates about what they want to write, or resort to reading different types of texts that facilitate its creation. Planning occurs cognitively and then via the formal construction of an outline for a particular text.

This preliminary phase can be stimulated by inviting students to think about what they want to write, in order to share it and enrich it with the input that their classmates can give them; also, they can be taught to create conceptual maps in which they represent their ideas in an orderly manner. The critical thing to consider within the planning process is to develop the habit of planning the text, in such a way that it leads them to think not only about what they are going to write but also about how to do it, the type of words to use, and the treatment they are going to give to the topics according to the recipients. While some teachers encourage students to write in order to stimulate the process, it is recommended that students always begin a work by constructing an outline first. This allows for the writing to be ordered, logical, coherent and flow naturally from one theme or point of discussion to the next. Additionally, once the outline is constructed, the text mostly writes itself. The following step is the actual writing, which is discussed in the following section.

#### **Writing**

Once planning is complete, the writer can then begin the actual production of the draft. The strategies used in the previous phase are the starting point for this phase; the requirement now is to organize what wants to be communicated, so the text clearly expresses the message. This is where the knowledge related to the topic, the language, and the recipients come together. It is the moment to make decisions related to the use of certain words, according to the textual typology, the communicative intention, and the context; it is also necessary to select the punctuation marks, the connectors, and the most suitable propositions. Teachers accompany students in this complex task of writing. Students should be made aware that the first draft they produce during this phase is by no means the last. Several drafts and reviews are needed in order to reach a point in which the text clearly represents the intent of the author. Students may develop writer's block when they believe that they must produce a highly sophisticated and formal written outcome during the first draft. With a well-constructed outline, the writer can address each point in multiple ways and continue to develop ideas while adhering to the same thesis. The review process is discussed in the following section.

#### **Review**

Once a draft has been produced, it must be reviewed by a third party. The review process is one of the most critical moments of text production. In this stage, the student, after reviewing and rewriting his or her text, becomes aware of the linguistic and cognitive aspects that must be considered to improve his or her written communication. The teacher can promote different pedagogical strategies that facilitate revision and self-correction; for this, it is essential to specify which aspects must be considered in order to achieve a "well written" text, that is, one that communicates ideas clearly. These components include textual superstructure, legibility, precision, concision, coherence, cohesion, grammatical correctness, and written fluency. Students must be encouraged to not overly self-correct when writing or they will

develop writer's block. However, they should be encouraged to be self-critical during the review process and open to feedback from third-party reviewers. In this phase, it is essential that those who write become aware of their difficulties and the possibilities of overcoming these, it is not merely a question of pointing out or correcting faults; revision, therefore, must be an effective instrument for learning, it must be conceived as a more didactic technique and not as a compulsory control operation at the end of each text. During the review, students must understand that before publishing a text, they must develop as many drafts as necessary to guarantee the concept readability so that it communicates the intention with which it was written.

### **Editing**

Once the review process is complete, it must be edited. When the message of the text is communicated, and it responds to the intention with which it was written, the textual construction process ends, then it is time for the audience to see it. Along with these phases, there are different stages through which the students and teachers must walk during this laborious process. To successfully face the task of writing, it is necessary to pay more attention to the different stages of text construction: before, during, and after, hence the need to think before writing, to generate ideas, and the critical role of pre-writing and re-writing: the fact that the student knows he or she can rectify what was written, which will give the student, without a doubt, confidence and assurance when writing. It is also important to mention that good writers plan the structure of the text, take notes, and they pause for a moment at all these aspects before they start writing, as mentioned by Cassany.

**Orientation stage.** It takes place during a class or can be extended. The student gathers data and information about the work. To this effect, the teacher must explore the student's knowledge about the subject and the motivation that drives him or her. From the proposition of the topic, we proceed to the exploration of the ideas. Through this activity, students:

- 1.- Express their ideas with independence, which contributes to the discovery of multiple significant variations of the topic.
- 2.- They learn new words that the teacher introduces from the observation of aspects ignored by reality.
- 3.- They practice while they develop the skill under study (for example, they orally carry out the operations needed to describe).
- 4.- They organize their ideas related to the topic and specify the subtopics or topics to be developed, which is the plan for the construction of the written text.
- 5.- They suggest a title.

During orientation, the teacher will warn about the possible errors which may incur regarding both content and form.

**Execution stage.** It does not necessarily take place during a class, as it can be directed as homework. During this stage, the student will write, for which he or she will take into consideration:

- 1.- The plan
- 2.- The specificity of the type of text he or she will construct
- 3.- The observations done by the teacher regarding the errors that can be made
- 4.- The self-evaluation of the work, which is expressed in dissatisfaction and constant interest in achieving a higher quality work (functional self-criticism). The teacher's attention to the students is essential, regarding their individual differences (progress of work, difficulties they have faced).

**Control stage.** The obtained result is verified. It is necessary to verify the quality of the work done by the students and how they have achieved their goals. It is recommended that each work is read at least three times: the first time to understand its global content and to value the alignment to the topic, the quality, sufficiency, and depth of the ideas; the second time to determine the quality of the lexical and grammatical means used, how coherence is achieved, the adjustment to orthographic norms, and presentation; and the third time for its more integral evaluation, keeping in mind the unity of the elements of content and form, depending on the intention and purpose of the author, as well as the evaluation of style.

The individual review can be done first with support and then independently. It can be of different types:

- Own review from the indicated errors, with the aid of symbols and a guide (self-review).
- The students may review their works and exchange and review that of a classmate.

The abilities to self-review and self-correct their works must be developed in a tiered and progressive way until the students master them.

The collective review in the classroom must be done in a pleasant environment, which will contribute it to be done in a positive sense, where the successes will stand out more than the errors. On the other hand, everyone must have the opportunity to give their opinions, give their assessments, and offer suggestions. The dissemination of the best works, through reading them in activities organized by the school or their public exhibition, helps to stimulate authors and serves as an incentive for those who are lagging.

### III. CONCLUSION

The purpose of this document was to discuss both the importance of text construction in higher education and also the process of underpinning writing. Mastering the stages for the teaching of the construction of written texts is of the utmost importance, just as it is the mastery that the teacher and the student have of the phases of this process, in the

same way, it is essential for teachers and students to walk together in this complex task because it is crucial not only to ask the student to write, but to stimulate, motivate, and accompany the student in this task.

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# Approaches and Activities Adopted by M. Ed. Student Teachers of English to Teach Reading: A Critical Assessment

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**Abstract**—Literature on second language reading suggests that the effectiveness of teaching reading depends largely on theoretically-guided and contextually-informed classroom methodology. In this study, we investigated the classroom methodology adopted by the students of Master of Education (M. Ed.) specializing in English from Mahendra Ratna Campus, Tahachal, who were teaching Bachelor of Education (B. Ed.) reading courses during their practice teaching—hence defined as ‘student teachers’ (STs). Foregrounding the role of reading in the overall language development and academic achievement of English as a foreign language (EFL) students, the present B. Ed. English curriculum under Tribhuvan University has adopted a content-based approach to teaching reading. In order to understand how those reading courses were taught, we purposively selected ten M.Ed. STs and observed two classes of each, employing a semi-structured classroom observation scheme. In order to cross-compare STs' classroom performance with their theoretical knowledge about reading pedagogy and overall objectives of the reading courses, we also analyzed the English language teaching course the STs had studied in the M.Ed. program as well as B. Ed. reading courses and coursebooks they were teaching. The collected data were coded and analyzed thematically. The findings show that the teaching methodology adopted by the STs goes counter to the principles of ESL/EFL reading and expectations articulated in the reading courses. These findings illustrate the urgent need to reassess the methodology of teaching reading at the tertiary level and minimize the gap between the M. Ed. English students' pedagogical knowledge and their classroom performance.

**Index Terms**—classroom methodology, student-centeredness, student teacher, text explanation, text exploration

## I. INTRODUCTION

Despite being conventionally recognized as the third skill in "the 'natural order' of skill acquisition" (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011, p.44), reading is the primary and most prioritized skill in the educational setting. It is the skill that calls for formal instruction not only in the second language but also in the first language teaching contexts. The centrality of reading in balanced language development as well as overall academic achievement of students has been well documented in second language research (e.g. Grabe, 2002; Carrell & Grabe, 2002; Richards & Renandya, 2010; Rai 2015; Chaudhry & Al-Adwani, 2019). So much is obvious that the ability to read in English is a pivotal skill required of ESL/EFL learners to have a wider access to knowledge and to educate themselves on their own, beyond the instructional setting. Reading is of crucial importance particularly in the ESL/EFL academic context where students have a limited access to an adequate amount of authentic spoken text. In this respect, based on the survey with university teachers and English language teacher trainers, Rai concludes that it is through reading that "the majority of students in Asian countries learn English in schools" (2015, p. 39). Rai further notes that listening and speaking, the skills overrated by the mainstream communicative approach, are rarely taught and assessed in the educational setting of these countries. In the context of Nepal, where English is taught as a foreign language, students encounter with written texts earlier and far more frequently than with spoken texts. The cursory survey of the English curricula of school and university in Nepal also attests Rai's conclusion regarding the pivotal position of reading in the Nepalese context. The secondary level English, which is a compulsory course, for instance, has allocated the highest weightage to reading (40%) followed by writing (35%), with listening and speaking bearing the least importance i.e. 10 % and 15 % respectively (Curriculum Development Center, 2014). Reading gets a more prominent position in the university English curricula in Nepal, both as the compulsory subject and a specialization subject (popularly called ‘major English’), the latter being the focus of this study.

The university English curricula in Nepal, particularly the specialization courses, have adopted the reading-based approach to teaching English. It means reading has been employed as the basis of developing English proficiency along with content knowledge. It is assumed that reading feeds and extends the other skills. Reading has thus been prioritized



so as to enrich students' vocabulary, develop their grammar awareness, expose them to textual resources, enrich their content knowledge, fire their imagination and help them to build their own worldviews.

Realizing the contribution of reading to students' overall academic achievement, Faculty of Education under Tribhuvan University revamped the long-existing B. Ed. English curriculum in 2011 with a view to incorporating additional reading courses for prospective secondary level English teachers. It was a policy level intervention to address the growing concern regarding the paucity of the English input that the prospective English teachers suffered due to a limited exposure to reading texts. The subject committee transcended the traditional linguistics-based model of curriculum that treated language mainly as a system to be taught and learned as discrete items and embraced the content-based model that treated language as "discourse and ideology" (Kumaravadivelu, 2006, p. 4), "art" (Kelly, 1994, p. 4681) and expression. With the curricular modification were initially introduced such courses as *Expanding Horizons in English* (B. Ed. 2nd year) and *Reading, Writing and Critical Thinking* (B. Ed. 1st year), and later another reading course was added, namely *Critical Readings in English* (B. Ed. 3rd year) in 2017. These courses follow the content-based approach, which can be conceived as the knowledge-enriching model of communicative competence. Diverse in the selection of reading materials in terms of content areas such as language, culture and philosophy; science and technology; and sports and entertainment, each course has organized reading materials thematically with its principal aim to integrate language and content through reading performance. The integration of reading and writing is the common thread that runs through all these reading courses. The reading dimension requires the students to process linguistic resources and content of the text, while the writing dimension requires them to manipulate the resources and content to produce their own texts. To be more specific, the overarching goals of these courses, among others, are to: a) enrich students' vocabulary through exposure to authentic written texts; b) foster critical thinking; c) train students in reading and writing strategies through intensive reading activities in the classroom so that they can transfer them to out-of-classroom reading and writing; d) foster simultaneous acquisition of English and subject matter knowledge; and e) integrate language skills and language aspects (Adhikari, 2013, p.25). In principle, these reading courses are underpinned by the theoretical assumption that reading is an interactive, purposive and critical process, and that reading proficiency calls for an extensive reading habit (Hedge, 2000).

Given the centrality of reading in ESL/EFL students' language proficiency and overall educational achievement, it is necessary that we raise questions as to how reading is taught in the classroom. Furthermore, the efficacy of courses, to a great extent, depends on how the aspirations articulated in the courses are actualized in the classroom in the form of pedagogical intervention or mediation. Otherwise stated, a pedagogical intervention is instrumental in achieving course objectives. It is, therefore, important to consider how these reading courses are being taught in the classroom. In this respect, the present study posed the following questions: a) How are reading courses being taught? b) Is the classroom methodology informed by principles derived from L2 reading research and congruent with course expectations? In our attempt to answer these questions, we briefly review the relevant literature on teaching reading principles, and teaching reading approaches and activities. Then, we outline the methodology adopted to carry out the study. After that, we present the findings under three broad themes followed by discussion. Finally, we conclude with the summary of the key findings and a recommendation for further research.

## II. LITERATURE REVIEW

This section is devoted to the review of literature pertinent to the nature of reading, and the major teaching reading approaches and activities.

### A. Nature of Reading

Reading is not only a pivotal skill but also a complex one to get mastery over. In this respect, Carrell and Grabe (2002) note that "the development of fluent reading abilities by L2 students is a challenging undertaking" (p.233). The complexity embedded in reading is highlighted by the fact that more than the process of extracting information from the written text, it is a complex composite of a number of sub-skills such as "literal comprehension, inferential comprehension, interpreting a writer's purpose, attitude, or tone, following the structure of the passage" (Sadoski, 2005, p.103). The complexity in teaching reading is compounded by several theoretical dilemmas, which among others, are—how to devise effective reading instruction for varied ESL/EFL contexts, how to integrate text structure awareness as a consistent component of reading instruction, and how to recognize extensive reading as an integral part and natural extension of classroom reading (Grabe, 2010). Grabe avers that these are such dilemmas which, particularly in the context of teaching L2 reading, are yet to be adequately dealt with by second language reading research. Another factor that has rendered teaching reading more complicated is the conventional categorization and a widespread acceptance of reading as a receptive skill in contrast with writing as a productive skill which has adversely influenced reading pedagogy, eclipsing its productive dimension and limiting the reader's role as a passive recipient of information served in the text. Challenging such a pedagogically unhealthy and unhelpful dichotomy, second language research recognizes reading as an interactive, purposeful, reflective and critical processes (Hedge, 2000). These processes imply that the reader is an active agent who enters the text with a specific purpose; activates his/her schematic and language knowledge while making sense of the text, constantly reflects on what is given in the text and relates it to his/her experiences, and agrees or disagrees with the writer's stance. In the academic context, reading is almost always

accompanied by productive activities such as text coding, note-taking, and summarizing. The fundamental question that arises at this point of discussion is how to teach reading effectively to maximize the reader-text interaction.

### *B. Approaches to and Activities of Teaching Reading*

As far as the methodology of teaching reading is concerned, it is hard to be prescriptive in favor of one at the cost of another because the way that a particular teacher teaches in a particular context is subject to such myriad factors as the teacher's beliefs in, and awareness of, what constitutes teaching reading, the level and age of students, their educational backgrounds and expectations, and educational and social contexts. Each teacher has latitude to choose the methodology that best fits the teaching-learning context. However, the choice is supposed to be guided by principles of language learning and teaching and informed by contextual realities. In this respect, Williams (1986) suggests ten principles for teaching reading and some of which are: a) The primary activity of a reading lesson should be learners reading texts—not listening to the teacher; b) Classroom procedure should reflect the purposeful, task-based, interactive nature of real reading; c) Teachers must learn to be quiet: all too often, teachers interfere with and so impede their learners' reading development by being too dominant and by talking too much; and d) A reader contributes meaning to a text (pp.42-44). Likewise, drawing on the teaching principles postulated by Brown (1994) and the macro-strategies or general plans for language teachers suggested by Kumaravadivelu (2006), we can postulate that teaching reading should prioritize meaning and fluency while taking care of accuracy, foster negotiated interaction between text and reader and among readers themselves, motivate readers intrinsically and prompt them to invest time, effort and attention, boost up their confidence in reading the unknown text and encourage them to take risk while interpreting and producing the text, contextualize the linguistic input, integrate the reading skill into the other skills, raise cultural awareness, and minimize perceptual mismatches.

The reading instruction informed by all or some of the aforementioned principles or strategies can be termed as "a reader-centered approach [...] which focuses on what the reader brings to reading in schematic world knowledge and language knowledge and, second, on their ability and willingness to draw on productive strategies in the course of reading" (Wallace, 2001, p.26). The reader centered-approach is guided by the constructivist assumption that learners are active determiners of learning and they "shape the process of learning in powerful ways" (Richards, 2001, p.214). Obverse of the transmission-oriented approach that views learners as the passive conduit through which the input passes, the reader-centered approach conceives learners as input processors and invites their active participation in order to explore the text by themselves under the judicious guidance of the teacher. Distinguishing between traditional reading pedagogy and the reader-centered approach, Wallace (2001) notes that the former is a product-oriented one in which the teacher presents the text and prompts students to carry out post-reading tasks, whereas the latter is a process-oriented one that engages students in pre-reading tasks such as brain-storming, semantic mapping, or agreeing-disagreeing so as to activate and capitalize on their existing knowledge before the actual text-reader interaction takes place. Wallace's (2001) distinction partly echoes Hamp-Lyons and Proulx's (1982) comparison of two methods of teaching advanced ESL reading, termed as a traditional method and a skills-based/discourse analysis method. To reference Hamp-Lyons and Proulx (1982), the traditional method of teaching reading is product-centered, and so regards reading as a passive (receptive) skill, ignoring readers' schema. This approach requires readers to decode the text for 'right' answers, and commonly practices reading aloud by the teacher and/or students. Likewise, students approach the reading text mostly individually, and the teacher is the authority in the classroom who is expected to supply explanation of the text and answers to reading questions. On the contrary, the skills-based method is process-centered, and thus regards reading as an active, interpretive and communicative process of generating meaning from the text. With a due focus on meaning, this method values the activation of readers' schemas and affective domains, assesses their comprehension by means of a variety of questions, and encourages them to manipulate content, language and textual resources to produce their own texts. Students are engaged in silent reading, and collaboration among themselves is highly encouraged. The teacher's role is to facilitate the reading process rather than to explain the text and supply readers with answers. Although proposed almost four decades ago, Hamp-Lyons and Proulx's (1982) skills-based approach still holds true for and is of high relevance to contemporary ESL/EFL reading pedagogy, as it regards students as the point of reference and prizes text exploration by students themselves over text explanation by the teacher. Moreover, it acknowledges the role of collaboration among readers and integration of reading into other skills.

Ren and Wang (2018) propose the production-driven approach to teaching reading with a view to reforming tertiary English reading instruction in China in which they observe that the traditional teaching method dominates Chinese reading classes. Usually reading instructors adopt the read-and-answer approach which is accompanied by "explanation of key words and phrases as well as long and complex sentences", failing to "stimulate students' interest in reading" (Ren & Wang, p.13). This production-driven approach to teaching reading is the application of production-oriented approach to teaching English to university students in China advanced by Wen (2016). The approach advocates the principles of learning-centeredness instead of learner-centeredness, the integration of language learning and language use and whole-person education. Furthermore, the approach is underpinned by the output-driven hypothesis, the selective learning hypothesis and the input-enabling hypothesis. These principles and hypotheses are actualized in the classroom by means of three phases of the teaching process that entail motivating, enabling and assessing (see Wen 2016). Ren and Wang (2018) apply these principles, hypotheses and teaching processes to second language reading instruction, which not only disrupts the dichotomous view of receptive and productive skills but also conceives reading

as a process of generating meanings. The meanings thus generated are to be externalized by means of productive activities such as "speaking, writing, translation and interpreting" (Wen, 2016). The crux of the production-driven approach is that input activities should be seamlessly integrated into output activities.

Instruction that conceives reading as a process, recognizes the active participation of students and emphasizes the integration of reading into other skills tends to guide the students through different phases of reading. In this regard, Hedge (2000) observes that a three-phase procedure has been a standard practice of contemporary reading instruction. The three-phase procedure is termed differently such as pre-reading, while-reading, and post-reading (Wallace, 2001; Hedge, 2000; Lazar, 2009), anticipation, building knowledge and consolidation (Crawford, Saul, Mathews & Makinster, 2005), engage, study and activate (Harmer, 2007), and motivating, enabling and assessing (Wen, 2016). The ultimate intention of guiding readers through these phases is to help them:

develop increasing ability to tackle texts. This is in contrast to more traditional materials in which reading would be 'tested' through a procedure in which learners would read a text with or without introduction, possibly with some pre-teaching of vocabulary, and they would be required to answer comprehension questions. (Hedge, 2000, p.209)

The organization of reading tasks into three phases is guided by the notion that reader-text interaction takes place with different purposes with varying degrees of intensity at different phases. It underscores the necessity of preparing readers by activating their experiences, knowledge and language resources before they enter into and interact with the text and of taking them beyond the text through production activities.

The present study is guided by the pedagogic precept that methodology, i.e. what teachers actually do in the classroom in order to achieve the stated or unstated objectives (Kumaravadivelu, 2006, p. 84) has a decisive role to play in addressing the reading complexities discussed above and maximizing the reader-text interaction. With this assumption in mind, the present study aimed at exploring the practice of teaching reading adopted by M.Ed. student teachers to teach the reading courses prescribed for B. Ed. specialization in English. To this end, we draw on the constructs underlying the reader-centered approach, the skills-based method and the production-driven approach discussed above as the theoretical lenses.

### III. METHODOLOGY

The present study followed a qualitative research design to explore the teaching methodology adopted by M. Ed. student teachers with English specialization while teaching the reading courses to B. Ed. students of English. The data were collected by means of a semi-structured observation strategy that combined the broadly identified observational categories such as approach, activities and mode of interaction with narrative field notes and reflections (Dornyei, 2007; Nunan 2010; Riazi, 2016). The observational categories used in the scheme draw partly on the Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching (Nunan, 2010) and partly on our own experience as teacher educators and teaching practice supervisors. The participants comprised the English students in the final year of the M. Ed. program from Mahendra Ratna Campus, Tahachal, Tribhuvan University, who were sent to different higher secondary schools, or campuses in Kathmandu with B. Ed. programs in English. Altogether ten student teachers teaching B.Ed. reading courses were selected purposively and two lessons of each teacher were observed. One of the reasons for selecting the M.Ed. student teachers was that these were the prospective college teachers who had studied and passed the course *Advanced English Language Teaching Methodology* (Eng. 591), which, apart from acquainting them with general principles, approaches, methods and techniques of teaching English in general, exposes them to contemporary ELT reading pedagogy underpinned by principles of reader-centeredness, learning-centeredness, the contextualization and extension of reading input, and the integration of reading into other skills. As teacher educators, we wanted to explore how these theoretically-equipped prospective teachers would teach reading in the actual classroom setting.

During the observation we assumed ourselves carrying out the dual role as internal supervisors and researchers. The former was the primary role assigned to each of us by the campus administration to observe the student teachers' classes and provide them with constructive feedback in order to prepare them for the final observation by the external supervisor. As a researcher, each of us recorded their classroom performance in the semi-structured observation scheme accompanied by notes and reflections. To ensure the anonymity of the participants, the participants were de-identified as ST1, ST2,...and ST 10. We adopted the priori coding scheme which, according to Riazi, "is usually developed on the basis of theoretical backgrounds related to the research problem, as well as the analysis of a small portion of the collected data" (2016, p.255). The assignment of the segments of the data to the appropriate code in the coding scheme was followed by annotations and memos, on the basis of which the broader themes were generated. To cross-compare their teaching with the pedagogical knowledge they had acquired in the Master's program and with the expectations of the reading courses they were teaching, we also analyzed the English language teaching (ELT) course they had studied at the Master's level, and the reading courses and coursebooks they were teaching.

### IV. RESULTS AND INTERPRETATION

Considering the overall data collection design and the nature of the actual data, the results are presented under the three thematic headings generated around and across the observational categories: 'text-explanation at the cost of text-

exploration', 'devaluation of activation and extension phases of teaching reading', and 'incongruence between pedagogical knowledge, course expectations and classroom performance'.

#### A. Text Explanation at the Cost of Text Exploration

The explanation of reading texts by student teachers (STs) dominated all the classes which we observed, pushing to the periphery the exploration of texts by the students themselves as a tendency. Put differently, the STs explained the text to their students requiring them to take notes rather than engaging them in reading activities to explore the text themselves. Explanation was often accompanied by a few oral questions and always followed by some written questions so as to check the Ss' textual comprehension. Let us take the case of ST10, for instance. While teaching the topic 'The teacher who changed my life' from the book *New Direction: Reading, Writing and Critical Thinking* (Gardner, 2009), ST10, in his attempt to initiate the whole-class discussion, began the lesson with a personalizing question— 'Do you remember a teacher who has changed your life?' As no answer came from the class, the ST introduced the writer and presented on a chart paper a list of roles and/or traits of a good teacher extracted from the text and lectured on each point elaborately. The class listened to the explanation almost passively ('pin-drop silence' in the traditional concept of 'good classroom management!'), while some students took notes occasionally. It was a whole-class teaching mode with very little interaction between teacher and students with almost no interaction between the students working in pairs or groups. The ST's lengthy explanation was followed by comprehension-checking questions which the students had to answer in the written form individually. Some further evidence of dominance of explanation over exploration comes from ST8, who, while teaching the topic 'The eyes of the tiger' from the book *Readings for the New Horizons* (Awasthi, Bhattarai & Rai, 2016), started the lesson by showing a picture of a tiger and posing two questions to the class about it. After listening to some of the students' responses, he explained different types of essay, and presented the theme of the essay orally. The explanation of the text was followed by the distribution of handouts that contained the summary and some comprehension-checking questions. Rather than inviting and acknowledging multiple responses from the students, the ST dictated answers to them. Despite the nominal presence of pre-reading activities (or better call pre-explanation activities!), this class, like the others, was inordinately explanation-oriented, depriving the students of opportunities to interact with the actual text.

All in all, the foci of the explanation were the topic, background of the author, gist of the text, plot, characters and theme (in the case of a story) and line-by-line interpretation (in the case of a poem). The STs explained either directly from the book or used the text-based points they had prepared beforehand on the chart paper. This tendency stands counter to the teaching suggestion given in the teachers' manual of the course being taught, which clearly suggests teachers that "It is NOT your job to give them a summary [...]. Your job is to provide a forum in which they CAN get meaning, and to scaffold the lessons so they can do it on their own" (Law, 2012, p. iv, emphasis in original).

The irony of these teachers' inordinate inclination to the explanatory approach followed in the reading class was that the students were listening to the text rather than reading it. That is, reading was eclipsed by listening followed by nominal speaking and writing activities. Consequently, even basic reading activities were virtually absent and it was hard to say whether the aim of their teaching was to enhance the students' listening comprehension or reading comprehension.

#### B. Devaluation of Activation and Extension Phases of Teaching Reading

Fifteen lessons made use of activation activities. The rest of the lessons began without any preparatory activities, that is, the teachers wrote the titles on the board and explained the texts elaborately. Table 1 summarizes the types of activities being used before exposing the reading text to the students:

TABLE 1  
ACTIVATION ACTIVITIES USED BEFORE TEXT PRESENTATION

Activation Activities	No. of Lessons
Revision of previous lesson	13
Topic-related questions	8
Picture-related questions	4
Contextualization/Personalization questions	3
Information about the writer/topic	4

The types of pre-reading (or pre-explanation) activities and their frequency in the fifteen lessons display somehow observable patterns (Table 1). A very brief revision of the previous lesson by asking few questions to the whole class was found to be the most commonly preferred way of preparing the students for the lesson, whereas contextualizing and personalizing the topic by posing such questions as— 'Do you know how many tigers there are in Nepal?' 'Have you ever seen a tiger in the jungle?' 'Do you remember a teacher who has changed your life?' etc. were the least preferred ones. In 12 of the observed lessons, the STs invited the students to make some speculation about the theme by posing the questions related to the topics or the pictures. Four of the lessons began with some background information about the writer or an elaboration of the topic.

There is no total denying that these activities were instrumental in instigating some interaction in the class by triggering the students' inner resources. However, the activities suffered two major limitations. First, they were almost exclusively limited to the interaction between teacher and the whole class or the responses from the teacher-selected

students rather than between or among students working in pairs or groups. The second limitation concerns the efficacy of such activities because they failed to invite the students to an open interaction about the topic. In some cases, there were no responses from the class at all. Another aspect noted during the observation was that none of the STs used the pre-reading activities recommended in the coursebooks such as *New Directions: Reading, Writing and Critical Thinking* (Gardener, 2009). The activities such as journal writing, agreeing and disagreeing, brainstorming, free writing, clustering, and journalistic questions given in the book were left untouched by the STs. The purpose of these activities is to encourage the students to express their personal opinions and experiences, and compare their responses with those of the others.

Unlike the activation activities, the post-reading (or post-explanation) activities were perceived as the obligatory part of teaching and, hence, were more prioritized. The STs' elaborate explanation, and sometimes the students' reading of the given summary or notes were followed by some writing activities such as answering long answer questions, summarizing the text and essay writing. Each lesson constituted a combination of at least two activities after text explanation from the ST or some reading carried out by the students. Table 2 presents the types of such writing tasks.

TABLE 2  
EXTENSION ACTIVITIES USED AFTER EXPOSING STUDENTS TO TEXTS

Extension Activities	No. of Lessons
Long question answers	20
Summary writing	15
Paragraph writing	13
Essay writing	10

Answering the questions, as Table 2 shows, took place in all the lessons. The ST, after explaining the text or presenting its summary or points to the class, required the students to answer some of the questions given at the end of the passage either in the form of classwork or home assignment. The rest of the activities –summary writing, paragraph writing and essay writing– were assigned as homework.

*C. Incongruence between Pedagogical Knowledge, Course Expectations and Classroom Performance*

The analysis of the advanced ELT course that the STs had studied reveals that the course exposed them to theoretically grounded, contextually-informed and SLA research-supported methods of teaching reading which underscored the processes of second language reading, a necessity of activating readers' inner resources and framework for teaching reading (Hedge,2000; Wallace, 2001; Harmer, 2007), teaching strategic reading (Janzen, 2010), and issues in teaching reading (Carrell & Grabe 2002; Grabe, 2010). The analysis further reveals that the reading component of the course valued reading as an interactive and creative process (Hedge, 2000), recognized students as meaning-generating agents and instructed the teachers to guide their students through different phases of reading. However, the teachers seem to have failed to translate these theoretical insights into teaching reading in their workplace, i.e. the actual classroom situation. In other words, the absence of student-centeredness, a limited interaction between text and students, the nominal use of the activation activities, the explanation of the text as a final product, and almost absence of while-reading activities all evidence incongruence between their pedagogical knowledge and classroom methodology.

A cross-comparison of the STs' classroom performance with the overall aim of the reading courses, the teaching guidelines given in the coursebooks and teachers' manuals evidence further incongruence between course expectations and classroom methodology.

Contrary to the objectives of the reading courses (for example, to enrich students' academic vocabulary through reading, foster critical reading through active student participation, train students in strategic reading and integrate reading into writing), the vocabulary activity was completely neglected; critical reading was pushed to the periphery; the suggested reading strategies were virtually absent and the integration of reading with writing and speaking was kept to a minimum. Likewise, the suggestions from the coursebook editors and teachers' manuals (such as that the teacher should assume the role of a supporter and each lesson should be structured into three broad phases) did not seem to have found their adequate space in the reading classes which were observed.

V. DISCUSSION

The study aimed at exploring the classroom methodology adopted by the M.Ed. student teachers (STs) while teaching reading to B. Ed. students. The analysis of the data reveals the teachers' adoption of the traditional method of teaching reading. Notably, their teaching showed poor congruence with the principles of teaching reading and the course expectations.

The STs' undue inclination to the explanatory approach minimized text-reader interaction, discounted the students' desire and ability to generate their own meanings from the text and imposed the STs' monological meanings on them. The explanation also disregarded the fact that each text is characterized by what Bakhtin (1981) calls "polyglossa" (Adams, 1992, p.838), and reading is a dialogic process of constructing meanings from this polyglossic entity. Moreover, the STs showed little sign of acknowledging the fact that the text at the advanced level should be "actively interpreted" (Pym, 2014, p.99) by students themselves rather than explained to them. The marginalization of text exploration by readers themselves and the adoption of the meaning-transmission approach both have a detrimental

effect on student motivation and involvement. The demotivation and passivity of the students, for instance, were overtly visible in almost all the observed classes.

The STs' fascination with the explanatory approach can also be discussed from the perspective of their role in the reading class. Assuming their centrality to the teaching reading process, these teachers showed their unwillingness to shun the traditional role as an authority. Put differently, each ST presented himself/herself as an interpreter of language and content of the text, content supplier, content controller, and evaluator. The role they assumed was found to be in conflict with Williams' rule of thumb that "the teacher's role is [...] less that of information-giver/text-explainer, and more that of coach/classroom organizer/trouble-shooter/consultant/personnel manager/catalyst. This latter role is a far more professional one (and far more demanding!) than that of straightforward text-explainer" (1986, p.44). Due to the STs' unwillingness or inability to abandon the center stage in the class, their teaching suffered "hegemonic univocality" (Vieira, 2002, p. 95), depriving the students of opportunities to participate in reading-oriented and reading-generated activities. Their teaching exhibited the defining tenets of the traditional method of teaching reading (Hamp-Lyons & Proulx, 1982; Wallace, 2001) and echoed Ren and Wang's (2018) finding about teaching reading in Chinese universities that "up till now many instructors employ the traditional teaching method, which fails to stimulate students' interest in reading" (p.13). This finding about the teaching method is also in consistent with that of Poudel and Sharma (2019) who reported the use of the excessive lecture in English language teaching in higher education in Nepal.

Regarding the reading process, the use of activation activities was conceived either redundant to or burden on the readers, whereas the use of extension activities was kept to a minimum. Accordingly, the activation of students' "schematic knowledge and language knowledge", to use Hedge's (2000) terms, before presenting the text, and the extension of the students' knowledge after the presentation were either totally ignored or least prioritized in all the lessons. Put simply, pre-reading and post-reading phases were of secondary importance to the STs despite the fact that the contribution of these phases to students' reading proficiency has been theoretically recognized and empirically justified (e.g. Grabe, 2002) and therefore are pedagogically recommended (e.g. Hedge, 2000; Harmer, 2007). In principle, these phases are treated as integral parts of the teaching reading procedure. In practice, however, the students were not adequately prepared for reading by activating their existing language and knowledge resources. Nor were they satisfactorily engaged in post-reading or post-explanation activities to take them beyond the text and integrate reading into the production skills i.e. speaking and writing.

As to the use of extension activities, having the students write the summary of the text stood out ineffective because the teachers had already explained the passage and summarized it for the class or presented its theme in points. Consequently, the summarizing task did not require the students to read the passage again. Obviously, they would simply rewrite what was served to them, or summarize the passage with the help of the teacher-supplied points. Compared to summarizing, writing a paragraph can be considered more productive and effective. Since the task necessitated the students to go beyond the teacher-supplied summary or points and read the passage themselves as well as add some information from their own sides. Finally, more productive, integrative and liberating than summarizing or paragraph writing would be essay writing, though least prioritized by the STs. To produce their own texts, the students needed to consult outside resources apart from making use of the ST-supplied information and reading the given passage.

The activities used in the extension phase of teaching lacked variety. Furthermore, those activities were not effective enough to lead the students beyond the comprehension phase by engaging them in the analysis of the language and content of the passage on the one hand and by challenging them to critically evaluate the text on the other. This phase failed to incorporate text-related activities that provoke students into reflecting on the theme of the passage, sharing their opinions in pairs/groups, agreeing or disagreeing with the writer's stance, identifying with the writer or characters, and creating a parallel text—all desirable activities in an advanced reading classroom.

As their instructors as well as supervisors, we were anticipating that teaching reading by these trainee teachers would be informed at the very least by the theoretical knowledge they had gained from the course. Contrary to our anticipation, there was conspicuous incongruence between how they were taught to teach reading and how they were teaching reading to their students. Obverse of the constructivist spirit of the course that treats students as meaning-generating and meaning-constructing agents, the STs were heavily guided by the behavioristic approach that conceives students as passive recipients of the information supplied by the teacher. This type of theory-praxis gap, however, is not limited to STs alone. A number of studies (e.g. Karn, 2006; Richards, 2008; Adhikari, 2017) have reported that even practicing or experienced teachers fail "to apply such knowledge (knowledge about language and language learning) in their own teaching" (Richards, 2008, p.5). Concerning the gap, Karn (2006) has a similar conclusion to make, "It is very unfortunate that the theoretical knowledge obtained from ELT courses is not put into practice during actual teaching" (p.77). The gap suggests the lack of the conversion of declarative knowledge about teaching reading into procedural knowledge. Furthermore, incongruence between the course expectations and the actual classroom performance indicates the teachers' insufficient familiarity with the nature of the reading courses they were teaching.

These findings are significant because they point to an urgency of reassessment of teaching reading at the tertiary level. In order for ESL/EFL teaching reading to be effective, it should be well informed by the principles of teaching in general and those of teaching reading in particular, and recognize and capitalize on the readers' inner resources and prioritize reader-text interaction. Another aspect implicated in the findings is that the teacher training program should

be in the direction of minimizing the gap between the pedagogical knowledge of the student teachers (M. Ed. students of the advanced reading courses) and their actual classroom performance.

The study involved some limitations. Since the participants were student teachers, it is hard to claim that these findings can be generalized to in-service university teachers teaching reading courses. Moreover, the study exclusively concerned the how-aspect of teaching reading at the tertiary level, the why-aspect has remained untouched. Teachers' inclination to one particular teaching approach accompanied by particular activities should be studied from their perspectives too so as to uncover their assumptions and beliefs about reading and teaching reading, and contextual realities that shape their teaching.

## VI. CONCLUSION

The study found that the student teachers (STs) failed to adopt the principled approach to teaching reading. Their undue inclination to text explanation at the cost of text exploration, the absence of potentially better while-reading activities and the marginal use of pre- and post-reading activities all lead to the conclusion that their teaching methodology was theoretically ill-informed and pedagogically misguided. Likewise, there was conspicuous incongruence between what the STs had studied in the advanced teaching reading course and how they were actually teaching to the students. Furthermore, incongruence was also noticed between the course expectations and the way the STs carried out teaching reading in the actual classroom situation. This also suggests a need for conducting classroom research into teaching reading at the tertiary level that 'produces' the prospective English teachers.

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# The Effectiveness of Social Media Application "Telegram Messenger" in Improving Students' Reading Skills: A Case Study of EFL Learners at Ajloun University College/Jordan

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**Abstract**—With the advent of smart phones and new smart devices, the use of these mobile communication devices has become an integral part of our daily life. The study aims to discuss the influence of modern technological apps in developing students' skills such as telegram messenger channels on improving reading skills E-learning, m-learning and techno-aids might help to fill the gap. The study is conducted on EFL learners at Ajloun University College. To sum up, the study has provided evidence to the effectiveness of Telegram® social media application in improving students' reading skills.

**Index Terms**—English as a Foreign Language, reading skills, smart phones role in education, social media applications, Telegram Messenger

## I. INTRODUCTION

Nowadays, the world is in the era of social media revolution, the age of smart phones and smart devices applications. We use phone devices not only for communications with others, but for a variety of other purposes, as well. Actually, with the advent of smart phones and new smart devices, the use of these mobile communication devices has become an integral part of our daily life. Today, people from all ages have the ability to use smart devices applications, including young students anytime anywhere (Cook & Das, 2007).

The students prefer the utilization of their mobile devices to access the internet and conduct learning related activities. (Wong, 2015)

The new generation of young students has technical, electronic and digital minds. They deal with the new technology as a piece of cake. In fact, they are fully aware of the globalization and part of it (Bolstad, & Gilbert, 2006). They spend most of their time working on their smart phones. By time, such students lose enthusiasm to learn from regular books and traditional curriculums with the prevalence of the social media, the smart phones and smart devices applications. However, over a period, these mobile apps are playing significant role in the day-to-day lives including education. These phone applications have made our life simpler and have provided yet another innovative way of accessing education. In fact, "these profound changes are placing increasing pressure on the traditional models of teaching and learning." (Bansal & Dhananjay Joshi, 2014). Thus, our students deserve better when it comes to education. E-learning, m-learning and techno-aids might help to fill the gap. Actually, there is a shift to e-learning that is enabled by communication technologies (Campbell, 2010).

In fact, the world has seen a steady and rapid increase in the growth of phone applications, since the appearance of the Apple App Store in 2008. Varieties of smart phones applications are currently available. However, among the top lists in the popular applications given by various sources, a prominent name that is emerging all over the globe is Telegram. Telegram messenger is a mobile application that has apparently caught the attention of large number of mobile users (Giordano et al, 2015).

Mobile assisted learning (MALL) can be defined as the use of small, portable, wireless devices such as mobile phones, smartphones and personal computers to achieve flexibility and interaction in teaching and learning anytime and anywhere (Mehmadi, 2012).

Digital devices, mobile phones and Tablet PCs can be used to perform many educational tasks, although their role differ. Most mobile devices are useful in teaching, facilitating teachers' tasks and considered as learning aids for students as illustrated by the following (Kasem et al., 2006):

- Students can interact with each other and with the teacher instead of hiding behind the large monitor.
- Many portable devices in the classroom are easy to be installed compared to desktops that require a lot of space.
- Most personal digital devices, notebooks, tablets, and smart phones are lighter, smaller and easier to carry than bags filled with files, books or any paper study material.
- Handwriting recognition applications in personal portable devices help in improving students' handwriting

skills.

- Increase motivation and personal commitment to learning if the student will take the device home at any time he wants, it helps him to commit and take responsibility.
- Attract learners: young people who have dropped out of education can enjoy the use of mobile devices.

Mobile assisted learning could help the English language teachers by saving time through enabling them to transmit educational information to the class students in an effective manner.

Regarding the classroom activities, teachers could utilize the mobile applications to explain the English language grammatical rules which will be more effective than writing the rules on the blackboard (Dajani and Wahba, 2001).

The introduction of mobile assisted learning in teaching English language in the private and public schools in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia could be useful. Therefore, the integration of educational technologies in the schools is probably a very important issue of concern to the policy makers in the Saudi ministry of education (Mehmadi, 2012).

Telegram messenger is a cloud-based mobile and desktop messaging application with a focus on security and speed which was launched on August 14, 2013 to make communication and the distribution of multimedia messaging more easily and faster. "Telegram Messenger is a messaging application focusing on instant and secure messaging, it's super-fast, simple and free. Individuals can download Telegram on all portable devices at the same time— and synchronize their conversations seamlessly across any number of your devices." (Telegram@.com, 2017).

Nowadays, millions of people are using Telegram. That's nearly one in seven people in the world who use Telegram monthly to keep connected with their loved ones, friends and family. (Telegram Blog, 2017). Telegram is supported financially and ideologically by Pavel and technological by Nikolai Durov.

Using Telegram messenger in English language learning had positively affected the students' comprehension of vocabulary and grammatical rules (Alkhezzi & Al-Dosari, 2016)

Since Telegram is relatively a new phenomenon, little research exists regarding its influence on interpersonal communication in general, and between high school teachers and their students in particular (Church & de Oliveira, 2013). While reviewing the literature of the topic of this study, few references and books were found tackling the issue of Telegram messenger from the pedagogical perspective. Most of the information found was in the form of articles, researches, or thesis. Most of the writers' arguments of these works lead to the recommendation to adopting Telegram as a perfect educational assistant. Yet, on the other hand, there are others who have not the same attitude towards the application.

## II. REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Here is a review of the views of some of the writers who recommend using Telegram as an effective and successful teaching-learning aid as well as others of the contrasted team.

Digital communication between groups of students and between students and teachers has become popular during the last decade through various channels: Email, SMS, Facebook groups, Twitter, Whatsapp and recently Telegram. Each one of these tools has different characteristics that influence its suitability for learning purposes. (Calvo, Arbiol and Iglesias, 2014).

Previous studies examined different use of Telegram in educational settings. One study investigated the effectiveness of using Telegram in teaching English pronunciation to Iranian EFL learners. Study participants had included 30 Iranian EFL learners divided into an experimental group (N=14) and a control group (N=16). Study groups had received various treatments over a period of 4 weeks. Study findings for the pre and posttest had indicated that there is a significant improvement in the pronunciation of participants in the experimental group compared to the control group. Study had concluded that utilizing Telegram messenger in teaching English language is an effective and promising approach (Xodabande, 2017).

In a study conducted by Zarei et al (2017) that aimed to investigate the impact of using Telegram on EFL learners' and the knowledge and attitudes of them towards vocabulary learning. Study sample had been composed of 100 EFL learners that were involved in a quasi-experimental study. Participants were divided into two study groups; the control group (N=50) and the experimental group (N=50). Both group members had received a three weeks vocabulary instruction. Experimental group members had been asked to fill out a pre-designed questionnaire. Finally, a vocabulary test had been administered among the participants of the both groups. Study findings had shown that there is a significant outperformance of the experimental group over the control group. Furthermore, study findings had shown that the study participants had positive attitudes toward using Telegram messenger.

Many studies had investigated the impact of similar mobile applications such as Whatsapp on the learning outcomes. For instance, a study conducted by Bansal et al(2014) aimed to investigate students' experiences of Whatsapp® mobile learning , during session 2013-2014 , and examined a sample of 37 Bachelor of Education students. Study sample students and their teacher were interacting with each other within Whatsapp® group and finally students were asked to fill in a pre-designed questionnaire. Findings of the study had showed an increase in students' social interactivity and they learned collaboratively, as well as Whatsapp® was favorable for students. Moreover, study results indicated that married students considered that learning using Whatsapp® is disruptive and they prefer traditional classroom learning.

## III. OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

As a teacher of English for years, the researcher realized that learning has changed from a mere repetition and memorization of facts to interactive strategies of learning. This study is conducted for three main reasons. Firstly, to have students and teachers get out of the monotonous and boring class atmosphere and to experience other live interactive atmosphere, whether inside or outside the classroom. Secondly, to identify the impact of using Telegram as a mobile learning tool on reading skills of undergraduate EFL learners at Ajloun University College. This study will go through new teaching-learning methods that are more appropriate and suitable for students' interests and preferences so as to provoke their awareness towards the content being learned.

#### IV. PROBLEM OF THE STUDY

This study came to address two major problems. Mainly, formal learning that is widespread in our schools does not allow the design of authentic learning tasks. Also, mobile phones are hardly used for teaching and learning in the learning settings. Moreover, though our students become so fond of their smart phones to the extent that they cannot live without. Thus, it becomes a must for us to adopt new techniques including mobile apps. Telegram, as a very popular social media application among students, may solve the problem.

#### V. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

This study is conducted mainly to answer the following major question:

Are there any significant statistical differences at significance level ( $\alpha \leq 0.05$ ) between the Control group and the experimental group in the reading post-test referred to using Telegram Messenger channels?

#### VI. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

This study is considered important as follows

1. Theoretical significance: current study will provide good literature regarding the impact of using Telegram messenger channels on English language learners' reading skills.
2. Practical significance:
  - For teachers and instructors: it will provide a new educational method that will improve students' reading skills.
  - For college administration: The findings of the current study will enable the administrative authorities and decision makers in the educational institutions to have a reference for the formulation of the educational policies.

#### VII. METHODOLOGY

This study is designed to investigate the impact of Telegram messenger channels usage on improving reading skills of undergraduate EFL learners in Ajloun College University.

Setting: A quasi-experimental approach that is represented by a pre and post-test over two students groups (An experimental group and a control group) will be adopted in this study.

Population and sampling: The population in the current study was the 2nd year Jordanian EFL learners registered as regular students in Ajloun University College following Al-Balqa'a applied university, and enrolled in the reading skills course in the first semester of the academic year 2019/2020.

Purposeful sampling was performed to get the study sample; the researcher intentionally selected two classes to represent the study sample. Each class consisted of 35 students. Class A represented the control group whereas the Class B represented the experimental group.

##### Data collection tools

The researcher designed the reading skills' test that was used in this study as an assessment tool for participants' reading skills. The reading skills test was designed through identifying the objectives of the test and analyzing the content of the teaching material presented in the reading curriculum studied by 2nd year EFL learners. Briefly, the researcher followed the following procedure in constructing the reading pre/posttest before releasing it in the final form:

- Determining the general aim of the test: As this test aims at measuring the level of reading skills of the 2nd year undergraduate EFL learners in Ajloun College University.
- Reviewing the literature and previous local and international studies that investigated the reading skills of the EFL learners. The purpose of this step was to get use of the standard procedure of constructing a reading skills pre and post-test.
- Analyzing the content of the teaching material presented in the reading curriculum that is studied by 2nd year EFL learners in Ajloun University College. This was performed in order to set the description of the test and determine the items of the test.
- Setting the instructions of the test: The researcher prepared the instructions of the test that included the aim of the reading test, the number of items, and the time allotted to answer the test items.
- Preparation of the first version of the reading skills test: after determining the reading skills that were needed

to be improved among 2nd year EFL learners at Ajloun University College, the researcher constructed the first version of the reading pre/post-test. The first version consisted of one reading passage with 20 items

- Validating the reading test: the researcher submitted the reading test to a panel of jury members who were asked kindly to review the reading test in terms of the clarity of the language, the comprehensiveness of the test items and to provide any useful comments that might improve the reading test.
- Measuring the reliability of the test: To ensure the reliability of the test, the researcher used the test-retest method by administering the reading test on a pilot sample consisted of 20 EFL learners with a time interval between the first and second administration of two weeks. Pearson's correlation factor was calculated to be (0.91) which is acceptable in educational research.

#### VIII. PROCEDURE FOR THE EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUP

Participants of the experimental group were required to provide the researcher with their phone numbers. Then, they were trained to run the application on their smart phones and joined the online learning group.

Previous procedure was performed to make the students familiar with the outline group and things they needed to be involved in the learning process.

Before proceeding in the study, the researcher had held an introductory session for the experimental group to give a brief summary about the study and its benefits to the teaching and learning processes.

Data collection procedure had started, it had been performed over a period of four weeks (15 sessions including the introductory session). Students had attended their classes and committed to follow the normal activities of the class.

Each online learning session had included posting the studied lessons' vocabularies and reading exercises. Posted data could be reviewed by the group members.

Thus, the experimental group members had been involved in one hour traditional class at the college, three online sessions weekly on Mondays, Wednesdays, and Thursdays. Furthermore, the online participation was not restricted to a specific time, students could post their questions to be answered by the teacher.

After 14 sessions of using Telegram online learning environment, study participants had been tested for their reading skills.

On the other hand, participants of the control group had received a traditional learning in the classroom context.

#### IX. DATA ANALYSIS

Data from the pre and post reading tests were compiled, sorted, coded and imported to Excel sheets, and finally calculated using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) in order to perform the statistical analysis such as frequencies, mean, standard deviation, and correlation coefficients analysis. Independent samples t-test and One Way ANOVA were used to identify the differences in reading performance among the control and the experimental groups.

#### X. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The current study aimed at investigating the impact of using Telegram messenger channels on improving reading skills among 2nd year EFL learners at Ajloun University College.

Means and standard deviations of the study participants in reading pre and post-test were calculated for both study groups (the experimental and the control).

It is obvious from table (1) that there are apparent differences between the mean scores of the participants in reading pre and post-test based on the study group (experimental and control).

TABLE (1):  
MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATION SCORES FOR THE STUDY PARTICIPANTS' SCORES IN THE READING SKILLS PRE AND POST-TEST ACCORDING TO THE GROUP (EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL)

Post test		Pre test		N	Group
Standard deviation	Mean	Standard deviation	Mean		
1.006	17.20	2.013	13.69	35	Experimental
1.740	13.93	2.106	13.85	35	Control
1.373	15.56	2.059	13.77	70	Total

To identify in favor of which group these differences are referred, the researcher used One Way ANCOVA test after neutralizing the pre-test measurements for the groups.

Table (2) shows that there are significant statistical differences at significance level ( $\alpha \leq 0.05$ ) in the scores of the study participants in the reading test according to the study group (experimental and control), the F value was 93.068 with a significance value (0.000), which is statistically significant, and this revealed the effect of the study group.



- A** listen                                      **B** hearing                                      **C** listening to                                      **D** hearing from  
 20- The driver was fined for having .....the speed limit.  
**A** exceeded                                      **B** excessive                                      **C** excess                                      **D** excessively

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Here research focuses on the "Effectiveness of social media application telegram messenger in improving students reading skills"

# Action Research in EFL: Exploring Writing Pedagogy Through a Task-based Lesson Delivery

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**Abstract**—The study attempted to move away from the more traditional Presentation, Practice, Production model of teaching to experiment with the Task Based Learning approach. Action research framework was adopted to observe a writing class with a focus on developing the paragraph level skills of the Preparatory Year EFL students. Teacher notes, peer observation report, samples of students' writing and a short student survey were used to collect the data. The results revealed that the new approach though mostly successful and effective had a few issues in regard to activity management and feedback on students' performance. The study recommends a series of similar action research initiatives to further validate the newly used teaching approach as well as introduce other pedagogic approaches which have not been practiced so far.

**Index Terms**—action research, EFL writing, peer observation, professional development, TBL

## I. INTRODUCTION

Teaching as a vocation is an evolving phenomenon which if not chosen with a thorough professional intent can impede the process of professional growth. Professional intent refers to the aptitude and commitment a teacher should have to experience what Bailey and Jackson cited in Richards and Lockhart (1996) call 'change' – an essential factor of motivation for professional development. Change may be the outcome of beliefs which emerge as a result of reflection. Schon in Norton (2009, p.21) suggests that "we all need to reflect as we will inevitably be faced with new situations or problems for which we were not specifically trained". The idea seems to be a teacher's progression, based on reflection, from one point to the next, and so on. This progression is evident in dealing with classroom dynamics on the one hand, and pursuing professional development on the other. Schon (1983) conceptualizes the reflective practitioner as one who is systematically self-assessing as he constantly gets feedback from the external assessment process and is most times preoccupied with early identification of problems and proffering of solutions to them. One way of doing this is through action research (AR) which stimulates observation and reflection not only on one's own teaching but also as a way of bringing about change in pedagogic beliefs and practices (Richards, 1990).

## II. LITERATURE REVIEW

### Action Research in EFL Pedagogy

Following Troudi and Riley (1996), teachers' lack of involvement in syllabus design, material development and course assessment procedures may cause an inevitable gap between the pedagogic interventions and learning outcomes with a negative effect on classroom teaching and learning experience. Extending the role of the teacher to that of a researcher is likely to help identify and diagnose the context specific issues and suggest practical solutions. One such approach is the AR. Following Richards and Renandya (2002, p. 358) that "it is what teachers think and do at the classroom level that eventually determines what learners learn in the classroom", AR can be defined as a "self-reflective spiral of planning, acting, observing, reflecting, and re-planning" (McNiff & Whitehead, 2002 p.46). In other words, AR may be understood as a realization of teacher reflection on any of the dynamics of classroom teaching. What makes AR distinct from reflective practice is that it lends concreteness and practicality to reflection which is mostly a cognitive phenomenon. AR can be conducted to figure out longstanding pedagogic issues that have impeded effective learning experience through reflection, planning, and collaboration. Research studies (e.g., Banegas, et al., 2013; Burns, 2014) have revealed that AR is potentially a highly effective resource of teacher autonomy and development as far as development through change in teaching beliefs and practices is concerned. Not only this it can also be used to identify learner needs and modify teaching accordingly. AR has a wide scope in terms of systematically dealing with pedagogical issues: A teacher can investigate any focus of interest ranging from a teaching approach to strategy or technique, identifying learning inhibitions to their remedies, evaluating the strengths and weaknesses of the course design to the instructional materials. Researchers such as Borg (2006), Burns and Westmacott (2018) and Smith et al. (2013) have also referred to the use of AR in teacher collaboration through peer observations, for instance, to resolve issues that challenge the teacher and the learner in a classroom context. AR, therefore, not only solves problems but also enhances teaching skills Banegas (2018).

Researchers have proposed different frameworks for AR. For instance, Cohen and Manion's (1985) model identifies eight areas which AR should cater for: identification of the problem, a research proposal, review of the related literature,

formulation of hypothesis, creating a research design, deciding on the evaluation procedures, data collection and analysis, interpretation and reporting of the results. Negi (2016 p.20) has mentioned a few other frameworks as outlined in Table 1.

TABLE 1:  
FRAMEWORKS FOR ACTION RESEARCH

Stage	Kemmis & McTaggart (1988)	Sagor (1992)	Calhoun (1994)	O'leary (2004)	British Council (2015)
Planning		Formulating Problem	Selecting the area of focus	Observing	Noticing a problem
Acting		Collecting data	Collecting data	Reflecting	Planning
Observing		Analyzing data	Organizing data	Planning	Teaching/Acting
Reflecting		Reporting results	Analyzing and interpreting data	Acting	Observing
Re-planning		Planning action	Taking action	Observing	Reflecting

### Task Based Learning (TBL): Definition and Concept

TBL refers to an approach in language teaching where the learners are engaged in a task such as preparing a menu, visiting a doctor, etc. with the primary focus on fluency and task realization rather than on accuracy of the linguistic forms. Prabhu (1987 p.24) defines a task as "an activity which required learners to arrive at an outcome from given information through some process of thought, and which allowed teachers to control and regulate that process". Nunan (1989 p.10) uses the word 'task' instead of 'activity'. He defines a task as "a piece of classroom work which involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language while their attention is principally focused on meaning rather than form". According to Willis (1996 p.23) "tasks are always activities where the target language is used by the learner for a communicative purpose (goal) in order to achieve an outcome". Comparing Presentation, Practice, Production (PPP) and TBL approaches, Harmer (2001) argues that PPP focuses on accuracy which a teacher attempts to help his students achieve through presentation of structures, drilling, practice and production, while TBL allows more control to the students as the role of the teacher is restricted to that of a facilitator. Since grammatical accuracy is of secondary importance, students' nervous anxiety is under good control and they can focus on language use for communicative purposes with higher levels of motivation. Willis and Willis (2001) observe that in TBL, tasks are different from grammar-based activities because the learners are free to use a variety of language structures to complete the tasks. This conforms to Krashen and Terrel's (1983: p. 55) view that "language is best taught when it is being used to transmit messages, not when it is explicitly taught for conscious learning". In TBL, the learners are not pre-taught the target language rather it is drawn from them with the help of a facilitator during the process of task realization (Curran and Dusap, 2000 p. 23). Hence, TBL permits the learners to use real-world language and this makes language learning an authentic experience in real-life communication.

### Principles of TBL

Nunan (2004: p. 35-38) has outlined seven principles of TBL: a) Scaffolding that refers to the supporting frameworks within which the learning takes place in respect to lesson and materials; b) Task dependency which assumes that the tasks within one lesson should have a logical corollary; c) Recycling that enhances opportunities for learning and activates the 'organic' learning principle; d) Active learning which occurs when language is used effectively; e) Integration which entails that the learners should find clear links among language forms, communicative function, and semantic meaning; f) Reproduction to creation which states that learners should be motivated to progress from reproductive to creative language use; g) Reflection that expects learners to be allowed to reflect on the learning outcomes as well as their performance.

### TBL Framework

A typical TBL framework is based on pre-task, the task, planning, report, analysis and practice stages (Willis, 1996). In the Pre-task stage, the teacher introduces the task and instructs the students what to do at different stages. He can also use pre-task lead-in to activate the schemata of the students with the help of, for example, pictures and other brainstorming strategies. Next, the students work in pairs or groups and use and share the language they already know. The teacher acts as facilitator and motivates them. In the planning stage a short oral or written report is prepared for presentation before the class. The students practice, with teacher's advice if needed, what they are going to say in their groups. This is followed by a presentation by the students where they present or read the written report. The teacher chooses the order of when students will present their reports and may give the students some quick feedback on the content. The analysis stage focuses on specific language features from the task which are picked up and discussed. Feedback on the learners' performance at the reporting stage may also be appropriate at this point. The final stage practice is based on the needs analysis done by the teacher during the task realization stages.

### Strengths of TBL

Unlike the PPP approach, in TBL the students use the language they know. When they work in groups they share their store of language and are exposed to new language. They use personalized and real-world language, and thereby create a natural context for learning. With TBL, the students will be exposed to a whole range of lexical phrases, collocations and patterns as well as language forms (Frost, 2004). The language explored arises from the students' needs. These needs determine what will be covered in the lesson rather than a decision made by the teacher or the course book.



TBL is, therefore, an effective communicative approach where student talk time (STT) gets priority over teacher talk time (TTT). It is interesting and motivating since it asks for collaborative work and task realization.

#### **Criticism of TBL**

One of the limitations of TBL is that it permits a limited use of the language which the learners already know. Experimenting with new words and phrases, and new structures may pose learners problems of communication and task realization. Since TBL involves group work, there is a chance that some students do not share the burden and simply rely on other group members. New learning done can be easily lost if not properly planned, or reinforced. Moreover, TBL can be a big challenge if practiced with large classes or in a limited time frame. As TBL exploits students' language and every student is expected to have a certain level of language competence, it can be challenging to successfully practice with low level classes like for example absolute beginners or false beginners.

#### **Aims and Objectives**

This AR study aimed at using Task Based Learning (TBL) as a teaching approach for Preparatory Year monolingual Arab students at the English Language Institute, (ELI), University of Jeddah, Saudi Arabia. Since PPP as a teaching framework has been quite consistently used, it was observed that despite teaching atomized language units with extensive practice in form, the students could not develop the desired language ability. However, the real motivation for experimenting with TBL was its allowance for fluency, need-based focus on form, student-centeredness, and the role of the teacher as a facilitator and counselor. This would help the researcher reflect on the new method and modify it for effective teaching in the future lessons. More specifically, the main objectives set for this AR were:

- i. To find out the effectiveness of TBL as an approach for teaching paragraph level writing.
- ii. To facilitate students write a short paragraph by working in groups and sharing ideas and language skills.

### **III. METHOD**

The researcher decided to use personal notes, peer observation report, student survey questionnaire, and samples of students' writing as data collection instruments.

#### **Teacher Observation**

Teacher observation included teacher's notes of students' reaction to the task as well as their interaction while working through different stages of the task. Moreover, teacher's understanding of a certain situation during the task performance and any language need of the students that might arise also formed part of this data collection instrument. Lastly, teacher's reflection on his role as a classroom facilitator in the management of all the planned stages of the task was also recorded to be collated with other data.

#### **Peer Observation**

The researcher requested a colleague to observe this lesson. The peer observer with an MA in English and Cambridge ESOL Celta had taught in the EFL contexts for more than 15 years. With sufficient experience of conducting peer observations, he was assumed to produce a reliable report on the lesson. To this end, a peer observation form (Table 2) from Cambridge Awards cited in Ahmad (2020) was adapted and shared with the observer to help him take important notes of the happenings in the class. The presence of the observer was expected to provide an objective appraisal of the teacher's performance and assessment of the students' response to the task.

TABLE 2:  
PEER OBSERVATION FORM

Observation Descriptors	Observation Benchmarks The teacher;	1/2/3
1 <b>Lesson Profile: Choice of the Topic</b>	Identifies a specific area appropriate to learning context & learners' needs	
2 <b>Observer's Comments</b>		
2 <b>Planning &amp; Preparation</b>	Provides learner profile States lesson aims Includes language analysis (communicative features of discourse) Establishes link with previous learning Mentions assumptions about learners' knowledge etc. Shows familiarity with learners' problems & solutions Sequences procedures & activities to achieve lesson aims Develops & keeps effective materials Manages time through lesson stages effectively	
3 <b>Observer's Comments</b>		
3 <b>Lesson Delivery</b>	Teaches as planned appropriate to the learners needs and level Allows equal participation Is receptive & responds to learners' participation Uses procedures, activities & techniques to achieve lesson aims Exploits materials to support learning to achieve aims Delivers a coherent & suitably varied lesson Monitors & checks students' learning & responds as appropriate Uses language appropriate to the teaching context Provides appropriate models of language use Provides accurate information about language use Notices learners' output & incorporates it into the learning process Implements LP & adapts it to the emerging needs Manages the classroom space, furniture & other equipment effectively Sets up whole class/pair/group work as appropriate Ensures the learners stay focused on lesson aims & the learning outcomes	
<b>Observer's Comments</b>		

1 = Achieved; 2 = Partially Achieved; 3 = Not Achieved

### Students' Profile and Survey

A students' survey questionnaire (Table 3) was generated to help gauge their perceptions about the task, their problems, and their level of motivation. The target group of learners were 20 male Arabic speaking Preparatory Year students in an age range of 18 to 22 at the University of Jeddah, Saudi Arabia. Most of the students had problems using English language for communicative functions and were, therefore, reluctant to participate actively in the classroom activities. However, if motivated, they would set to work but resorted to the teacher input quite frequently. With an assumed elementary level of English language proficiency, they attended a 14 week term based on an integrated course design. The four language skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing were taught through a preset textbook. Owing to the institutional and curricular constraints, there was no separate provision for specialized instruction for the writing skill which, consistent with many a research findings (e.g. Ahmad, 2017) in the Saudi EFL context, these learners found challenging and to some extent intimidating. Most of the time, PPP was employed as a teaching approach. Customized materials to facilitate and reinforce the learning outcomes were also sometimes used. Writing as a language and literacy skill was assessed summatively on a five-point criteria through a writing task which required the students to produce either a narrative or a descriptive or an opinion paragraph of no less than 150 words.

TABLE 3:  
STUDENTS' SURVEY

Survey Statements	YES	NO
1 The task was interesting		
2 I enjoyed working in my group		
3 Teacher's instructions were easy and clear		
4 The teacher helped me/my group with my/our problems		
5 This way of writing a paragraph is easy		
6 I learnt new words		
7 I learnt how to organize ideas		
8 I made suggestions to my group		
9 I did some correction work		
10 I finished my task on time		
11 I will like to do these types of tasks again		

### Samples of Students' Writing

Samples of the paragraph written by the students during the lesson were collected and analyzed to identify their strengths and weaknesses in terms of fluency and accuracy. The students' writing samples were analyzed according to their response to the rubrics for the three worksheets (Appendix 2). These samples also helped in collection of data on students' needs and were collated with teacher and peer observation results.

### **Lesson Procedure**

The learners worked in groups to first brainstorm and list five points about "Problems of living in a foreign country". Since the author was using TBL as a teaching approach, he did not propose to pre-teach key vocabulary and language forms. The students spoke to each other to activate their existing vocabulary and language forms for the task in hand. First, they listed five points on the topic. Then, they used their language knowledge to make a short oral presentation before the class. Next, they wrote a topic sentence for the proposed topic – a skill they had already learnt and practiced on this course – and organized their points to write a short paragraph. They were provided with a list of the signal words which they had to use for the organization of the paragraph. Teaching through TBL approach was expected to highlight some of the language needs of the learners which were dealt with during the peer correction and the feedback stage. Finally, the students wrote the edited paragraphs on a new worksheet which was designed to reinforce the newly learnt language forms and skills.

### **Assumed Knowledge**

It was assumed that the learners were familiar with a number of items both from the language systems and the skills areas which they might need to employ during the present task. They had already been exposed to chronological order and the related signal words as well as how to write topic sentence and supporting detail. Besides, they had also done some classroom practice in writing simple and compound sentences. They were also familiar with using present simple, past simple and future simple tenses. Now, they were set to produce a paragraph organization by order of importance. The author felt that with the background knowledge that they had, they could be helped to write paragraphs using "order of importance".

### **Anticipated Problems and Appropriate Solutions**

Since the learners were doing a task without the usual context development and presentation from the teacher, it was anticipated that they might face certain problems. First, they might not properly understand the task and the stages involved in it. The teacher would try to present the instructions clearly and loudly so that everybody understood. If someone still was not clear about what to do, he could ask his group member for clarity. Secondly, as the students were elementary level learners, they might find it difficult to choose the appropriate vocabulary. The teacher decided to use scaffolding as a strategy to deal with this issue. It was also anticipated that some learners might have a slow writing speed. It was decided to involve the learners in group work so that they could get some support from their peers. Besides, time management could be a problem in task realization. So, the teacher had to be vigilant to ensure that each task stage finished on time. Those students were asked to present and write who were fast in their groups. Similarly, in the language focus and peer correction stage, the groups were asked to stick their paragraphs on the board and suggest correction to save time.

## **IV. RESULTS**

The post lesson observations were based on the notes taken by the author and the peer observer, and results obtained through the student survey questionnaire and the writing samples of the students. The author was able to develop the schemata of the students by asking them a few questions on the topic. There were 20 students distributed into five groups of four students in each. As observed by the peer observer and the students, the instructions were fairly clear. The students had no problems in starting and progressing with the task. It was found that most of the lesson objectives were successfully achieved.

### **Teacher Evaluation**

As revealed in the task worksheets, the students were able to complete the task through collaborative learning. They could brainstorm five points about the topic and then present their ideas orally. Next, they worked with each other to first write the topic sentence and then, organize their points as supporting sentences using the signal words. One group used the past tense and narrated an experience. But the most serious issue was the spelling. All the paragraphs written had spelling problems. However, the students showed good understanding of the use of signal words and organized their ideas well. TBL proved to be an effective teaching approach as students collaborated with each other towards task realization with minimal stress that was NOT a typical feature of other tasks such as done in a PPP approach. 4 out of 5 groups expressed their willingness to do these types of tasks again. Moreover, all the lesson stages were well managed except for the last one where the students had to practice new words and spelling, rewrite the correct paragraph and save it for their portfolios. The students showed a higher level of motivation as compared with the previous lessons which were mostly based on PPP framework. The students were also keenly interested in the task and according to the peer observer's findings they were 'eager to participate'. Because of the students' active participation, the author's role was reduced to that of a facilitator and counselor. It was fun to see students working together and consulting the author only when needed and that too only for advice or clarity. There was more student talk time (STT) and less teacher talk time (TTT), and according to the observer TTT was approximately 30% of the lesson.

However, the language focus stage was not as effective as the author had planned. It turned out to be more teacher-centered rather than student-centered. This was something that the author needed to control. Similarly, the students' peer correction was not well managed. The author could have given them more time to reflect on each other's writing and suggest correction. Finally, the time left for the final stage was a little short and the author had to wind up things in haste which probably lead to more TTT and also affected peer correction and practice.

### **Peer Observer Report**

The subsections below report peer observer's comments on the lesson as elicited from the lesson observation criteria (Table 2).

#### **Lesson Profile**

The teacher demonstrated a good understanding of the theory and a sensible choice for his own development and the needs of his learners. He showed a lot of insight into their likely reactions and took a sensible stand on reflection. However, more specific objectives and more on how he understood what he did from the data would be good. He presented a wide-ranging discussion of the various strands of belief about second language acquisition that underlie a task based approach to teaching. It was good to see that he could relate theory to practice. Some areas could do with further exemplification, but on the whole the lesson profile was well stated. The teacher made a sensible case for his choice of focus, grounding it in his own overall development and tendencies that had arisen so far in the professional development context. It was a rational choice to try and move to a more learner-centered environment. The teacher was particularly clear about some of the likely efficiency of his options for gathering data – the section on why he took the approach and what he proposed to do with feedback from the learners was a strength.

The teacher had set up objectives to evaluate the AR lesson. This section of the lesson profile was somewhat less robust. While he set out a sensible number of objectives they could be more tightly written. It was good that he also realized that he needed to collect data in order to assess the effectiveness of what he did in addressing the objectives, and good to triangulate by asking himself, the learners and an impartial observer, but here too, while the intention was clear, more detail would be appropriate. The reader should be able to see questions and feedback and the teacher should be able to pinpoint what had led him to his conclusions.

#### **The Lesson Plan**

The procedure was fairly clear with a clear context, some variety and opportunities for different interactions. Overall, there was a logical shape to the lesson; however, some further communicative practice or use of the target language would also have been useful. The procedure pages were generally well-presented and organized. Bullet points helped to break down the steps of most stages clearly, and interaction patterns were clearly shown. Stage aims were learner-focused as well as timings were clearly indicated. However, some procedures needed to be more clearly explained to show what the learners would do and how. It would also help if the teacher had labeled handouts – HO1, HO2, etc. to show what will be used when. Some timings seemed a little unbalanced in the later stages of the lesson, especially the language stage, which was quite long.

#### **Lesson Delivery**

The teacher had a very strong, positive classroom presence and encouraged the learners well. There was a clear context for this lesson and generally good use of visuals. The teacher had some good techniques in place – eliciting and discreet monitoring and drilling – and made excellent use of the board to support his instructions. There was also some variety in task and interaction, including some movement. The learners generally seemed to grasp the task, but the teacher should work on his own language – to grade his language to the learners' level better and try to elicit as much as possible rather than just spoon-feeding language.

The teacher had a relaxed, confident and friendly manner and did well to encourage equal participation through good nominating using appropriate gestures. The learners were generally well-engaged, he varied his role at times and there were opportunities for different interactions. He listened to the learners and responded naturally. His own language was mostly accurate and at times appropriately graded. The delivery was clear and at a natural speed. The practice activities helped to engage the learners in their respective groups and stay focused on the task. It was good to see him encouraging the learners to self or peer-correct. The basic sequence of the lesson was good and there was a clear context set and maintained. As mentioned, the teacher had some good techniques in place – eliciting and supportive monitoring. Engaging students with listing ideas on the topic and then asking them to make an oral presentation was a good idea for maintaining context, and the supported his plan with some different work sheets to help the learners think about the task in different ways. All of these made the lesson coherent and added variety in task and interaction. The teacher monitoring was discreet but supportive and feedback was given on all tasks. He implemented his lesson mostly as planned, making a time-related decision not to include one activity. Great to see him using the board so well in giving instructions. This really helped as a demo and the check understanding. Instructions were also well-staged. Overall, the learners were focused and the lesson aims were achieved. However, the learners could have been better engaged if the teacher aimed to elicit more and involve them more in the learning process.

#### **Analysis of Students' Writing**

Five groups (A to E) participated in the task and their writing was analyzed on the basis of the groups' compliance with the instructions of the tasks in Worksheet 1, 2 and 3 (Appendix 2). Task in Worksheet 1 required the groups to list five points about the topic. All the groups completed the task successfully; however, four groups only wrote one-word idea. Task in Worksheet 2 was to produce the first draft of the paragraph including a topic sentence and supporting detail based on the five ideas completed in Worksheet 1. The groups had also to use transition words from the list provided to them. This was followed by peer correction of the paragraph. All the groups could complete the task with minor deviations from the rubrics. For instance, Group A, B and E did not mark the errors during the peer correction stage. Group B could not produce the topic sentence for their paragraph. Except for Group B, all other groups followed

the same order in organizing the supporting detail as had been elicited in Worksheet 1. Transition words were used accurately by all the groups; however, Group A and E missed one or two points in the supporting detail. Worksheet 3 was the revised or the final draft of the writing task. Group A retained the first draft and did some minor edits. For instance, the general mention of the "country" was specified as "USA" in the final draft. But the group overlooked spelling and other issues of grammar and mechanics. Group B retained the first draft with some edits to the issues of mechanics. They did not pay heed to spelling and other issues. Group C did some editing by changing the word "*living*" to "*live*" and "*to living*" to "*to live*". Group D also did some editing by substituting the word "*hard*" by "*difficult*"; however, this led to inaccuracy in meaning. Group E rephrased a sentence to begin with "*when*". They also changed the phrase "*other country's food*" to "*other types of food*". Group G did some error correction to replace "*communication*" with "*communicate*". However, they did one error while doing correction on the first draft - instead of using "*homesickness*" as they had in the first draft, they used "*homesick*".

#### Students' Survey

The result obtained from the students' survey which was based on 11 items (Table 3) was mostly answered in the affirmative. One group felt that they could not learn how to organize ideas. Group A believed that this way of doing writing was not easy and that they could not make suggestions as group members. Most of the disagreement was expressed by Group B who found the task uninteresting and challenging. They felt that they needed more time to finish the task and that they would not like to engage in such tasks in future lessons.

### V. DISCUSSION

The students are monolingual Arabs with almost the same cultural background. They are either absolute beginners or false beginners when they start learning English here, and by the time they pass first semester of the Preparatory Year, it is assumed that they have achieved the elementary level of English language proficiency. One of the formidable challenges of language instruction to these students is the fear that English is a difficult language in terms of the rules and the functions which are taught explicitly. TBL can help remove this fear by providing the students an opportunity to work in pairs or groups and do a task which they can relate with the real life situations. Consistent with Wang's (2019) findings, it can be assumed that since TBL focuses on fluency, meaning, and task realization, linguistic inhibitions of the students can be easily overcome as they feel relaxed about the forms of the language. They can also employ their background knowledge of the world and the language to complete the task. In addition, TBL allows the students to use their first language (L1) during group discussion and this removes not only a serious barrier to language learning but also provides an opportunity of participation to weaker students. Moreover, TBL helps manage class size effectively. The researcher could use it for a class of 20 students. Group work which can be extended to a larger class promotes a higher level of motivation since the students work in collaboration sharing their ideas and language competence. The teacher, as facilitator, is able to identify the language needs of the students that may arise during the course of the lesson and has a clear focus to exploit during the feedback session. Most importantly, the language focus stage of the lesson also allows discussion of the language forms which have been used in the task. Hence, the students get sufficient practice and exposure to both fluency and accuracy involved in the task. Successful completion of the task gives students a real sense of achievement, and thereby a higher level of motivation for the next and future tasks.

However, as with other teaching approaches, TBL cannot be applied in a fixed template format, especially in an AR initiative as of the present study. It takes time to break what may be called pedagogic routines which are stereotyped procedures adopted by teachers while performing a typical teaching component repetitively or continually over a considerable period of time. The students also anticipate typical techniques or strategies from the teachers and consequently develop a fixed way of responding to such type of tasks. That is why when a teacher experiments with a novel approach, there are chances that he may not find it as effective as the other approach he has been using for a long time. Challenges in regard to activity management, task achievement, and feedback procedures and quality may come to the fore. Similarly, the students may find the new way of teaching boring or challenging because of its clash with the pedagogic routines. It is here that the role of reflective practice and AR activates. Following Wallace (1991), teachers can look back to their classroom practice to improve their future teaching. A reflective teacher can take note of the issues through the course of the lesson and assign them to either lesson planning, or lesson delivery, or feedback, or classroom management, or the instructional materials. These reflective notes help in the future planning and are expected to bring improvements to the overall teaching and learning experiences.

### VI. LIMITATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS: POST TEACHING ACTION PLAN

The study is not without its limitations as it is based on one lesson report only and as such has limited generalizability. However, the study can motivate further teaching initiatives that can be incorporated in future AR projects. For instance, TBL can be extended to other teaching foci such as helping students with developing their speaking and reading skills or with new grammar, lexis and discourse features. An important area of investigation would be to target feedback and error correction strategies especially by asking a colleague for peer observation or by video-recording the lesson or a series of lessons. Teaching approaches like the Silent Way, and Community Language Learning can also be made part

of the AR endeavours which can not only expose teachers to new pedagogic practices but also motivate learners (Fu, 2014) to learn from a variety of teaching styles.

## VII. CONCLUSION

Reflective practice and action research are at the heart of EFL pedagogy both implicitly and explicitly. Teachers are themselves observers of their classroom practice which if formalized can generate valuable data on a variety of teaching and learning dimensions. This data can be later utilized for improving the quality of teaching and achieving a higher level of learning outcomes. If institutionalized and made a collaborative activity involving EFL teachers at the departmental level, the data obtained from classroom observations can also be effectively used for professional development of the faculty and other macro projects such as the syllabus design and materials development. More importantly, such an attitude to professional development whereby teachers try new teaching methods such as the TBL encourages both teacher and learner autonomy with the result that the teachers assume responsibility for the quality their teaching practice and the students of their learning achievement.

### APPENDIX 1. TBL LESSON PLAN/PROCEDURE

Time	Stage/Stage Aim(s)	Procedure	Interaction	Materials
7 min 09:15-09:22	<b>Pre-task: (Lead-in)</b> - to form SS groups - to develop the schemata by elicitation - to introduce the topic.	1. Greet the learners. 2. Ask SS if they have ever traveled abroad, when did they visit, what did they see, how did they feel? etc 3. Form 3/4 groups 4. Tell SS that they will: Work in groups List five points about problems of living in a foreign country. Make a short oral presentation Organize these points to write a paragraph using signal words. Do peer correction 5. Give SS worksheet 1 (Appendix 2)	T ↔ SS	White board Handout/Worksheet
25 min 09:22-09:47	<b>The Task Cycle:</b> - to let SS complete the first part of the task - to allow SS work in collaboration - to identify SS language needs	SS consult one another and list five points The groups make their presentation before the class Give SS worksheet 2 (Appendix 2) Ask SS to write the Topic Sentence Ask SS to use their 5 points and signal words to write a short paragraph Monitor and observe the SS working in groups	T ↔ SS SS ↔ SS T ↔ SS	White board Hand-out/worksheet
18 min 09:47 – 10:05	<b>The Language Focus</b> - To help SS do peer correction - To facilitate learning by teacher correction/feedback - To help learners practice - To get learners' feedback on the lesson	Ask SS to stick the paragraphs on the whiteboard The SS read the paragraphs Ask SS to suggest correction/improvement in paragraph 1. Tell SS to focus on verb forms, nouns, signal words, spelling, capital letters, and the full stop. The groups will correct their paragraphs Give SS your feedback on their work especially to any language need that has arisen during the lesson or the peer correction stage. Ask SS to write the corrected paragraph on worksheet 3 (Appendix 2) Ask SS to save the new paragraph in their portfolios. Give SS survey questionnaire (Table 3) to complete Thank and praise the learners	T ↔ SS S ↔ S () T ↔ SS cards	Hand-out/worksheet White board

### APPENDIX 2

Worksheet 1

Name: \_\_\_\_\_ Group: \_\_\_\_\_

Discuss the topic "Difficult Things about Living in a Foreign Country" in your group and list five points on the space given below for this.

Point 1:

---

Point 2:

---

Point 3:

\_\_\_\_\_

Point 4:

\_\_\_\_\_

Point 5:

\_\_\_\_\_

**Worksheet 2**

Name: \_\_\_\_\_ Group: \_\_\_\_\_

Use the five points from worksheet 1 as supporting sentences to write a short paragraph on “Difficult Things about Living in a Foreign Country”. Begin your paragraph with the topic sentence. You can use the signal words in the box given below to organize your ideas.

**first, first of all, secondly, also, in addition, moreover, most importantly, finally**

Difficult Things about Living in a Foreign Country

\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

**Worksheet 3**

Name: \_\_\_\_\_ Group: \_\_\_\_\_

Rewrite the corrected paragraph on the space provided below and save the draft in your portfolio.

Difficult Things about Living in a Foreign Country

\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

Adapted from: Blanchard, K. & Root, C. (2010), *Ready to Write 2: Perfecting Paragraphs*, New York: Pearson-Longman.

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# Neuro-linguistic Programming, Teacher's Identity, and Teachers' Effectiveness

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**Abstract**—Education especially “teaching” is considered as a valuable profession through which future generations are generated and educated. In order to have a successful educational system, the main components of the system must work together. It is believed that teachers are active decision-makers of any educational system who can bring on success to the education, accounting for about 30 percent of the variance on pupils' achievement. Based on different studies, developing rapport, critical thinking, self-efficacy, establishing clear goals, effective interpersonal communication, and a supportive classroom climate are some of the main determinant factors the teachers' effectiveness. Among various variables which are related to teachers, identity is one of the important elements that affect teachers' performance. Neuro-linguistic programming, on the other hand, is considered as an approach which is claimed to help achieve excellence in performance and identity. It is also considered as a supplementary technique in teaching profession which helps the teachers to develop outstanding skills. In this article, the researcher defines the concept of teacher's identity as a key element effective in the teaching profession. Then some factors that have significant impact on teachers' effectiveness are taken into account. Also, the definition of neuro-linguistics programming, some of its characteristics, and its implications for developing teacher's identity and teacher's effectiveness are discussed.

**Index Terms**—neuro-linguistic programming, teacher's identity, teachers' effectiveness

## I. INTRODUCTION

In order to have a successful educational system, the main components of the educational system must work together. It is believed that teachers are active decision-makers of any educational system, and they have essential role in assigning classroom events (Hargreaves & Fullan, 1992). Consequently, teachers can bring on success and achievement to the education (Suwandee, 1995). Teachers are professional educators who have decisive roles and their primary responsibility is to educate, teach, train, guide, and evaluate the learners. Supriya Heyneman & Loxley carried out a study in 1983 in 29 countries regarding the determinant factors of students' achievement. The findings showed that among different factors, one third is related to the teachers. Another research which was done by Sudjana concluded that 76.6 percent of the learning achievements of the students are affected by the performance of the teachers. According to his findings, 32.43 percent was related to the teaching ability of the teachers, 32.38 percent was related to mastery of content, and 8.60 percent was considered as the rate related to the teacher's attitude towards the subjects. What is evident from different studies is that teachers' performance is one of the key elements of the educational success; consequently, identifying the factors that contribute to the teachers' effectiveness is very important. There are many variables that are influential in this regard, including developing teacher's identity; and improving crucial skills like critical thinking, self-efficacy, creativity, rapport, accountability, and leadership.

As McKoen and Harrison (2010) declare, identity is a “self” which is culturally and socially shaped through the communication with the experiences we are gained in our lives. Identity is not fixed; it is dynamic and continually under construction. Identity construction is a lifelong continuum which is shaped through social interactions (Berger & Luckmann, 1991). Teacher's identity is also the result of relationship between personal experiences of teaching, understanding of the self, and social and occupational circumstances (Kreber, 2010). Scholars increasingly focus on the belief that teacher's identity is an integral and fundamental element of the teaching profession (Rodgers & Scott, 2008).

As Hattie (2012) suggests, teachers have the highest influence on students' achievement; as a result, we need to ensure that this influence is optimized to have strong positive effects on our learners (Hattie, 2003). Researchers have always tried to make a list of the features of an effective teacher, and they have conducted many researches in this direction. As an example, Hay McBer (2000, as cited in Anderson, 2004) has refereed to some of the characteristics of an effective teacher. They are professionalism, critical thinking, expectations for improvement, and leadership. Burden and Byrd (2007, as cited in Hunt, Wiseman, and Touzel, 2009) have another classification in which knowledge, skills, and dispositions are considered as the key elements of teacher's effectiveness.

There are also different studies that have concentrated on the potential effects of neuro-linguistic programming (NLP) on different aspects of educational success. Based on John Grinder and Richard Bandler (1970s), as originators of neuro-linguistic programming, NLP is a theory of excellence identification, then modelling the identified patterns for others to gain the same results. As a matter of fact, NLP is based on the premise that excellence is teachable and everyone has the potential to learn it and achieve the similar results and become an outstanding performer. Pilgrims (2005), as an example, claims that NLP is an effective tool for developing rapport, setting clear educational goals, improving effectiveness and communication. Generally, NLP is a communication model, and it covers all aspects of communicating. That is the thoughts, feelings, beliefs, values and identity challenges that govern the learning process itself. NLP is all about language and learning, so it is highly applicable for a language teacher. As a whole, NLP has started with a strong concentration on personal and developmental growth; consequently it is applicable for variety of fields like education and it leads to desirable outcomes (Bandler and Grinder, 1975).

Based on the significance of teacher's identity and effectiveness, and the implications of neuro-linguistic programming in the field of education and their potential impacts on teachers' trend to become more successful, professional and effective, the present study discusses each concept separately, and then takes into account the implications of neuro-linguistic programming for teacher's identity and teacher's effectiveness.

## II. NEURO-LINGUISTIC PROGRAMMING

Neuro-Linguistic Programming (NLP) was developed by John Grinder and Richard Bandler in the early 1970s as a new method to language teaching. In that era, Grinder and Bandler studied the patterns and beliefs of people who had excellent behavior (Revell & Norman, 1997). These scholars believe that neurological processes (N), language (L) and behavioral patterns learned through experience (P) are interconnected, and it is possible to change them in order to reach specific goals in life. Generally speaking, NLP is based on some predispositions about the way our mind works and the way people act and interact. It portrays human being as a whole mind-body system and acts as an interpersonal communication system which studied and combines three crucial areas: Neuro, Linguistics and Programming. 'Neuro' reflects the neurological processes (or how the body and mind interact). In other words, it relates to the way you use senses to understand things and happenings around. Second element which is 'Linguistics' stands for thought patterns and the language which is used in interpersonal communication. In other words, it refers to the way you use language and how it influences you and those around. The last part, 'Programming', shows the way we train the mind by analyzing the patterns of human behavior and language use to improve attention and reach specific objectives. If we put it in another way, it reflects the way you organize ideas and actions which produce expected and unexpected results. Neuro-linguistic programming studies brilliance and quality. In other words, it studies the way outstanding people and organizations reach to their ideal outcomes. As Siddiqui (2018) points out, adopting the techniques of NLP helps the instructors to analyze the kind of language that used by the learners and be aware of the thought process of them. In this way, instructors can change thoughts and actions of their learners and achieve the desirable outcomes.

NLP, as its originators suggest, is 'the psychology of excellence' and it is based on the premise that excellence is teachable to everybody. Originators of this theory, Richard Bandler and John Grinder, assert that NLP is an art and science of excellence. They started to work on the question that what makes some people to do the affairs in the excellent way, whereas, others do not. Their aim was to find out what makes 'outstanding performers' outstanding. When people learn it, they become an outstanding performer, no matter what his past was and what his trade now is (Lady, 2007). Joanne Walter and Ardeshir Bayat call it "a process that can be applied to model excellence in any field" (Walter, Bayat, 2003). It could be a doctor speaking with her patients, a teacher interacting with her students, a judge having communication with lawyers, a policeman working on a file and talking with a suspect, an army officer commanding his soldiers, a business executive, a coach trying to guide the players, and so many other examples. NLP is a tool that can help all of them to reach their desired goals by creating an effective communication. The list is very long and encompasses everybody who tries to engage the phenomenon of communication. As a matter of fact, discovering the mystery of excellence was the main driver of the NLP pioneers to conduct related studies. The proponents of NLP do believe that excellence is not a natural talent. Instead, they assume natural talent "a label than an explanation" (Walter and Bayat, 2003). They claim that excellence is not something rare and anybody can be loaded with this important property. To this end, what is required is that we become free from any limitations that we pose to ourselves and consider more choices.

NLP is also regarded as a supplementary tool in the field of second language instruction which helps learners to achieve excellence in their performances. It is developed from the combination of "neuro", "linguistic" and "programming" which refers to the connection of nerve network of body, their connection and reflection in language use, and finally the way this connection affects behavior. When we understand the process of HOW, we do something and we can REPEAT the same process to achieve the same result or we can CHANGE the process (or even just change a part of the process) to achieve a different result. While changing the process is known as behavioral change, repeating the process of how someone does something is known as modeling. The idea of modeling is applied for achieving the same result and become successful in life (If one can achieve a goal, so all others can use the same strategy and achieve the same). This rule is applicable even to educational fields.

NLP can also be considered with strategic perspectives. In the UK, there are some courses that are conducted for ESL teachers (teachers who teach English as a second language) who want to use NLP in their profession. Topics of this course encompass effective communication, rapport building, recognizing different learning styles and working with them, information gathering, improving effectiveness, and setting goals (Pilgrims, 2005) cited by Winch (2005). It is believed that NLP encourages language teachers to deliver the teaching programs more effectively and even apply more teaching styles in their professions (Tompkins and Baker, 2005) cited by Winch (2005). Revell and Norman (1997) point to 13 presuppositions that are helpful for the application of NLP in the field of language teaching and learning and other fields. The whole idea is that these principles should be a part of the teachers' belief system and shape the way instruction is done, no matter which teaching method is used by the teacher:

1. Mind and body are interconnected: Both of them are components of the same system, and each of them affects the other one.
2. The map is not the territory: All of us have special maps of the world which are different from each other.
3. There is no failure, only feedback: Failure is nonsense, and there is always a second chance to be successful.
4. The map becomes the territory: When you believe in something to be true, it is either true or becomes true.
5. When you know what exactly you want, it helps you get it.
6. The resources which are required to achieve our goals are all within us.
7. Communication is verbal and also nonverbal.
8. The nonconscious mind is kind.
9. Communication is conscious and also nonconscious.
10. There is a positive intention behind each behavior.
11. The response I get is the meaning of my communication.
12. To reach excellence, the excellent behavior should be modelled.
13. In any system, the element which has the highest flexibility will be more influential and has the greatest influence on the whole system.

Neuro-linguistic programming has four pillars which are very effective for improving the behavior and communication skill of the learner. As a matter of fact, NLP was initially developed by Bandler and Grinder in order to improve the communication skill. There are some strategies and techniques in this regard which empowers teachers and students to have more effective goal-oriented communications. As Siddiqui (2018) asserts, neuro-linguistic programming is based on neurology and communication. It is also based on the premise that each learner has a specific perceptual preferences and styles of learning. Accordingly, teachers can apply NLP strategies to develop these preferences and styles to provide optimum learning solutions. Additionally, there are some key concepts in NLP, including rapport building, modelling, mirroring, and anchoring. Anchoring in neuro-linguistic programming means using "triggers" or "anchors" in order to provide the learners with a positive mental image. When positive images are created, learners become motivated and gain positive attitude towards learning. Consequently, mental images help the learners to gain positive emotions by some body movements and gestures or specific expressions. These anchors enable the learners to become confident in the learning process. As Siddiqui (2018) asserts, mirroring is the other key concept which is taken into account in neuro-linguistic programming. Mirroring is a technique used in NLP to improve communication. NLP mirrors the learners' gestures, expressions, patterns of breathing, weight fluctuations, and alike to create rapport. It is believed that these patterns should be used in the classroom setting to improve verbal and non-verbal communication. Modelling and mirroring the patterns of the individuals who have a desirable academic performance will help the other learners to have the similar performance in the exams and achieve the similar results.

### III. PILLARS OF NEURO-LINGUISTIC PROGRAMMING

NLP has got four pillars (O'Connor and McDermott 1996; Revell and Norman 1997). These four key principles are:

1. Rapport: The Oxford dictionary defines rapport as "a close and harmonious relationship in which the people or groups concerned understand each other's feelings or ideas and communicate well." As Delbio and Ilankumaran (2018) point out, the key pillars of neuro-linguistic programming are creating effective communication and relationship with others and it is believed that rapport is essential for effective communication, as it maximizes the similarities and minimizes the differences between individuals. Rapport is an unconscious empathy which is shaped between individuals. As asserted by Silva (2017), rapport or empathy is created by the strategies of neuro-linguistic programming in order to make a closer relationship between teacher and student, and therefore, in order to provide a more supportive and productive learning environment which leads to higher productivity and success. As a matter of fact, we are not alone and we live in societies in which there are also other people, therefore, we must gain the ability to generate rapport and create effective communication. In other words, shaping such skill is a 'must'. Rapport means having communication and relationship with the quality of mutual trust and responsiveness. The first pillar of neuro-linguistic programming is rapport which should be built within an individual and then with others. If we put it in another way, as a principle, it is asserted as "establish rapport with yourself and then with others."
2. Outcome thinking: This pillar relates to the goals and ends. It means that we should set our goals and know what we want. It is believed that the key to success is precision. The more precise you know what you want and the reason you want it, the more likely you will reach exactly to what you desired. In another words, based on NLP, knowing precisely

what you want helps you achieve it. If we put it in another way as a principle, it can be asserted as “know what you want.” There are five steps in this regards:

- Appreciate your goal, consider it as an attractive one, and make it as compelling as possible.
- Concentrate on your goal all day long, and set your brain on a path which ends to your objective. In this way, you will get through it much easier.
- Imagine that you have already achieved your goal. You should visualize the image completely, and after that you should walk back and try out the pathway which ends to your goal.
- Notice all the steps throughout this pathway. You should pay attention to all steps on the pathway towards the goal, such as all the resources, actions, and all the people that step-by-step help you to get to the goal.
- Step back to the present with a new perspective on the steps and take action to reach the goal.

Generally speaking, NLP is an outcome orientated discipline. That means whatever we do we must have a clear objective or goal. In order to achieve a successful outcome one must first define the outcome and be clear on what it is. Outcome orientation is also about setting direction. A positive direction rather than a negative one. NLP acknowledges that negatively stated outcomes are ill-formed and more likely to get you more of the thing you don't want. For example, it is harder to give up smoking when your intention is to “Not smoke cigarettes.” This outcome focuses you on smoking cigarettes so the chances are you will smoke more. It is a much better outcome to aim for good health, or to save more money and to give up cigarettes.

3. Sensory awareness: It refers to using senses in order to experience the world. In other words, it means that we use our senses to look, listen to, and feel what is happening to us. Based on NLP, when we use our senses we get the required feedback to adjust our attempts towards reaching objectives. In this case, we should notice others' communications consciously and nonverbally.

Sensory acuity or awareness means using your senses and being aware of what is going on both in yourself and the environment around you. It is a key to success to be aware of what is working and what is not. People often used to do things without paying attention to what works and what does not. When people make efforts to reach their goals, they must also develop a level of awareness that enables them to distinguish between what is working (which helps them to reach the desired outcome) and what is not.

4. Behavioral flexibility: It means to be adoptable in the entire situation. It means that we must should have various choices of action. The more choices we have, the more chances of success. If we don't change the way things are done, we won't get to different outcomes and what we get will be the same as before. According to this pillar of NLP, we must change the way we do things until we get what we want. If we put it in another way, we should say that when something we do is not working, then we must change our behavior to get a different result. Therefore, we must have different skills to act in a different way when it is necessary. This can be asserted in another way, as “keep changing what you do until you get what you want.” There is a rule in the science of Cybernetics that says that “in any system, the part with the greatest range of freedom will be the one controlling the system.” Consequently, when we see that current behavior doesn't work well, we should have the required flexibility and various skills to act in another way and change the result. As a matter of fact, neuro-linguistic programming encourages people to be flexible or adoptable in different situations. It also focuses that people should be flexible and accept the changes in their lives.

As NLP is a communication model, it covers all aspects of communicating. That is the thoughts, feelings, beliefs, values and identity challenges that govern the learning process itself. NLP is all about language and learning, so it is highly applicable for a language teacher. One of the important aspects related to the teachers and their effectiveness is teacher's identity which will be discussed in the next section.

#### IV. TEACHER'S IDENTITY

Identity has always been a critical concept in the social and cultural fields. Danielewicz (2001) describes identity as a way we understand that who we are and who other people are. Accordingly, it is also the way other people visualize themselves and others (including us). Identity is changeable and it is not a fixed concept; it is changeable and successively under construction. Danielewicz (2001) puts it in this way that “Every person is composed of multiple, often conflicting, identities, which exist in volatile states of construction or reconstruction, reformation or erosion, addition or expansion” (p. 10).

The present article has taken into account the type of identity which is related to the teachers in the educational context. Scholars claim that one of the key elements in the teaching profession is teacher's identity (Rodgers & Scott, 2008). Identity construction is a continuous process which encompasses interpretation and reinterpretation of teacher's self-perception; it includes the person's understanding about who she or he is and will become (Beijaard et al., 2004). Danielewicz (2001) writes, “I regard ‘becoming a teacher’ as an identity forming process whereby individuals define themselves and are viewed by others as teachers” (p. 4). Varghese et al. (2005), especially in the field of language teaching, assert that “In order to understand language teaching and learning we need to understand teachers: the professional, cultural, political and individual identities which they claim or which are assigned to them” (p. 22). Actually, processes of identity formation are related to the discourses and the communities that we live and work within.

To gain knowledge about how to become an effective teacher needs passing through a long and complex way. Different theoretical approaches to teacher's identity do exist; some concentrate on its social and cultural nature, while

others concentrate on its discursive and narrative nature. However, many of these day's approaches assert that identity is socially embedded phenomenon, and this concept is ever-changing and dynamic (Rodgers & Scott, 2008). Teacher's identity is not constructed in a vacuum, and it is developed in a social and cultural context (Holland & Lachicotte, 2007; Penuel & Wertsch, 1995). As different studies point out, one of the influential strategies for teacher's identity development is neuro-linguistic programming. Whereas effective communication is one of the key components of NLP, establishing a positive relationship is fundamental for teacher's identity development. As it was mentioned in the previous section, rapport is one of the main pillars of NLP. Consequently, it can be used as a tool for teachers. If education is essential to a high-quality future, the key is in the hands of the teachers. Providing learners with excellent skills needs effective teachers, and employing the tools of neuro-linguistic programming may help teachers to be effective in the teaching profession and become successful.

#### V. NEURO-LINGUISTIC PROGRAMMING AND TEACHER'S IDENTITY

In recent years, different researches has been allocated to investigating the teachers and their growth, professional identity, teachers' notions and perspectives, teachers' narratives, and biographies (Rodgers & Scott, 2008). Research findings show that teacher's identity is highly connected with various concepts including self-confidence, inspiration, flexibility, self-efficacy, and commitment (Danielewicz, 2001). Different studies have concentrated on the importance of teachers' identity and its effect on the teachers' professional development (Eick & Reed, 2002) and many researches have concluded that NLP is regarded is an effective tool for personal and educational development (e.g. Tosey, 2010 and Tarnopolsky, 2016).

Since teachers educate and generate the future generations, teaching is highly regarded as a valuable profession. In order to have a successful educational system, the main components of the educational system must work together. It is believed that teachers are active decision-makers of any educational system, and they have essential role in assigning classroom events (Hargreaves & Fullan, 1992), and can bring on success and achievement to the education (Suwandee, 1995). Generally, identity has been defined as a "self" which is shaped in society and in relation to the culture, through life's experiences and the communications about these experiences (McKeon and Harrison 2010). Identity is a lifelong learning process which is developed via social relations and processes (Berger and Luckmann 1991). Correspondingly, identity is shaped through the interplay between personal theories of teaching, notions about self and social and occupational contexts (Kreber 2010). So, one of the important factors is communication and as it was suggested it is one of the influential factors that affect identity. As Tarnopolsky (2016) also claims, communication is one of the most crucial elements for teachers and teaching profession as a whole, especially the communication between teachers and learners. Mutual communication between teacher and students in the classroom and also between each individual student may be considered as an important factor. Consequently, to create a good relationship, there should be a harmony between the teacher's manner of teaching and student's needs, wants, and wishes (either conscious or subconscious). To create such harmonization, nothing is helpful but establishing the optimum rapport between the teacher and every individual student in the classroom. Accordingly, there should be some algorithms, and some patterns of behavior and reaction for the teachers to facilitate rapport building. As Tarnopolsky (2016) claims, NLP provides these algorithms and patterns and can be beneficial in this regard. As it is shown by different findings, NLP is one of the most useful instruments that can be used for establishing rapport in classroom relationships and interactions, especially those in the EFL/ESL classroom. Teachers should advise students about notions, ideas, and ways of doing things and also the necessity and importance of doing them. In this way, the teacher has the opportunity to lead students in the required direction. But, one important point is that although teachers should advise students and instill the ideas and notions, these ideas should not be imposed or forced to them. This point is one of the main aspects of rapport building in NLP. In this manner, the feeling of manipulation is not created by the students and the feeling of being facilitated begins to shape. This feeling is the result of either acceptance of what is suggested by the teacher or is because students have become convinced that the proposed course of action is the best for them.

As Tolsey (2010) asserts, one of the issues which is concentrated in NLP courses is the potential for self-determination. Bandler and Grinder (1975), as the originators of NLP, emphasize that self-determination is quite possible by overcoming learnt self-limitation and finally leads to personal development. There is another important element that should be taken into account. It is teacher's self-control, which means that teacher is capable of controlling his or her feelings, moods, attitudes and their manifestations in behavior. The teacher is a human being who like any other person has his own problems, undesirable moments, anger, fatigue or frustration, and such unwanted feelings. Experienced teachers are capable of controlling these sensations in a way that their feelings don't affect others and don't influence the teaching quality. They also try to control themselves to save the rapport which is built between themselves and the students. But, the situation may be problematic for young teachers who don't have the sufficient experience for controlling their feelings. These beginners need more time to deal with NLP strategies to overcome the problem. They need sympathy and also empathy with learners; they should know more about the roots of their negative feelings (like anxiety, unconscious reactions, stress, and so on) to get prepared for the remedy. NLP and Suggestology, as Tarnopolsky (2016) points out, can help the teachers through the way, but it is not simple and instructors should gain a good working knowledge of this approach. Generally, as Tarnopolsky (2016) concluded, learning NLP and

Suggestology enables teachers to create a good relationship with the learners which leads to an improvement to teachers' identity and satisfaction.

Based on Lankveld, et al. (2016) point of view, four contextual factors inhibit or facilitate teacher's identity development. They are direct work environment, the wider context of higher education, relationship and interaction with students, and finally, staff development activities. Based on their researches, the first contextual factor can act as a facilitator or inhibitor, while the second one has a constraining effect. Regarding the last two contextual factors they concluded that they are facilitator and help the teachers in the process of identity development. As a matter of fact, when the working environment is supportive, teachers get a better feeling and do their responsibilities in a more productive way. Again, NLP paves the way to this end.

Another influential element which affects the identity is critical thinking (Nosratinia & Zaker, 2017; Yuksel, & Alci, 2012). Kurfiss (1988) describes critical thinking as "the ability to make sound judgments in complex, real-world situations, based on available evidence and a clearly worked out value system" (p. 6). Paul (1990) also clarifies critical thinking as a "disciplined, self-directed thinking that demonstrates the perfections of thinking which is appropriate to a specific domain or mode of thought" (p. 9).

Promoting higher-order thinking skills including critical thinking is a must for both teachers and learners (Oxford, 2001). It is obvious that teachers should first gain this essential skill to be able to help students to become critical thinker. Critical thinking demands teachers to engage in rational and logical thinking which is essential for the success in their profession (Korthagen, 1993). Ku (2009) also asserts that "besides the ability to engage in cognitive skills, a critical thinker must also have a strong intention to recognize the importance of good thinking and have the initiative to seek better judgment" (p. 71). As suggested by Sheybani and Miri (2019), critical thinking skills are not inherent, instead they are essential skills that are developed and improved by practice over time. One of the strategies that may help teachers to improve this ability is using NLP and practicing it continuously (Hosseinzadeh & Baradaran, 2015). As an example, in a study done by Sheybani and Miri (2019), researchers used a questionnaire containing 38 items to examine the effectiveness of NLP for developing critical thinking skill of the teachers and they concluded that the program is useful for this end.

Self-efficacy is another characteristic that affects identity. Self-efficacy was first suggested by Bandura (1995), which refers to "beliefs in one's capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to manage prospective situations" (p. 2). Teacher efficacy, on the other hand, is defined as "The teacher's belief in his or her capability to organize and execute courses of action required to successfully accomplishing a specific teaching task in a particular context" (Tschannen-Moran, Woolfolk Hoy, & Hoy, 1998, p. 22). Teacher efficacy is regarded as the effect of belief that the instructors have pertaining to their competence to educate students professionally and fruitfully (Bandura, 1997). This competence refers to the extent to which instructors believe that they are capable of rearranging and influencing the situation and students behavior and changing the outcomes (Gibson & Dembo, 1984). Bandura (1997) believes that this capability help teachers to improve their identity and as a result increase the quality of teaching profession. Again different researches like the one which is done by Sheybani and Miri (2019) shows that NLP can be an effective program to promote self-efficacy. They also concluded that higher use of critical thinking skills leads to higher levels of self-efficacy, so these two characteristics are interrelated. It can be believed that the knowledge and awareness of NLP is necessary for improving sense of efficacy. It means that teachers should enhance their knowledge of NLP to gain the higher levels of self-efficacy (Sheybani & Miri, 2019). Consequently, teachers must be aware of the positive effects of neuro-linguistic programming and do their best to improve it in order to become successful teachers.

## VI. TEACHER'S EFFECTIVENESS

One of the crucial activities of human being is education. As it is suggested by Anderson (2004), in order to have a professional growth and economic progress it is necessary to invest in education. Accordingly, it should be taken into account that the key to educational success is in the hands its facilitators, the teachers, as they are the most important players of the field (Rao & Kumar, 2004) and they are the ones responsible for providing the requires basis of success (David & Macayan, 2010, p. 74). Teachers influence the whole educational process and even affect students' lives. As suggested by Hunt (2009), up to 30 percent of the variance in the test scores may be attributed to teachers. Tan de-Ramos (2011) relates this impact to the idea that teaching is a special skill that needs expertise in the related academic field and also it requires a suitable environment for optimal learning. So it is necessary for the teachers to do the best in their profession and to be always effective.

At first, it would be better to clarify what it means to be an effective teacher. According to Hunt (2009), it includes features, behaviors, and abilities that make teachers competent in providing the required situation for students' desired outcomes. Effectiveness of the teachers is very important, as effective teachers help the students to reach to their goals, and gain important skills such as critical thinking, problem solving, collaboration, and finally becoming effective citizens. Effective teachers also affect the lives of their students even outside the school walls. They train students who love always learning and belief in themselves all the time (TEMM, 2012). Calaguas (2012) also points to some features which are related to effective teachers. They are personality (e.g. being kind, active, reflective, and enthusiastic), subject matter expertise (e.g. being knowledgeable of subject matter and delivering well-prepared lesson), relational competence with student (for instance, having the ability to establish rapport with students and believing in them),

professional competence (e.g. being dedicated to work and having a sense of integrity), teaching style (for example, explaining complicated material in an understandable way, being student-centered, and encouraging discussion), and classroom management (maintaining discipline, creating positive environment, and so on).

As being an effective teacher is very important and influential in educational success, there have been numerous researches that have tried to prepare a list of the characteristics for effective teacher. Hay McBer (2000), points to professionalism, reasoning, expectation for improvement, and leadership as the four important clusters of effective teachers' classification. On the other hand, Burden and Byrd (2007) suggest another classification which encompasses knowledge, skills and dispositions. In this classification, knowledge includes the professional and pedagogical ones, while skills refer to the abilities to use the knowledge in an efficient way. Dispositions also include beliefs, attitudes, values, and commitment.

Self-efficacy, critical thinking, rapport, creating supportive climate, are also determinant factors of teacher's effectiveness which can be developed by the help of neuro-linguistic programming techniques.

## VII. NEURO-LINGUISTIC PROGRAMMING AND TEACHER'S EFFECTIVENESS

As it was discussed, education is one of the noble human activities, and preparation of superior human resources is necessary for starting a good education process. Teachers are the most influential resource in achieving the educational goals so it is necessary to have effective teachers to help students reach their desired outcomes. There are many factors that enable teachers to do their best and NLP is believed to be a very useful tool in this regard. Neuro-linguistic programming provides strategies and solution to the problems related to teaching and learning. It also motivates and engages students and enables teachers to develop the required characteristics necessary for effective teaching (Gewasari, Manullang, and Sibuea, 2017).

As mentioned, Self-efficacy is one of the constructs related to teachers' beliefs which affect their accomplishments (Ashton, 1984; Tavares et al., 2003, as cited in Castelo-Branco, 2006). Self-efficacy is a fundamental human conduct which is considered as a determining behavior. It is believed that when a person believes in achieving the desired result, it is more probable that the related behavior be repeated again (Canrinus, Lorenz, Beijgaard, Buitink, & Hofman, 2011). It is also claimed that when someone believes in himself or herself and develops self-perceptions of capabilities, s/he will create the required path to reach the desired outcomes.

Teachers' sense of self-efficacy comprises of two components (Ashton, 1984). One component is cognitive which has two aspects: First, the likelihood that teachers can make constructive changes in students, and second, teachers' self-assessments regarding their abilities to make these changes (Denham & Michael, 1981, as cited in Castelo-Branco, 2006). The other component which is affective is related to the sense of shame or pride which is aligned with the sense of efficacy (Denham & Michael, 1981, as cited in Castelo-Branco, 2006). Various findings show that teachers with high self-efficacy have students who do better on standardized achievement tests than their peers who have instructors with low self-efficacy beliefs (Moore & Esselman, 1992; Anderson et al., 1988; Watson, 1991; Bamburg, 1994, as cited in Muijs & Reynolds, 2011). Consequently, one of the influential factors in teachers' effectiveness is teachers' sense of self-efficacy which is concentrated in neuro-linguistic programming (Muijs & Reynolds, 2011). Shahmoradi, Nosratinia, and Shangarffam (2018) have done a research to determine whether there is a relationship between NLP and teachers' sense of self-efficacy by applying the English version of Teachers' Sense of Self-Efficacy Scale (TSSES) and they have concluded that there is a strong and positive correlation between NLP and self-efficacy of the teachers.

Another important factor related to teacher's effectiveness is classroom climate. Teachers' effectiveness is dependent upon students' achievements, so they should create a supporting climate in the classroom which promotes learners' success (Hunt et al., 2009). In this regard, one of the issues that has been concentrated by Alton-Lee (1993, pp. 82-83, as cited in Anderson, 2004) is culture. It is argued that teacher must attend to the classroom culture to make important questions regarding both the learning and the well-being in classrooms visible. Muijs and Reynolds (2011) point to various studies and meta-analysis which have concluded that classroom climate is an important element in students' achievement (Mortimore et al., 1988; Brophy & Good, 1986; Rosenshine, 1979), self-confidence (Fraser, 1994), high level of participation (Cotton, 1997), and low level of victimization (Shechtman, 2002). Byer (2000) claims that there is a positive relationship between learners' perceptions of classroom climate and their learning achievements (Fisher & Fraser, 1983; Martin-Reynolds & Reynolds, 1983; Moos, 1979; Trickett & Moss, 1974);, social attitude (Fouts, 1987; Fouts, Chan, & Biao, 1993), motivation (Knight & Waxman, 1990; Zevin, 1983), and self-confidence (Schmuck & Schmuck, 1992).

In general, developing a safe and supporting classroom environment helps students to promote confidence and get ready for any practice towards educational success. Consequently, teachers should concentrate on this important factor to have an effective teaching process (Comenius, 2009). Again, it is one of the main concerns of neuro-linguistic programming and teachers can apply its strategies to reach to this end.

Feedback is another determinant factor of teacher's effectiveness as it affects the students' achievement. Hattie (2009) has done a meta-analysis to see the most important and influential factors of students' achievement and have concluded that one of the most essential factors is feedback. Hattie's meta-analysis of 13,209 studies have reached to the conclusion the effect size of 0.81 is the product of feedback from teachers and/or students. Marzano has done another meta-analysis of 488 studies to determine the effect size related to the students who have received feedback on the

processes of accomplishing a specific task and the result has been 0.74 (Petty, 2009). Consequently, feedback is crucial for learning and achievement, but it should be considered that its influence can be either positive or negative; it means that the type of feedback which is chosen by the teacher and the way of its delivery is also important and determines its effectiveness (Hattie & Timperley, 2007). In fact, research shows considerable variability on feedback effect-sizes, which indicates that some types are more powerful than others (Hattie, 2009). For example, it is believed that providing cues or reinforcement is more powerful than punishment or extrinsic rewards (Hattie, 2009).

As it is asserted by Shahmoradi, Nosratinia, and Shangarffam (2018), another important factor is critical thinking which can be considered as an educational priority and should be developed by teachers and students in order to be effective in the educational process. Teachers can use the techniques of neuro-linguistic programming continuously in the formal and informal teaching situations to develop and improve this reflective skill in order to be effective in their profession. In a study which is done by Shahmoradi, Nosratinia, and Shangarffam (2018), the relationship between NLP and teachers' critical thinking is examined by the English version of Honey's Critical Thinking Questionnaire (2000), and the result shows that there is a significant relationship between NLP and critical thinking of the teachers which is an influential factor in their effectiveness.

Delbio and Ilankumaran (2018) also point to some techniques of NLP that can be used by teachers for teaching language more effectively. These techniques include anchoring, visualization, modelling rapport, and state management. It is believed that the mentioned techniques have significant effect on the effectiveness of the language teachers, so teachers should practice NLP techniques continuously to achieve the desired outcomes. The other method which is used in NLP is dictation that improves spelling of the students, so teachers can apply this method to train learners more effectively. In this manner, teacher reads a sentence and learner writes it down. If there is any mistake, teacher corrects it and asks the student to rewrite the passage in the correct form. When teachers try to teach short stories, they play a movie instead of the old fashions to improve the visual sense of the learners. Again, for pronunciation and intonation, there are new techniques in NLP. Teacher plays some speeches again and again to improve learners' skills (Delbio and Ilankumaran, 2018).

Reflective teaching is another fundamental concept which improves the effectiveness of the teachers. It is one of the features which were concentrated by the pioneers of modern education including John Dewey, and it refers to the process of mirroring the environment without any judgment or in a critical manner, in order to make decision (Millroad, 2004). Schon (1996) defines reflection as the way in which people handle the problems during practice. In a study done by Marashi and Abedi (2017), the effect of NLP on reflective teaching is evaluated by a questionnaire developed by Akbari, Behzadpour, and Dadvand (2010). Research findings show that the NLP techniques used in the study have had significant impact on the reflective level of the participating teachers. Consequently, again teachers can apply neuro-linguistic programming strategies to improve their effectiveness.

Based on various researches, there are many other areas that can be improved by NLP and increase the effectiveness of the teachers. NLP gives teachers and pupils a tool to change unproductive learning habits and consequently improve learning and reach success. Teachers can apply NLP strategies to teach different skills (e.g. spelling and speaking), promote noble competencies (e.g. critical thinking, self-esteem and self-efficacy), or remove barriers (e.g. anxiety and stress) more effectively, or develop and improve higher order abilities of themselves and consequently affect educational outcomes.

## VIII. CONCLUSION

Neuro-linguistic programming is a tool which has potential for almost all professions of life, especially where the priority is communication. NLP is a humanistic training philosophy which provides different strategies and techniques used to achieve excellence in identity, beliefs, skills, competencies, etc. As it is asserted by different researchers, NLP can be practical and useful for teachers in terms of improving identity and teaching effectiveness. Consequently, teachers should improve their knowledge of the NLP and practice different programs that do exist to become competent in this regard. Vieira and Gaspar (2013), for instance, have planned an NPL teachers' successive education course, including 25 hours presential learning course and 25 hours of autonomous work. The course involves knowledge, intrapersonal skills, and interpersonal skills, with different activities such as rapid relaxation techniques, excellence circle, Milton model, Mind map, modalities, and neurological levels alignment. Neuro-linguistic programming techniques and strategies would certainly help contemporary teacher to improve their professional identity and become more effective and achieve desirable educational outcomes in a smart and professional manner.

NLP still has some issues that should be resolved by more studies on the field. As Tosey (2010) points out, being eclectic and lack of theoretical coherence, unclear evidence base, lack of evaluation of its practices, ethical issues, and the need for more empirical research to further understanding of NLP techniques, are some of the issues that need further studies in the field.

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# Motivational Effects of the Case Method on Chinese ESP Learners

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**Abstract**—The purpose of the present research is to investigate the motivational effects of the case method on Chinese ESP (English for Specific Purposes) learners. A questionnaire consisting of 23 items was designed and a factor analysis was conducted. Results show that the case method involves four motivational dimensions: extrinsic motivation, intrinsic motivation, competition, and self-efficacy. Our findings include: 1) The case method motivates the Chinese ESP learners both intrinsically and extrinsically; 2) The competition factor was found to have a substantial impact on Chinese ESP learners' motivation; and 3) The case method is likely to maximize the Chinese ESP learners' self-efficacy.

**Index Terms**—English for Specific Purposes, case method, competition, self-efficacy, L2 motivation

## I. INTRODUCTION

According to the latest *Guidelines on College English Teaching* released by China's Ministry of Education, "the instrumentality of college English is mainly represented / manifested by ESP (*English for Specific Purposes*)" (Wang 2016). In China, ESP learners are usually non-English majors in universities specializing in such disciplines as technology, engineering, business, management, law, etc. or students and adult learners at a tertiary level institution educating skilled workers. Integrating ESP programs into college English curriculum is to help "meet the national strategic goals of cultivating talents with global vision and leaders well versed in international affairs and regimes" (Ji 2017). To assess the academic achievement of a specific discipline and the success of a higher education institute in terms of 'internationalization' which is being strongly promoted by China, both the Department of Social Sciences at the Ministry of Education and the Office of Academic Affairs at the State Council will put a stress on the number of research papers and articles published in journals indexed by SSCI and A&HCI (Chen 2014). As a result, an increasing number of Chinese universities start to encourage publications in influential international journals by rewarding the authors with a cash prize, which in turn intensifies the nationwide efforts in higher educational institutions to extend the education of ESP and its sub-categories such as EAP and even ERP (English for Research Publication Purposes).

The embrace of ESP programs is also substantiated by the prevailing worry of 'commencement is unemployment'. To ensure that they gain an advantage in China's intensely competitive job market after graduation, the undergraduates are crazy about getting certificates of English levels as their English proficiency, usually perceived as 'a stepping-stone to success', will increase the chances of getting a job interview while meeting other requirements. A popular coinage is the 'Certificate Motivation' (Hua 1998) which refers to the motives shown by the undergraduates in China to obtain a nationally recognized certificate of English proficiency such as CET4 (College English Test Band 4) or CET6 as a must to graduate, or globally recognized BEC (Business English Certificate) or TOEIC (Test of English for International Communication) to secure a well-paid position in a multinational business company. A recent widely circulated advertising slogan online is 'The level of your income is set by the level of your English', which is frequently used by many private commercial English language education providers in China to attract adult learners in the workforce.

As a result of the booming ESP programs, an increasing number of Chinese universities are introducing case studies into the ESP classrooms. The case method was initiated at the Harvard Business School at the beginning of the 20<sup>th</sup> century, where it was considered as a problem-based instruction drawing on real-life situations (Merseth 1991). According to Kurz et al. (2005), the case method is a teaching approach to bridging the gap between theory and practice by motivating the learners to apply theoretical concepts to real-world situations. A number of studies reveal that problem-based learning environments augment learners' intrinsic interest in the subject matter (Norman & Schmidt 1992), promote the awareness of taking responsibility for their own learning (Spencer & Jordan 1999), and enhance students' intrinsic motivation by involving them in authentic assignments (Hmelo-Silver 2004). Shulman (1992) suggests that the effectiveness of the case method instruction is attributed to such potent elements as "narrative nature, situated learning, and cognitive flexibility" (Kurz et al. 2005:67). Although the benefits of the case method are extensively recognized, there has been an underrepresentation of its beneficial aspects for ESP learning in L2 settings.

The present research is an attempt to shed light on the motivational effects of the case method on China's ESP learners. The following research questions will be addressed:

- 1) How can the case method motivate the Chinese ESP learners both extrinsically and intrinsically?
- 2) What role can competition play in motivating Chinese ESP learners?
- 3) How can the case method promote Chinese ESP learners' self-efficacy?

## II. MOTIVATION IN SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

Dörnyei (2005:65) claims that “motivation provides the primary impetus to initiate L2 learning and later the driving force to sustain the long and often tedious learning process; indeed, all the other factors involved in SLA presuppose motivation to some extent”. L2 motivation is such a complex and multi-faceted concept that there has been a variety of theoretical approaches trying to highlight different aspects of this complexity. With the socio-educational model first proposed by Gardner (1959, 1983), the alternative theoretical frameworks range from Self-Determination Theory or SDT (Deci & Ryan 1985) to L2 Motivational Self-System (Dörnyei 2005) and the latest Process Motivation Model (Bower 2014). The present study attempts to examine the motivational effects of the case method on Chinese ESP learners, drawing on SDT as a macro perspective and on Components of Foreign Language Learning Motivation (Dörnyei 1998) as a micro perspective.

### A. The Macro Perspective: Self-determination Theory

SDT is basically a social psychology theory of human motivation. The principal assumption is that if the three basic psychological needs for competence, autonomy, and relatedness are satisfied, individuals will be likely to express their inherent propensity to learn, to do, and to grow (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Competence refers to the innateness to stretch one’s skills and schemata further and the propensities to pursue challenges that are just beyond one’s current level of functioning and through such activity to both make developmental gains and derive a sense of confidence and self-esteem (Harter, 1982). Autonomy involves doing things out of one’s personal interest or desire and making decisions on one’s own to engage in a specific learning activity. In autonomous action, one experiences the self to be an agent, the ‘locus of causality’ of one’s behavior (Ryan & Connell, 1989). It represents the freedom of choice and is the ‘self-rule’ which regulates one’s own behavior and experience and governs the initiation and direction of action. As suggested by Ushioda (1996:2), “autonomous language learners are by definition motivated learners”. Relatedness refers to the social dimension of living organisms which specifically concerns the universal urge or desire for interaction, contact, support, and community with others, involving the ‘emotional and personal bonds between individuals’. According to Ryan & Deci (2000), the three innate psychological needs foster and facilitate intrinsic motivation when satisfied, and undermine motivation and well-being when thwarted.

SDT classifies motivation into two general types: *intrinsic motivation* (IM) and *extrinsic motivation* (EM). These seem to be more effective and sensible than Gardner’s dichotomy of instrumental and integrative orientations as some researchers challenge the validity of integrative motive (Lukmani 1972, Noels et al. 2003). As pointed out by Lamb (2004, 2013), in the age of globalization, the need to use English to communicate on the global scene has overridden the need to be attracted to the culture or community of English speakers for many users.

According to SDT, IM is based on the innate needs for competence and autonomy. A tripartite taxonomy of IM proposed by Vallerand et al. (1989) involves IM-Knowledge, IM-Accomplishment, and IM-Stimulation. IM is established or operative if one’s engagement in an activity is to experience sensory pleasure, fun, excitement, satisfaction, or aesthetic appreciation. The common basis of the subtypes of IM is the pleasant experiences or interest arising from the self-initiated and challenging events (Noels et al. 2003). Good examples are those students who attend the ESP programs to experience the excitement of studying English business cases.

Noels et al. (2003) suggest that much overlap between instrumentally oriented motivation and externally regulated motivation lies in that both concepts imply the behaviors and actions arising from outside the individual and the pursuit of an activity is driven by external rewards and social milieu. As defined by Lambert (1973:14), an instrumental orientation concerns “the practical value and advantages of learning a new language”. To be specific, instrumentality has been labelled as the utilitarian dimension that involves better job prospects, travelling, making foreign friends, and even understanding the lyrics of English songs (Csiz  & Dörnyei 2005). In the framework of SDT, EM refers to any learning actions or behaviors carried out to achieve specific instrumental ends. EM does not necessarily imply a lack of self-determination but represents different levels of internalization or regulation (Deci & Ryan 1985). EM falls into three categories, on the basis of an increasing level of self-determination: external regulation, introjected regulation, and identified regulation (Vallerand et al. 1989). A good example of external regulation is that ESP learners come to study English business cases in order to access better job opportunities.

The conceptualization of IM and EM is very helpful in predicting L2 learning outcomes (Ramage 1990). It is also important to note that extrinsic motivation is no longer considered as negative or seen as the opposite of intrinsic motivation, but rather lying along a continuum of self-determination. The continuum reveals the dynamic process of motivation development by describing the degree of internalization from extrinsic motives to personally endorsed values and self-regulated behaviors. It involves the degree to which individuals fulfill their basic psychological needs. But the problem with SDT lies in the difficulty and confusion involved in assessing the degree of internalization especially concerning the distinction between identified regulation and integrated regulation (Vallerand et al. 1992). According to Williams & Burden (1997:123), “this distinction (of EM and IM) is not watertight; many of our actions are probably prompted by a mixture of both intrinsic and extrinsic reasons”. On the other hand, SDT fails to take into account such factors as the classroom environment, instructional techniques, and the learning situation. Therefore, a micro perspective is necessary to focus on the motivational components of the learning environment, identifying and analyzing classroom-specific motives (Dörnyei 1998).

### *B. The Micro Perspective: Components of Foreign Language Learning Motivation*

Based on a careful review of previous motivational theories and models, Dörnyei (1994) proposed a more specific framework of L2 motivation in an attempt to categorize various components into three major dimensions: the Language Level, the Learner Level, and the Learning Situation Level. Of the three levels, components concerning the language learners and the learning situation have been more elaborated and discussed. The Learner Level involves very specific aspects of language anxiety, perceived L2 competence, attribution about past experiences, and self-efficacy. Among all these factors, self-efficacy has been drawing extensive research interest in L2 motivation mainly due to its close association with competence motivation theory.

Dörnyei (1994) suggests that the Learning Situation Level is the most detailed and informative part of the framework. This level of L2 motivation involves intrinsic and extrinsic motives and motivational conditions falling into three categories. 1) Course-specific motivational components are concerned with the syllabus, the teaching materials, the teaching method, and the learning tasks. 2) Teacher-specific motivational components involve the affiliative drive to please the teacher, authority type, modelling, task presentation, and feedback. 3) Group-specific motivational components include goal-orientation, norm and reward system, group cohesion, and classroom goal structure. Among all these, our attention is directed to the “classroom goal structure” which involves the question of whether the classroom is supposed to be competitive, cooperative, or individualistic in terms of learning motivation.

Dörnyei’s list of components of foreign language learning motivation provides a highly detailed framework of L2 motivational factors. From this micro perspective of L2 learning motivation, we shall focus on the aspect of self-efficacy at the Learner Level and the competition factor at the Learning Situation Level.

#### **1. Self-Efficacy as a Motivational Component**

Self-efficacy concerns judging one’s own abilities and competence before implementing a task (Bandura 1982). According to Bandura (1994), three theories underpin the self-efficacy concept: attribution theory, expectancy-value theory, and goal theory. First, people with perceived self-efficacy usually attribute their failures to insufficient effort. Secondly, individuals act on their beliefs about the likely outcomes of their performance as well. Thirdly, the strength of self-efficacy determines the goal-setting as people with a strong sense of efficacy will exert greater effort when they fail to master the challenge.

Bandura (1977) identifies four main sources of self-efficacy. 1) Mastery experiences are the most effective way of developing a strong sense of efficacy as development of skills and acquisition of better means build an immediate belief in one’s personal efficacy. 2) Social models provide vicarious experiences that strengthen self-beliefs of efficacy. Modeling influences are greatly determined by assumed similarity to the models. The greater the perceived similarity, the more influential the model’s performances are. 3) Social persuasion strengthens one’s beliefs that he/she has what it takes to succeed. Persuasive boosts lead people to exert best effort and sustain it to succeed. 4) Somatic and emotional states affect the judgment of one’s capabilities. To enhance one’s self-efficacy, it is necessary to reduce stress reactions and negative emotional and physical states.

There is a strong positive correlation between extended efforts and self-efficacy. According to Ames (1992:262), if learners believe that their intended efforts will lead to a mastery experience or learning success, their sense of efficacy will be promoted by demonstrating willingness and propensity to expend extra efforts and sustain their engagement in the learning process.

#### **2. Competition as a Motivational Component**

Deci et al. (1981) suggests that competition undermined intrinsic motivation. Their study found that participants who had been in competition against others in an activity were less likely to return during a free-choice period than those who had not competed. The authors interpreted that participants’ focus on winning rather than on the activity itself was responsible for the lack of intrinsic motivation. But Franken & Brown (1995:176) argued that three reasons explain why competitive situations can be a source of motivation. First, competition involves winners and losers. Secondly, competition provides individuals with models or examples to follow, which facilitates mastery of skills. And thirdly, competition supplies “information about what is an acceptable or high level of performance”. In other words, competition provides immediate feedback on one’s current level of competence and thus increases the mastery of the participant’s competence and improves their performance.

As direct competition may involve ego-threatening elements, Tripathi (2001) found that indirect competition carrying competence information resulted in greater intrinsic motivation. Many other studies show that competitive contexts or learning environments can enhance both competence valuation and a sense of challenge or excitement, which consequently promotes individual involvement and intrinsic motivation (Epstein & Harackiewicz 1992; Harackiewicz & Manderlink 1984; Tauer & Harackiewicz 1999).

### *C. The Present Study*

The current research attempts to examine the motivational effects of the case method in Chinese ESP programs. From a macro SDT perspective, we hypothesized that the case method used in ESP programs can motivate Chinese learners both extrinsically and intrinsically. Studying business cases in English has the essential instrumental value to the Chinese ESP learners as it concerns such practical skills as critical thinking, problem-solving, and English communication skills. These skills are thought to be highly useful in job seeking due to the fact that they are being

valued and sought by China's best employers and top head hunters. On the other hand, the case method is featured with constructivism and engaging elements to promote learners' intrinsic motivation and foster an autonomy-supportive learning environment.

From a micro motivational component perspective, we predicted that the case method is likely to create a predominantly indirectly competitive learning situation that provides immediate competence and mastery information to promote learners' intrinsic motivation. It was also predicted that the modeling and mastery experiences involved in the case method enhance the learners' self-efficacy that is likely to contribute to their engagement in the learning activity.

### III. METHOD

#### A. *Subjects and the ESP Case Method*

A group of 185 business students from a university located in South China participated in the research. They are 100 undergraduates majoring in logistics management from the business school and 85 undergraduates majoring in business law from the law school registered in ESP programs. All the subjects speak Chinese as their mother tongue and they are all in the second year aging from 18 to 20. As required by the university, all the business and law students are to complete the ESP courses designed to enhance their professional English communication skills in an increasingly globalized market. All the subjects have passed the College English Test Band 4 (CET-4) and 56% of them have gained the higher level of proficiency CET-6. (The CET has been in operation for 30 years in China and now it has become the largest test in the world due to the fact that the annual number of test takers has reached 1.8 million. CET is important for Chinese college students as only CET certification holders can be granted the bachelor's degree and the majority of the export-oriented business companies in China seek applicants with CET certificates.)

Through the whole academic year, the case method had been used in the ESP program to instruct the students on how to analyze business problems, reconcile conflicting viewpoints, justify themselves, and decide on a course of action. The case method involves such advanced skills as critical thinking, problem solving, and decision making. All the cases are originally written by English native authors, mainly concerned with multinational business companies like Wal-Mart, Toyota, Dell, or Facebook etc. By bringing real-life business problems into the classroom and training them to think and decide like managers or lawyers, the instructors facilitate and guide the group discussion in English. After sessions of discussion, a representative from each group will be asked to deliver an English presentation or report. The case method used in ESP programs is a form of content and language integrated learning (CLIL), which involves content-based learning and problem-solving strategies aiming to develop advanced English learners' language communication skills.

#### B. *Instruments*

A questionnaire accommodating the specific features of the case method in ESP programs is designed in Chinese, as an effort to guarantee the full understanding of the specific items on the part of the subjects. The questionnaire consists of 23 questions intended to measure the following four variables:

1) Extrinsic Motivation (8 items), measuring the utilitarian benefits of studying cases in English, such as the competitiveness in job seeking, e.g. "I think studying English cases enhances my competitive edge in the job market." Cronbach's alpha: 0.94.

2) Intrinsic Motivation (4 items), concerning the interest and enjoyment inherent in the learning activity, e.g. "I think it is great fun to study English cases." Cronbach's alpha: 0.93.

3) Self-Efficacy (4 items), indicating the learners' beliefs that they have the capabilities to complete the learning tasks involved in studying English cases, e.g. "I think I can identify the key issues in the case." Cronbach's alpha: 0.89.

4) Competition (7 items), involving ESP learners' desire to win and their propensity to increase their competence, e.g. "I hope to be the first to figure out a solution.", "I hope to be more insightful than others". Cronbach's alpha: 0.92

#### C. *Procedures*

A pilot study was conducted prior to the formal survey and some ineffective or confusing items were eliminated, modified or replaced. A statement is made at the top of the questionnaire informing the subjects that their participation is voluntary and all the data being collected would be anonymous and confidential. This is to minimize the respondents' worries or concerns when expressing their real attitudes towards the case method used in ESP classroom and thus to maximize the authenticity of their responses. The questionnaire was then posted and published on a specialized online survey website at the end of the ESP program and the subjects were asked to rate the items on a 7-point Likert scale the degree to which the items were "Totally disagree" to "Totally agree". Most of the respondents completed the questionnaire on their smartphone and data collection was automatically done online. A higher score indicates a higher level of agreement. All the raw data collected online was processed and a factor analysis was conducted by IBM SPSS Statistics 20.

### IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

#### A. *Exploratory Factor Analysis*

The data were subjected to an exploratory factor analysis and the reliability, validity, and applicability of the motivational factor structure involved in the case method being applied to the Chinese ESP learners were assessed. The detailed results of the exploratory factor analysis of the questionnaire data were presented in the following section.

*B. Reliability and Validity*

The results of the KMO and Barlett’s Test show that the KMO measure of the sampling adequacy was .937 (> .08), which is believed to be an excellent indicator suggesting that the variables are perfect for an exploratory factor analysis (see Table 1). The p-value (Sig.) of .000 is less than .05, therefore suggesting that the factor analysis is valid. Additionally, the approximate of Chi-square scores 3946.780 with 253 degrees of freedom, further indicating the suitability of the analysis. In the meantime, the Cronbach’s Alpha of the four subscales range from 0.940 to 0.893 (see Table 2) with an average of .92 (>0.7) which is marvelously high, suggesting that the items in each group are highly correlated and the scale is very reliable. Hence an exploratory factor analysis is considered as an appropriate technique for further analysis of the data.

TABLE 1.  
KMO AND BARTLETT’S TEST

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.937
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	3946.780
	df	253
	Sig.	.000

TABLE 2.  
RELIABILITY STATISTICS

Subscales	Cronbach’s Alpha
1. EM	0.940
2. Competition	0.923
3. IM	0.934
4. Self-efficacy	0.893
Average	0.923

TABLE 3.  
TOTAL VARIANCE EXPLAINED

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	12.318	53.558	53.558	5.571	24.222	24.222
2	2.439	10.606	64.164	5.058	21.991	46.213
3	1.688	7.340	71.505	3.417	14.858	61.071
4	1.001	4.350	75.855	3.400	14.784	75.855
5	.679	2.954	78.808			
6	.594	2.583	81.392			
7	.510	2.215	83.607			
8	.434	1.886	85.493			
9	.393	1.710	87.203			
10	.374	1.625	88.827			
11	.318	1.382	90.210			
12	.308	1.338	91.548			
13	.299	1.300	92.848			
14	.256	1.114	93.962			
15	.230	.999	94.961			
16	.208	.903	95.864			
17	.192	.833	96.698			
18	.158	.687	97.385			
19	.143	.620	98.005			
20	.138	.602	98.607			
21	.118	.513	99.120			
22	.109	.475	99.594			
23	.093	.406	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

On the basis of Varimax Rotation with Kaiser Normalisation (Table 3), four factors have been extracted (extraction method: Principal Component Analysis). A total number of 23 variables used in the survey were clustered into 4 factors (based on Eigenvalues greater than 1) and each factor consists of all those variables with factor loadings greater than 0.5. After rotation, Factor 1 accounts for 24.22% of the total variance, with Factor 2 21.99%, Factor 3 14.86%, and Factor 4 14.78%. The 4 extracted factors have explained 75.86% of the total variance in the motivational effects of the case method survey, accounting for over 3/4 of the total variance.

*C. Extrinsic Motivation Factor*

The Rotated Component Matrix (Table 4) reveals the factor loadings after an orthogonal rotation. In the factor matrix, the loadings less than 0.53 are removed for the sake of clarity. As illustrated in Table 4, the first factor is named EM (Extrinsic Motivation) which examines the degree of instrumentality in the learning motivation. The factor explains 24.22% of the total variance. This group consists of 8 items with loadings ranging from 0.83 to 0.64. Under the factor of EM, the item “I think studying English cases will enhance my competitive edge in the job market” tops the group with the highest loading of 0.83. The results reveal that the Chinese ESP learners are instrumentally motivated by the benefits of studying cases in terms of employment due to the fact that China has an estimated record-breaking number of 8.34 million graduates from nearly 3000 Chinese universities and colleges in 2019 and college graduates employment has always been one of the government top concerns (Meng 2018). The Chinese premier Li Keqiang pledged in his 2019 government work report that creating enough job opportunities remains the top priority of the government at all levels as the rising unemployment rate undermines the social stability. “The hardest job hunting season in history” is coined and widely circulated on the Internet and social media. In this intensively competitive labor market, the university learners are confronted with unprecedented pressure resulting from securing a job after graduation. Worries are also derived from the mismatch between what is being learned at school and what is sought by employers. The Chinese ESP learners are apparently aware of the absence of such assets as English communication skills and critical thinking in China’s exam-oriented educational system, which is explained by the top two means of the items in the group (on a 7-point Likert scale) “I think studying English business cases can promote my English communication skills (5.78)” and “I think studying English business cases can enhance my critical thinking (5.63)”. According to the survey conducted by Yue & Zhou (2017), the top concern of the Chinese university graduates in job seeking is career development prospects and income level. This can be clearly addressed by the items “I think studying English business cases will help my future career development” and “I think studying English business cases will promote my future income level”.

The results indicate that the Chinese ESP learners are extrinsically motivated and they are dramatically realistic as a result of the nationwide pragmatic philosophies and concerns about uninviting employment prospects and inadequate skills. In China, Deng Xiaoping’s “cat theory” (literally “A good cat catches mice no matter it is yellow or black.” and metaphorically “Economic growth is everything regardless of socialism or capitalism.”) is interpreted as a nationwide pragmatism mentality (Jing 2017) and has had a far-reaching impact on the social behavior in the densely populated country. Material incentives are believed to be the most effective way to motivate people to work hard and thus help achieve the targets of economic growth. In a country where pragmatic philosophies prevail and the instrumentality of ESP is clearly stated in the *Guidelines on College English Teaching*, studying business cases in ESP programs is first and foremost perceived as a competitive advantage that conceivably empowers the learners to access the best job opportunities in the highly competitive labor market.

TABLE 4  
ROTATED COMPONENT MATRIX<sup>A</sup>

Variables	Component				Mean	SD	$\eta^2$
	1	2	3	4			
<b>Extrinsic Motivation:</b>							
Enhancing my competitiveness in the job market	.827				5.09	1.346	.820
Expanding my business expertise	.815				5.52	1.225	.783
Promoting my future income level	.787				4.63	1.484	.800
Enriching my work experience	.786				5.02	1.379	.773
Enhancing my critical thinking	.785				5.63	1.145	.726
Increasing my chances of getting a good job	.781				4.97	1.476	.760
Helping my future career development	.692				5.32	1.340	.794
Promoting my English communication skills	.637				5.78	1.102	.678
<b>Competition:</b>							
Being more insightful than others		.831			5.15	1.276	.818
Finding more solutions than others		.784			5.05	1.293	.797
Being the first to identify the key issues		.782			5.02	1.357	.763
Being the first to figure out a solution		.765			4.96	1.343	.786
Making more accurate judgment than others		.666			5.15	1.351	.588
Outperforming the other teams		.623			4.74	1.327	.728
Solutions more favored by the instructor		.618			4.86	1.310	.514
<b>Intrinsic Motivation:</b>							
Great fun to study English cases			.735		4.44	1.448	.843
Having great interest			.711		4.86	1.348	.810
Fond of the challenging tasks			.682		4.63	1.413	.816
Being impressed with the real events			.656		4.72	1.443	.751
<b>Self-efficacy:</b>							
To identify the key issues in the case				.844	3.50	1.754	.794
To solve the problems in the case				.843	3.84	1.619	.846
To figure out alternative solutions				.730	4.22	1.513	.777
To communicate clearly in English				.552	4.44	1.402	.682



Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 7 iterations.

Loadings less than .53 are not presented for the sake of clarity.

#### *D. Competition Factor*

The second component is named Competition which measures the learner's desire to win and their satisfaction from improving their competence and abilities. This factor is constructed by 7 items with factor loadings ranging from 0.83 to 0.64. All the items in the group fall into two categories: indirect competition items and direct competition items. In terms of the indirect competition items, "I want to be more insightful than others" and "I want to make more accurate judgment than others" share the same means of 5.15. The item "I want to find more solutions than others" receives the mean value of 5.05 and "I hope that my solution will be more favored by the instructor" 4.86. The high means in this group suggest that the indirect competition is more likely to drive learners to be mastery-oriented (Elliott & Dweck 1988), which implies that learners focus on increasing their competence instead of their performance when confronted with challenging tasks in the case studies. Interestingly, as an external source of their competence information, the Chinese ESP learners not only seek competence feedback from peer comparison but positive evaluation from the instructor who is, in this context, actually perceived as an authority who assesses their capabilities or an employer who offers the job opportunity.

The three variables "I want to be the first to identify the key issues (means 5.02)", "I want to be the first to figure out a solution (means 4.96)", and "I hope that my team will outperform any other teams (means 4.74)" measure more aggressive direct competition that reveals the desire to win. This propensity to outperform others might be well explained by the Chinese learners' awareness of insufficient job opportunities due to the fact that China has the world's largest population and the unprecedented number of college graduates seeking employment. This perception of China as a country of scarce resources, which is likely to be internalized, greatly enhances one's desire to win or fight for limited opportunities. For another reason, the majority of ESP learners in China are from business and law schools where the students have always been taught and trained to develop the perception of the BUSINESS IS WAR metaphor (Ling 2010). Deutsch (1962) suggested that many activities in the real world involve competitive elements. As a result, the reinforced desire to win plays a key role in motivating individuals to learn and grow competitive by increasingly committing themselves to specific learning activities, which helps them to survive the ubiquitous competition in the real world. The results suggest that the Competition dimension is identified as a main motivational factor in the case method applied to the Chinese ESP classrooms.

#### *E. Intrinsic Motivation Factor*

The third factor is named IM (Intrinsic Motivation) which investigates the learners' propensity to learn out of curiosity, interest, fun, and their autonomous actions. The component is represented by 4 items with a range of loadings from 0.74 to 0.66. Items "I think it is great fun to study English business cases" and "I have great interest in studying English business cases" are on top of the group, indicating that studying cases appeals to the Chinese ESP learners and they get actively engaged in the learning activity. The results suggest that the Chinese ESP learners are in want of training in terms of critical thinking, problem solving, decision making, and real-life challenges, all of which are the appealing elements of the case method. The constructivism nature of the case method satisfies the learning needs and develops autonomy of the ESP learners who get actively engaged in the learning activity and believe that they are being better prepared for the challenges they will face in the real world as managers, decision-makers and leaders. Perceived competence theory (Harter 1982; White 1959) assumes that learners are attracted to engage in learning activities where they feel competent. But Deci & Moller (2005:583) argue that "competence is essentially a by-product in terms of people's intentions; it develops as they do what they find interesting and fun".

The Chinese ESP learners find studying cases interesting most probably because the case method involves constructivism and engaging elements that target advanced learners whose autonomy need as independent self-initiated learners and decision-makers is highly respected and fully satisfied. According to Little (1991:4), learner autonomy is "essentially a capacity for detachment, critical reflection, decision-making, and independent action; it presupposes that the learner will develop a particular kind of psychological relation to the process and content of learning". In light of this definition, the case method fosters an autonomy-supportive learning environment or situation where the learner's psychological relation to the learning activity is established and the learners take initiative or autonomous actions to be engaged in the learning process, independent from the control of others.

#### *F. Self-efficacy Factor*

The last core factor is named Self-Efficacy which measures the Chinese ESP learners' beliefs in their capabilities to complete learning tasks. The component consists of 4 items with loadings ranging from 0.84 to 0.55. The most highly loaded items are "I think I can identify the key issues in the case" and "I think I can solve the problems in the case". The results suggest that the Chinese ESP learners have a strong sense of efficacy in studying business cases, as shown in their confidence that they have the capabilities to accomplish the challenging tasks involved in the learning activity.

As previously noted, modeling plays a key role in strengthening one's self-efficacy. The case method is likely to

create an ideal learning environment offering such an indirect experience and a scenario where one's self-efficacy increases due to the fact that learners have the opportunities to observe and witness someone similar to them succeeding in solving real-world problems. This indirect experience arouses the feeling and awareness that "if they can do it, I can do it as well". Competent peers or models are likely to empower the learners to be mastery-oriented since interacting and communicating with these models provides more competence information. The development and acquisition of their skills and strategies in solving real business world problems will contribute to the learners' mastery experiences. When mastery successes build up, the sense of achievement will be the most effective way to establish and increase the learners' self-efficacy. On the other hand, the autonomy-supportive learning situation created by the case method is likely to generate the confident emotional state or optimistic mood, which affects the learners' judgments of efficacy in a positive way.

The self-efficacy factor indicates the Chinese ESP learners' beliefs in their capabilities to identify and solve problems, which determines the level of engagement and how much efforts they intend to make in case studies. The stronger the sense of efficacy, the higher level of involvement the learners will demonstrate and the more efforts they will intend to expend on the current learning activity.

## V. CONCLUSION

A four-factor construct has been identified concerning the motivational effects of the case method on the Chinese ESP learners from both the macro and micro perspectives of SLA motivation: extrinsic motivation, intrinsic motivation, competition, and self-efficacy. First, the data analysis results suggest that the case method applied to ESP programs is a mixture of extrinsic and intrinsic motivation. Instrumentality, which proves to be universal in L2 learning motivation, plays a critical role especially in the learning and educational settings where utilitarianism philosophies prevail and demographic pressures shrink the amount of resources and opportunities available to the average person. The case method was also found to promote the learners' intrinsic motivation by fostering an autonomy-supportive L2 learning environment because it involves such engaging elements as real-life problem solving situations that most likely arouse great interest or curiosity of the advanced learners. Secondly, the competition factor involved in the case method was found to have a significant impact on the Chinese ESP learners' motivation due to the fact that competition in this situation integrates the learning and performance goals. The propensity to compete for limited resources equally helps it act as a key motivational factor in China's learning groups and communities. Thirdly, the Chinese ESP learner's strong self-efficacy indicated by their beliefs in their capabilities to solve problems highly validates the motivational effects of the case method. The mastery experiences and modeling involved in the case method are likely to contribute to the individual learners' strong sense of efficacy.

This study serves as an attempt to investigate the learner's motivational factors involving the case method in L2 settings, which may shed light on a better understanding of the learning motivation involved in Chinese ESP programs and the motivational components concerning country-specific socio-cultural factors. Due to the complexity and multifaceted nature of L2 learning motivation, the current research has many limitations in terms of its scope, sample size, and subject selection. Future researchers are suggested to extend the research scope, increase the sample size, and target non-business majors or English majors to test the validity and reliability of the motivational effects of the case method in ESP programs and other L2 settings.

## APPENDIX. QUESTIONNAIRE ON THE CASE METHOD USED IN THE ESP PROGRAMS (TRANSLATED)

Dear students,

We are an English for Specific Purposes (ESP) teaching research team from Guangdong University of Foreign Studies investigating the effects of the case method employed in the ESP program. We really appreciate your response to the questionnaire. Please feel free to select a score for each item at your first thought and the score itself does not concern any issue of right or wrong. This questionnaire is anonymous and does not intend to collect personal information. All the data gathered in the survey shall be kept confidential and be used only for academic purposes. Thank you.

**Notes: 1=totally disagree, 2=strongly disagree, 3=disagree, 4=I don't know, 5=agree, 6=strongly agree, 7=totally agree**

1. I think it is great fun to study English business cases. ( )
2. I think studying English business cases is beneficial to my career development. ( )
3. I am deeply impressed with the real events involved in the English business cases. ( )
4. I am fond of the challenging tasks involved in the English business cases. ( )
5. I am greatly interested in studying English business cases. ( )
6. I think studying English business cases shall increase my chances of finding a good job. ( )
7. I think studying English business cases shall enhance my competitive edge in the job market. ( )
8. I think studying English business cases shall enhance my critical thinking. ( )
9. I think studying English business cases shall expand my business expertise. ( )
10. I want to be more insightful than others in English case studies. ( )

11. I want to figure out more solutions than others. ( )
12. I think I can identify the key issues in any English business cases. ( )
13. I think I can figure out solutions to the problems. ( )
14. I want to be the first to identify the key issues. ( )
15. I want to be the first to figure out a solution to the problem. ( )
16. I hope that our team will outperform any other teams. ( )
17. I think studying English business cases can promote my future income level. ( )
18. I think studying English business cases shall improve my English communication skills. ( )
19. I think I can figure out alternative solutions. ( )
20. I think I can communicate my ideas clearly in English. ( )
21. I want to make more accurate judgment than others. ( )
22. I hope that my solution will be more favored by the instructor. ( )
23. I think studying English business cases can enrich my work experience. ( )

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# An Investigation into Students' Agentic Engagement in Online English Listening Learning

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**Abstract**—This paper provides a comprehensive review on the current situation of non-English major students' agentic engagement in online English listening course. The paper aims to investigate students' low motivation in doing their online listening homework. Paper questionnaires and SPSS 22.0 were used to analyze the results. 46 freshmen and 43 sophomores of non-English majors participated in this research. It has been found that the agentic engagement of non-English majors is low and freshmen's average agentic engagement is higher than sophomores'. Besides, it doesn't have significant correlations with students' scores in online weekly tasks. The research findings indicate the importance of raising teachers' awareness of student agentic engagement, and a more effective e-learning platform is required. At last, with the results of this investigation, the current study provides some suggestions for future English listening course design.

**Index Terms**—engagement, agentic academic engagement, e-learning

## I. INTRODUCTION

The higher education quality assessment paradigm shifts from the focus on resource input to the focus on college student engagement which is a hot issue of common concern in the higher education fields. The investigation of college student engagement has become a new trend in the field of higher education quality assessment. Besides, rapid developments in communication technology enable higher education to have various teaching models, such as online learning.

Influenced by the fact the network communication is taken as the main cognitive tool, teachers and students' status compared with their status in the traditional teaching mode change a lot. Students become the main body of their learning process. Still, teachers play an important role in helping students learn English successfully. Students, who play a more important role in their own learning process, should be involved in learning activity actively. That is to say, student's engagement in their English learning is crucial.

As for the target foreign language university in this study, English listening teacher tries to teaching listening course totally through an interactive English learning platform for one semester. This platform offers a series of listening tasks for one semester and asks students to finish them each week. By using this English learning platform, there are no face to face teaching producers. But teacher-student interaction can be done on this learning platform. Then, all the assignments and courses are passed through the internet. Therefore, teachers upload listening tasks every week, and students have to finish it in one week. Then, teachers will grade students' homework on the platform, and give them feedback in time.

Usually one teacher is in charge of seven classes, which means about 160 students in total. However, students usually forget to do their online homework even if their teachers remind them every week. Students' negative attitude toward online English listening can be classified as demotivation, which is an important issue in the field of second language learning motivation. It seems that student's engagement is not enough. Then, whether students' low motivation in online English listening learning has something related with student's agentic academic engagement in English need to be further studied.

## II. LITERATURE REVIEW

### A. Engagement

Engagement in education field also called student engagement or academic engagement is defined as students' active

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involvement in a learning activity (Christenson, Reschly, & Wylie, 2012). It was first raised by Astin (1999) who used “student involvement” to express similar meaning. It’s a multidimensional construct which consists of three subsystems—behavioral, emotional, and cognitive (Christenson et al., 2012). Behavioral engagement refers to how involved the student is which concerning student’s attention, effort, and persistence in learning activity; emotional engagement is defined as the presence of positive emotions during task involvement and the absence of negative emotions; and cognitive engagement refers to the degree of students attempts to learn strategically, which means students employ sophisticated rather than superficial learning strategies, such as students use elaboration rather than memorization. (Reeve, 2013). These three aspects are intercorrelated and mutually supportive (Fredricks, Blumenfeld, & Paris, 2004). Most of engagement studies are based on these three dimensions.

Researches concerning engagement mainly focus on two aspects: measurement of engagement and factors that influence engagement. As for the measurement of engagement, researchers designed many engagement scales for different research objects. In terms of college student engagement study, there are some mature scales and measurement models, such as National Survey of Student Engagement (NSSE). At the beginning of the 20<sup>th</sup> century, NSSE as an important investigation instrument of higher education management in the United States, provides new perspective for higher education assessment. Many universities in America do teaching management according to the results of NSSE, which promotes the development of higher education. With the help of NSSE team in America, Chinese scholars developed NSSE-CHINA in 2009. By doing experiment, Chinese researchers have proved the reliability of NSSE-CHINA, and widely used this scale to investigate student engagement in China (Yang & Han, 2014).

Factors that influence student engagement also attract scholars’ attention. Related researches focus can be classified into students’ internal factors and external factors. Internal factors include self-efficacy, goal orientation, fear of failure and so on (Caraway, Tucker, Reinke, & Hall, 2003). External factors mainly include teacher’s and peer’s attitudes and action (Beachboard, Beachboard, Li, & Adkison, 2011; Fredricks et al., 2004), school environment (Yang & Han, 2014), and family background (Han, 2014). In general, current researches concerning factors that influence student engagement have been carried out from the perspective of psychology and sociology. Finding factors that can predict student engagement so as to take appropriate intervention is the main purpose of engagement studies.

In recent years, scholars have gradually begun to pay more attention to students’ academic engagement in specific subject areas, such as foreign language engagement. Foreign language academic engagement refers to the learner’s degree of effort or investment which act on language knowledge, language skills and related knowledge in foreign language learning process (Guo & Liu, 2016). By doing empirical research concerning college students’ foreign language academic engagement, Guo and Liu (2016) found that Chinese college students put a lot of effort into behavioral engagement, but less effort into emotional and cognitive engagement. Their findings largely reflected the imbalance of Chinese college students’ engagement. In addition, researchers also have noticed factors that may influence student’s foreign language academic engagement. For example, Su (2019) found that motivation has positive effects on student’s foreign language academic engagement and anxiety has a negative effect on student’s foreign language academic engagement.

### *B. Agentic Engagement*

With the deepening of engagement study, Reeve and Tseng (2011) put forward the fourth dimension of engagement—agentic engagement. They defined it as “students’ constructive contribution into the flow of the instruction they receive”. Reeve and Tseng (2011) admitted that students become behaviorally, emotionally, and cognitively in teaching activities and those indicators could predict achievement. They argued that students do more than this. Students also attempt to create a more motivationally supportive learning environment for themselves (Bandura, 2018). What students do (display engagement) affects and transforms what teachers do (provide instruction) and vice versa (Reeve & Tseng, 2011). Therefore, Reeve and Tseng (2011) pointed out that agentic engagement can be viewed as an ongoing series of dialectical transactions between student and teacher. They made the following figure 1 to show the relationship among the four related aspects of student engagement in the instructional flow.

The six curved lines with double-sided arrows show the positive intercorrelations among the four aspects of engagement. The curved line with single arrow at the bottom of this figure shows the unique contribution of agentic engagement to constructive changes in the learning environment. It can be viewed as the students’ attempt to join forces with the teacher to create a more supportive learning environment, which is qualitatively distinct from the other three aspects of engagement as they are intentional, proactive, and teacher-collaborative ways of engaging in learning activities (Reeve & Tseng, 2011). This unique contribution together with four aspects of engagement explains student’s positive outcomes.

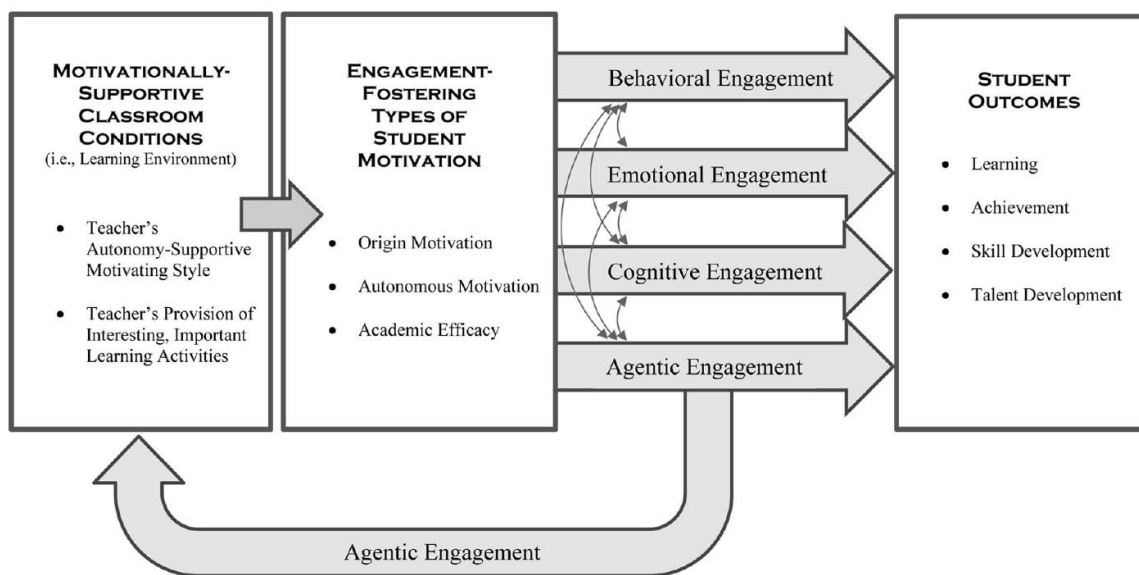


Figure 1 Four Related Aspects Of Student Engagement (Reeve & Tseng, 2011)

Compared with large numbers of engagement researches concerning other three aspects, agentic researches are limited. Similarly, researches in regard to agentic engagement mainly consist of the measurement of agentic engagement and factors that influence agentic engagement. Given the importance of measuring student' agentic engagement, an effective questionnaire for this dimension is required. Reeve and Tseng (2011) initially made effort in this direction and put forward Agentic Engagement Scale (AES), which is a short self-report tool made up of five items. A few years afterwards, Reeve (2013) proposed an adapted version of AES, and pointed out that future research will be better positioned to improve the assessment of the construct. Based on Reeve's suggestion, Mameli and Passini (2019) proposed an enlarged version of student Agentic Engagement Scale. Their findings showed that both the original and the enlarged versions of the scale show significant and positive associations with other three engagement dimensions. Considering AES may not apply to Chinese English learners, Guo (2018) put forward College Student Agentic Engagement in English Scale for Chinese college students, which provided researchers with a new perspective of foreign language engagement studies.

With regard to factors that influence student agentic engagement, researchers have noticed the influence of curriculum (Fitzpatrick, O'Grady, & O'Reilly, 2018), scaffolding (Fletcher, 2016), test anxiety (Maralani, Shalhaf, & Lavasani, 2018), bi-directional dialogue and respect (Pineda-B áez, Hennig Manzuoli, & Vargas Sánchez, 2019). Researchers argued that agentic engagement deserved special attention (Manzuoli, Pineda-B áez, & Sánchez, 2019). However, agentic engagement studies in China are rare, which stimulate researchers to study the dimension in more depth.

C. Agentic Engagement and E-learning

E-learning also called online learning through networked computer has been available since early 1990s (Hockly, 2015). It has been widely applied as autonomous learning course in higher education in recent years, because of its "economic imperative" and convenience. At the very beginning, researchers mainly focused on that topic that to what extent that online course is better than face-to-face course, which was called "wrong research question" by Blake (2009). Shortly afterwards, how to make online learning courses more effective becomes the main topic (Hockly, 2015).

Engagement as an important index to measure students' effective learning is gradually connected with e-learning studies. Some researchers have suggested that technology have positive effects on student engagement (Henrie, Halverson, & Graham, 2015). Accordingly, Restauri, King, and Nelson (2001) argued that improperly functioning technology can hinder learning and engagement. Other factors that may influence student engagement, such as teacher's and peer's feedback (Wijekumar, Ferguson, & Wagoner, 2006), online course design (Pollock & Wilson, 2002), have been noticed in recent studies. All in all, recent studies usually take "student engagement" as a whole, rather than focusing on one of the four engagement dimensions.

Although various e-learning platforms enable learners to counteract the physical limitation of the offline learning, many online programs face a serious dropout problem. One of the main reasons for dropout is a lack of interaction between learners and instructors which lead to feelings of isolation among learners (Wang, Guo, He, & Wu, 2019). Then, students do online learning passively without giving any feedback to their instructors. Furthermore, additional motivation, organization, and self-discipline are important for students to be successful in their online learning (Jacob & Radhai, 2016). As it is mentioned before, agentic engagement is "students' constructive contribution into the flow of the instruction they receive" (Reeve & Tseng, 2011), which stresses students' actively create a more supportive learning

environment for themselves. Thus, student's agentic engagement could be a crucial index that reflects student's online learning process.

Researches concerning student agentic engagement in online learning are rare, although achievements concerning agentic engagement are significant. However, these research findings may not be applicable for the current situation of student agentic engagement in online learning. Although nowadays online learning platform provide students with the nearly same chance to interact with teachers and classmates as another form of teaching activities in classroom, they are different learning environment for students. Besides, few researchers combine students' agentic academic engagement with students' autonomous learning ability.

Given these previous findings, this study did an empirical research to find the current situation of students' agentic engagement in online language learning. In addition, this study tried to investigate the relationship between students' agentic engagement and their online test score. By doing this, the current study aimed to provide teachers some suggestions for the usage of e-learning course, so as to promote students' autonomous e-learning.

### III. RESEARCH DESIGN

#### A. Research Questions

This study mainly investigates the following questions via a questionnaire and interview.

1. What's the current situation of students' agentic engagement in online learning?
2. Does student's agentic engagement correlate with their online test scores?

#### B. Participants

The participants of this study come from a foreign language university in China. Four classes of different majors participated in this research. They are 46 freshmen and 43 sophomores of non-English majors. The total number of participants is 89.

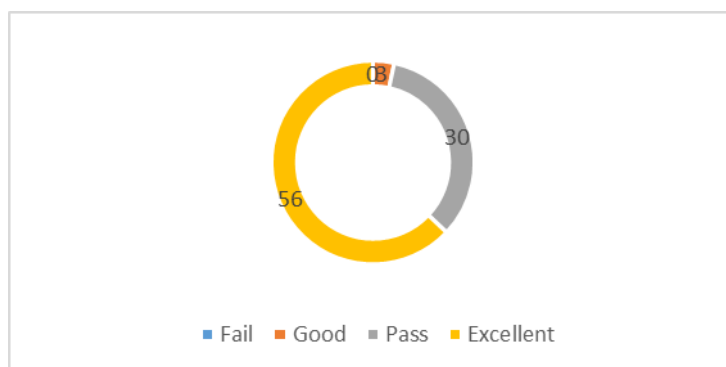


Figure 2 Participants' English Score In Gaokao

In general, these participants' English skills are good according to their English score in Gaokao (College Entrance Examination in China). The full mark of the English test in Gaokao is 150. To get an overview of participants' English level, the author classified their English score according to the following principles. Students' grades that are less than or equal to 90 are marked as "fail"; students' grades that are among 91 to 105 are marked as "pass"; students' grades that are among 106 to 120 are marked as "good"; students' grades that are equal or greater than 121 are marked as "excellent". Figure 2 shows the percentage of participants' score. It's clear that almost all of these participants' English level is at least "good". In addition, more than half of these participants' English level is "excellent".

#### C. Research Methods

This study employed both quantitative and qualitative research methods. Questionnaire is a common quantitative method that is usually adopted in student engagement researches. Thus, this study chose questionnaire to do the quantitative research. In regard to qualitative research method, interview was adopted to investigate supplementary information of students' engagement.

As it is mentioned before, Guo (2018) designed the College Student Agentic Engagement in English Scale for Chinese college students. There are 14 items in this scale. Most of them are classroom-based. This scale has four dimensions that are "self-study", "helping teachers with teaching", "cooperation with teachers" and "helping classmates with learning English". The reliability of the whole scale reaches over 0.900, all dimensions have good internal consistency, and the homogeneity of all the items is relatively high. Thus, this study chose Guo's scale as a basic model of the questionnaire used in this study.

The author changed questions in Guo's scale into questions relating to online learning. Besides, one question in Guo's scale is that "I don't study English hard" which is hard for student to rate. So, the author changed this question



into “I always play on the phone while I am doing online listening tasks.” Then the author set two reverse questions to check whether students fill in the questionnaire carefully or not. In order to be users-friendly, questionnaire used in this study was written in Chinese. This questionnaire mainly includes 5 parts. The first part is the basic information of respondents (gender, major, English score in Gaokao). The other four parts are the four dimensions that are “self-study”, “providing teachers with suggestions”, “cooperation with teachers” and “helping classmates learn English”. There are 16 questions in total. The questionnaire asked the participants to rate on a 5-point scale (1=Strongly disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Neutral, 4=Agree, 5=Strongly agree).

Reliability is an important indicator of the quality of a questionnaire. The Cronbach  $\alpha$  coefficient values of each factor and total amount of this questionnaire are shown in Table 1. As it can be seen in Table 1, the coefficient of each dimension reaches 0.7 above which is an acceptable level. The results of the internal consistency test showed that the total reliability of this questionnaire is 0.892, which suggests that the questionnaire used in this research is a reliable measuring tool.

TABLE 1.  
THE RELIABILITY ANALYSIS RESULTS OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Name	Self-study	Providing teachers with suggestions	Cooperation with teachers	Helping classmates learn English	Total questionnaire
Number of Item	6	3	5	3	16
Cronbach $\alpha$	0.763	0.818	0.746	0.843	0.892

To learn more about students’ engagement in online English course, the author randomly chose two freshmen and two sophomores to do face-to-face interview. According to Reeve and Tseng (2011), agentic engagement is influenced by the other three kinds of engagement. Thus, the focuses of the interview are mainly about students’ behavioral engagement, emotional engagement and cognitive engagement in online listening courses.

According to the definition of each kind of engagement, the author designed four questions for each kind of engagement. Questions concerning behavioral engagement mainly focused on students’ attention, effort, and persistence in online listening tasks. For example, one of these questions was that “Did you always finish online listening tasks on time”, which aimed to investigate students’ persistence. Questions about emotional engagement mainly focused on students’ interest, self-confidence and their views on the value of online listening tasks. For example, the author asked that “What do you think of this online listening course”, in order to learn about students’ views towards this online course. In regard to cognitive engagement, related questions mainly focused on students’ usage of metacognitive strategy and cognitive strategy. For example, one of these questions was that “Did you plan for your listening tasks”. By asking this question, the author aims to learn about the process of completing the online tasks.

IV. RESULTS

A. Results of the Questionnaire

A total of 93 paper questionnaires were sent. Finally, after rejecting invalid questionnaire, the author got 89 valid questionnaires. Then the author used SPSS 22.0 to analyze the data. Table 2 below shows the mean of each dimension in detail.

The total agentic engagement value of these participants was in a moderate level (MD=3.55). In regard to the agentic engagement of each grade, there was a decline trend from freshman to sophomore. In terms of each dimension, freshman’s agentic engagement was a little bit higher than sophomore. It can be seen that the mean of the dimension “Providing teachers with suggestions” was the lowest (MD=2.59) and ‘Cooperation with teachers” was the highest (MD=3.94) among the four, which suggests that these students always cooperated with their English teachers, but they seldom provided teachers with suggestions. The mean of “self-study” (MD=3.78) was higher than “helping classmates learn English” (MD=3.51). Thus, compared with “helping classmates learn English”, these students did more in “self-study”.

TABLE 2.  
MEAN OF EACH DIMENSION

Grade	Self-study	Providing teachers with suggestions	Cooperation with teachers	Helping classmates learn English	Total
Freshman	3.82	2.67	3.97	3.60	3.60
Sophomore	3.74	2.50	3.90	3.43	3.49
Mean	3.78	2.59	3.94	3.51	3.55

B. Results of Students’ Weekly Online Test Score

The author calculated the average score of 13 weekly tests whose full mark is 100. The average score of freshman and sophomore are 98.78 and 98.95. The results indicate that these participants did extremely well in their weekly online tests. In addition, Pearson correlation analysis shows that there is no significant correlation between students’

agentic engagement and their average score of weekly online listening courses ( $r = -0.173$ ,  $p > 0.01$ ). Thus, students' high score of online listening tasks doesn't mean their highly agentic engagement in online listening tasks. Reasons behind this phenomenon need to be further studied.

### C. Results of Interview

The author interviewed four of these participants. The four students all actively expressed their views towards this online listening course. After synthesized the interview data, the author found the following results.

First, the four students' behavioral engagement was nearly the same. All of the four interviewees finished their online listening tasks on time. If they don't know a word, they will look it up in a dictionary. Besides, they also used extra online listening materials given by teachers or found by themselves to develop their listening skills. Only one freshman said that she didn't play with her phone while she was finishing her online tasks, for she believed that listening tasks need her to keep the brain occupied. The other three students admitted that sometimes they played with their phones when the listening materials were too long or too boring.

Secondly, the four students' emotional engagement was different. An interesting finding was that the two freshmen thought highly of the materials provided by this online listening platform, while the two sophomores thought that these listening materials were useless for them. One sophomore said that, "I think these listening materials weren't designed for our college students. They were too easy for us. Doing online listening tasks was very boring. I don't like this online listening course." As for their self-confidence in listening proficiency, the four students were not so confident. However, they all admitted that they got nearly full marks in their online listening tests for they were too easy for them. Two sophomores mentioned that most of their classmates could easily find answers of online tests on the internet, which helps to explain the high marks of their online listening tests.

Lastly, the four students' cognitive engagement was nearly the same. It seems that the four students hardly used metacognitive strategies. The four participants admitted that they didn't set goals or plan for their online listening tasks. Besides, they didn't do self-evaluation or change their habits of doing online listening tasks when facing different kinds of listening materials. In term of their usage of cognitive strategy, they all mentioned that they always summed up their listening experience and applied those experiences to promote their listening comprehension. Such as note-taking, prediction, etc. One student mentioned that teachers didn't give them any help in listening strategy training. All the four students thought listening strategy training was important.

## V. DISCUSSION

### *Question 1: What's the current situation of students' agentic engagement in online learning?*

After analyzing the results, the author got the following findings:

1) In terms of students' agentic engagement, there was a decline trend from freshmen to sophomores.

The total agentic engagement value of these participants was in a moderate level, which suggested that teachers could do more to improve students' agentic engagement. In regard to each agentic engagement dimension, freshmen's agentic engagement was higher than sophomores'. This phenomenon may be caused by various factors. One of these factors was the online course design, which was proved to be an important factor that may influence students' online learning engagement (Pollock & Wilson, 2002). With the same e-learning platform, the two freshmen said that materials provided in this e-learning platform were interesting, while the two sophomores said it was boring and too easy. This phenomenon indicated that the materials provided in this learning platform didn't match students' English level, which strongly influenced students' agentic engagement. Thus, the materials provided for each grade need to be designed and selected so as to meet the needs of different students.

In addition, learners' emotional engagement also influenced their agentic engagement (Reeve & Tseng, 2011). According to the results of the interview, the two freshmen hold totally different views on the value of this online listening course. The two freshmen said that materials provided in this e-learning platform were interesting and good for their listening skills development. However, the two sophomores said that this online listening course can't help them develop their listening skills, but waste their time. Low quality or mismatching listening material lead to these four interviewees' low emotional engagement in this online listening course, but these interviewees had similar behavioral engagement and cognitive engagement. With different emotional engagement, different students showed different agentic engagement. This phenomenon also indicated that this e-learning platform can't meet different students' need. Thus, a more effective e-learning platform is needed.

2) There was a lack of teacher-student interaction and student-student interaction.

The results of the questionnaire and interview suggested that students always cooperated with their English teachers, but they seldom provided teachers with constructive suggestions. The two sophomores both mentioned that they didn't communicate with their teachers, but they submitted their online assignments on time. What's more, all the listening strategies these students used were summed up by themselves, rather than provided by their teachers. There was no teacher intervention. Apart from that, students did more in self-study than in helping their classmates learning English, which was in accordance with Dumford and Miller (2018)'s research that found students of different grades showed less collaborative learning activities in online learning background.

Results above suggested that there was a lack of teacher-student interaction and student-student interaction in this

e-learning process. It was already proved that students had lower quality of interactions with greater numbers of online courses (Dumford & Miller, 2018). Although this e-learning platform already had a teacher-student and student-student interaction application by which teachers and students can send message to each other. However, teachers and students hardly used them, which indicated that the interaction application existed in name only. Students just do self-study passively without teachers' or their classmates' feedback. Compared with face-to-face setting, students may feel more isolation from their teachers which may influence their engagement (Wijekumar et al., 2006). Besides, without interaction with their classmates may increase their feeling of isolation. Just as one interviewee said that it seems that they had self-study listening course without any guidance from their teachers, but they had pay for this course. Moreover, these online listening materials were boring and don't match their English level, so many classmates around her don't like this online listening course. Thus, apart from the online course design, teacher's intervention and teacher-student interaction and student-student interaction also influence students' agentic engagement.

It is clear that online learning course doesn't mean totally let student do autonomous learning. Teachers actually played greater role of class management in online learning where students are supposed to have higher degree of learning autonomy (Huang, 2019). Besides, Huang (2019) found that teachers are still needed to assist students with deeper level of cognitive processes, although online courses can replace teachers to deliver knowledge and rich materials. At last, not all the teaching activities could adapt to the online format, which may cause lose interaction between classmates and/ or instructors (Shuey, 2002). However, student's agentic engagement includes their interaction between classmates and teachers. Therefore, the e-learning format may influence students' agentic engagement to a certain extent. In conclusion, it is of great importance to further explore students' agentic engagement in online learning background, and to deeply investigate the influence of teacher intervention, teacher-student interaction, student-student interaction on students' agentic engagement.

*Question 2: Does student's agentic engagement correlate with their online test scores?*

The results suggested that student's agentic engagement didn't correlate with their online test scores. Students could easily get a high mark in online listening tests, while their agentic engagement was different. According to the results of questionnaire and interview, the author found the following possible reasons. 1) Online tests were too simple for these students. 2) Students could easily find answers on the internet and they copied these answers to get a high score. Results above suggested that there is a lack of effective online assessment method. Thus, the author got the following findings.

Firstly, the reliability of these online tests required to be measured. Traditionally in higher education, summative assessment is the most common used type of assessment, which was also used in this online listening course. Summative assessment usually comprises a final grading – the average grade for all the activities or exams conducted during the course (Guerrero-Roldán & Noguera, 2018). According to the interview, one of the biggest problems was that the tests don't match the users' English level. These online listening tests were too easy for these students, which may lead to the result that the teachers couldn't get students' real learning outcomes according to their online test scores. Students could easily get a high mark in these test score, but they still didn't have any confidence in their listening skills. This kind of invalid test also caused another big problem that students may perceive it unfair when teachers took these online test grades as students final course scores. One interviewee said, "I don't like this kind of assessment. It's unfair, for I finished these online tests totally by myself but got a lower score than students who cheat." This phenomenon was in accordance with Dermo (2009)'s argument that students may perceive it as unfair when online test score provided by grades or standard comments is translated into information on performance. Therefore, a multi-dimensional assessment system is necessary.

In addition, cheating was also a big problem that reduced the benefits of internet-based testing and influence students' agentic engagement. In large class sizes, it is hard for teachers to give students' timely and personalized feedback. In these cases, online tests are becoming a suitable solution for providing students with feedback regardless of class size (Hepplestone, Holden, Irwin, Parkin, & Thorpe, 2011). However, as one of the interviewees mentioned that many students could easily found the answers of the online tests, and many of her classmates directly cheated to get a full mark. Because of without the human proctor's supervision, problems with looking up solutions on the internet are inherent to online assessment (Diedenhofen & Musch, 2017). In addition, listening tests for each grade on this e-learning platform were fixed, which lead to the accurate answers for each test published on the internet. All these factors may result in students' cheating. Thus, there was a particular need of students' highly self-control in online test. Besides, the problem of how to avoid students' cheating should be solved.

*Suggestions*

Given those findings above, the author found the following suggestions:

Firstly, an adaptive e-learning system may solve both the problem of students' cheating and individual difference. The e-learning system used in this study didn't offer the opportunity to adapt the users' need. Students were forced to proceed according to fixed course arrangements. Adaptive e-learning system is designed to provide efficient and formal learning via supporting different learning paths and materials to fit learners' diverse needs and backgrounds (Bra, Brusilovsky, & Houben, 1999). An adaptive e-learning system could meet different students need according to their English level. Besides, different students may have different listening materials because of their different feedback with an adaptive e-learning system. Then, there will be no fixed test or course on an adaptive e-learning platform, which means it is hard for students to cheat.

Secondly, to increase teacher-student and student-student online interaction, the feedback loop between teacher and student must be adapted in online learning courses (Wijekumar et al., 2006). Technologically, effective technical support, such as user-friendly teacher-student interaction and student-student interaction application is necessary. The failed design of e-learning platform can lead to a negative impact on students' overall perception of the course (Pollock & Wilson, 2002). Thus, user-friendly technology support is crucial. Pedagogically, blended learning, the combination of traditional face-to-face teaching with multimedia assisted instruction, could be applied to listening course. Blended combines the advantages of both face-to-face learning and online learning at different levels of education and it has been considered to be an important alternative instruction mode (Huang, 2019). With blended learning mode, there will be more opportunity for teacher-student and student-student interaction, which is good to reduce student's feeling of isolation so as to improve students' engagement.

Lastly, teachers could adopt formative assessment to this online course. Teachers in this study got students' feedback only by these online tests, because there was no face-to-face interaction between teachers and students. However, it is problematic to overreliance on the summative feedback from graded quizzes and exams which might limit the formative feedback given to students during the learning process (Dumford & Miller, 2018). Formative assessment which is always combined with summative assessment could be used in this online listening course. There is an iterative process in formative assessment. In the iterative process, students receive information about their learning process and learn from it. Mainly, formative assessment based on teachers' feedback, and it can be more productive if it is based on self-assessment and peer-assessment (Gikandi, Morrow, & Davis, 2011).

## VI. CONCLUSION

According to this research, students' agentic engagement in e-learning course was in a moderate level and there was a decline trend from freshman to sophomore. Besides, there was a lack of teacher-student interaction and student-student interaction in this online learning course. As for students' online tests, student's agentic engagement didn't correlate with their online test scores. With those findings, the author found that there was room for improvement both in course design and this e-learning platform. In terms of course design, the current online course can't meet different students' need, and there was a lack of teacher-student and student-student interaction. In regard to the assessment system, this online course totally relied on summative assessment which is problematic. According to these problems, the author found some possible suggestions for teachers, such as self-adaptive learning platform, blended learning mode and multi-dimensional assessment which could help to solve these problems and improve students' agentic engagement. Due to the limitation of time and resources, the author did this study in a small sample size. However, it is hoped that this study could provide reference for future online agentic engagement research.

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# Metaphor Construction in *Caci* Performance of Manggarai Speech Community

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**Abstract**—The construction of metaphoric expressions has awesome power in organising flexible performance aesthetics. It provides new angles on values of cultural rituals, encourages interlocutors' psychological functions in producing appropriate figurative languages, utilises awareness of all forms of linguistic and non-linguistic knowledge, and increases the awareness of a community's values, belief systems, ideologies, and culture intertwined in speakers' minds. The aims of this study were to analyse and disclose the metaphor constructions in *caci* performance. The study was conducted between February and October 2018 and involved 24 *caci* actors from six villages in the Manggarai region, East Nusa Tenggara province, Indonesia. Interviews, a set of stationery, field notes, and audio-visual recordings were used to collect data. These data were then analysed qualitatively through the phenomenological method. The findings revealed that *caci* performance is thick with metaphor usage, such as animal, plant, physical, and water metaphors, and these were used in three stages of *caci* performance. Two ideologies underline *caci* performance, namely pragmatism and indoctrism. *Caci* actors are advised to employ metaphoric expressions to help them think and act, to reflect on living in harmony, and to deliver cultural values to the younger generation appropriately.

**Index Terms**—*Caci* performance, cultural communication, ideology, metaphor construction

## I. INTRODUCTION

The art of language use or poetry is an art that appears mainly in the aesthetic spaces of *caci* performance in the culture of the Manggarai speech community. The Manggarai are one of the ethnic groups in western Flores, East Nusa Tenggara province, east Indonesia. They have diverse rituals which offer fundamental cultural values. The dictions used are strongly associated with metaphors and rhymes as an aesthetic feature. Metaphors have been found in all sorts of cultural rituals in this community such as *caci* performance, marriage proposal, mortality, naming of a newborn, opening new land, customary law, harvest ritual, and many more. Metaphor construction from a *caci* performance perspective is an awesome tactic in arousing the enthusiasm of *caci* doers and viewers. These metaphors begin to appear with custom ceremony planning, communicating to the invited village as the opponent of *caci*, opening ritual, welcoming the opponent of *caci*, *caci* performance as an aesthetic climax, and closing ritual.

The metaphor constructions are closely related to the customary rituals performed. The most fundamental values in a culture are coherent with the metaphorical structure of the most fundamental concepts in the culture (Menggo, 2018). The metaphors delivered have an important role in transferring messages and stimulating the emotions of the *caci* viewers. The art of language contains awesome power in organising the flexibility of the *caci* performance aesthetics. The power of language art, through metaphor, imprisons the psychology area of *caci* opponents and viewers. This aesthetic power in terms of permissive function is accepted as a fact without being rejected.

Communicating through metaphorical language implies the language role and diction are communication strengths. This is in line with Habermas's notion (Suseno, 2005, pp. 162–163). Habermas affirmed that language must become the centre of attention. Life is strongly determined by communication; this is called the institutional frame of a social system. This frame regulates interaction through the language function to guide oneself to be a meaningful communicator. Habermas's concept has been strengthened by research conducted by Menggo, Suastra, Budiarsa, and Padmadewi (2019), who claimed that knowledge of language function is believed to be a strong basis for a

communicator to achieve his/her communication ability. Habermas believed that humans cannot avoid the knowledge of language function in supporting the achievement of communication aims that have been adhered to all mankind's life. Habermas's statement strengthens the role of metaphorical language practice in *caci* performance. This practice involves rational competence so that speakers grasp each other's intentions. But on the other side, metaphorical language practice is used to hegemonize interlocutors and *caci* doers, and hegemonize the viewers who are implicitly stated through ideology.

Hegemony is a theory that engages the meaning in each culture everywhere, in distributing the authority principle to dominate another. It is also a process to make, tend, maintain, and produce a set of meanings, as well as an ideology and authoritative practice (Barker, 2014, p. 119). The construction of metaphorical language is one of the authoritative assertion forms in hegemonizing. Language develops in the public space as an advertisement in propaganda language. On one side, the construction of metaphorical language is an aesthetic manifestation, but on the other side, it is manipulative space because it plays in the socio-psychology area. This area elicits the unconsciousness of the interlocutor of the utterance who agrees to accept. The essential metaphor construction also becomes a matter in philosophy. Language is key to solving philosophical issues and metaphor is the centre of the discussion (Sugiharto, 1999, pp. 79–80).

The construction of metaphor in *caci* performance affirms the existence of the artist. The appearance of an artist in *caci* performance is inspired by the experience of perusing the natural environment and socio-culture of Manggarai people. The inspiration of the artist aesthetic is based on values and ideology that are precipitated in the real life of the Manggarai.

Previous research presents convincing evidence that metaphorical language construction is a rhetorical ornament in helping speakers to think and act appropriately and deliver cultural values; as well it can be used as a creative strategy to cool down circumstances (Kolar, 2012; Menggo, 2018). However, the metaphor construction concept and cultural metaphors analysis, as well as the ideology implied in the cultural rituals of metaphors used, have not been strongly supported by recent research findings.

Cultural analysis of metaphors is an essential part of the current study. Metaphorical language is viewed as a great way to capture all emotions and ambiguous situations, stimulate the creative process, and use one's imagination to evoke and suggest new ways of speaking. It is the instrument to persuade, simplify, and attract the sympathy and empathy of the interlocutors as well (Cacciaguidi-Fahy & Cunningham, 2007; Ivanovic, 2017). This paper synthesises all aspects regarding the concept of metaphor construction, cultural metaphor analysis, and the ideology implied in promoting valuable cultural communication.

Some studies have provided evidence that metaphorical language construction can provide a new point of view about the values of cultural rituals, stimulate interlocutors' psychological function in producing appropriate metaphoric expressions, and help apply all forms of linguistic and non-linguistic knowledge. For example, Chun and Yu (2008) claimed that the construction of metaphorical language is a persuasive way to express the deepest core values in the culture's rituals. They believe that metaphorical language expresses social construction in the form of the hierarchical and status symbols of one particular culture. Almirabi (2015) reported that metaphor construction can strengthen human relationships in multicultural backgrounds. According to her, metaphors produced have to be in line with interlocutors' cultural background, personality, thinking modes, and feelings, as well as geographic environments. Metaphor construction is a catalyst for generating new insights and multiple metaphors viewed as an expression of language creativity. Therefore, metaphorical language is necessary to avoid precarious assumptions based on vivid cognitive connections among speakers. Metaphor is constructed by using a wide range of concepts from science, literature, history, and an almost endless source of analogy (Meyer, Schwartz, Colledge, & Rochelle, 2008).

According to MacDonald, Baguley, and Kerby (2017), metaphor construction, as a tool to navigate diverse perspectives of experience, greatly enriches meaning-making by allowing speakers to contemplate, corroborate, and collaborate on appropriate ideas. The authors underlined that metaphor appears in collaborative practice to make meaningful connections between artists and one's practical life. It helps speakers expand their problem-solving capacities and allows them to cultivate authentic interaction. Metaphors are conscious attempts to situate speakers' knowledge in the appropriate communication context. Hence, metaphors must be considered as a text constituting elements of the community's values, belief systems, ideologies, and culture intertwined in speakers' minds (Dimas, 2018).

Referring to the above, it is obvious that there is a need for the current research, which differs from and expands upon previous studies by comparing the results of metaphor construction in the *caci* performance of Manggarai people in east Indonesia.

The purpose of this study is to analyse and disclose the metaphor constructions in *caci* performance. To achieve this, we formulated these research questions: (1) how do Manggarai people construct metaphorical languages in *caci* performance?, (2) what types of metaphors are relevant to the *caci* performance of Manggarai people?, (3) what ideologies are implied in the metaphors used in the *caci* performance of Manggarai people?

## II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

### A. *Caci Performance*

The Manggarai ethnic group in the eastern part of Indonesia possesses a unique traditional art, which is called *caci*. In etymology understanding, *caci* emanates from the term *ca* meaning one and *ci* meaning test. Referring to the onomatopoeia, *caci* originates from the soft, rhythmic screeches *cacaca...cicici* from men's mouths who demonstrate *caci*. This definition is meaningful. *Caci* is the art of testing ability and Manggarai's agility in the kinaesthetic and aesthetic domains. Kinaesthetic ability became related to the agility of striking and rebutting. Meanwhile, *caci* aesthetic concerns art in its performance practice. *Caci* performance is done by two men from two village groups that have kinship relationships voluntarily whipping each other.

*Caci* is performed for cultural ritual interests such as *penti* (the celebration of a custom's anniversary, which is related to the agricultural work season); *wagal* (marriage), carried out if a man's family ('outsider') fulfils all affairs of the dowry; Independence Day celebration of the Republic of Indonesia; *congko lokap* (the inauguration of a traditional house), performed before or after the peak of sacrificial buffalo animal rituals; *lingko randang* (botanical garden party), done for agricultural fertility and legitimacy toward arable land; and *rowa/k das* (the peak of the celebration of death). This last *caci* type is particularly for the Rongga ethnic group, one of the ethnic groups in the Manggarai speech community (Beeh, 2017).

As an art form, *caci* integrates several art elements in one performance such as music, dance, costume, theatre, and metaphor construction aesthetics, and these are interrelated (Sawaludin & Salahudin, 2016). Consequently, *caci* doers are used to mastering the art elements in the *caci* show. Hatley et al. (2014, p. 3) disclosed that art performance possesses a strategic position in the life of Indonesian society. According to the authors, art performance is done to show power, strengthen social relations, and celebrate values believed and held in common. Besides that, art performance is also used as a space to criticise social and political problems.

*Caci* performance for Manggarai people is an art that fastens, becomes an identity, and offers shared values as well. This art is performed to legitimise a custom event and purification space, and, conversely, to transition space from the sacred to the routine.

### B. *Definition and Usage of Metaphor*

Metaphor leads to rules of logic and knows the root of logic from a cultural group. Metaphor is the fundamental character of human linguistic relations with the world (Sugaharto, 1999, p. 102). Sugaharto added that metaphor is giving a name that belongs to something else, transference from genus to species or by analogy. This is in line with the concept of metaphor proposed by St Clair (2004), who defined metaphorical expressions as statements based on some kind of analogy where two things are compared to each other. Lakoff and Johnson (1980) said that metaphor is an expression of imaginative and language creativity and it can be seen in everyday life, in thought, language, and action (p.7). They provide the example of *time is money*, which is reflected in our daily activities.

Metaphor languages are used in everyday language and play a role in all areas of life. There is no exception in the therapeutic domain. Therefore, metaphor is not just a matter of language but also a speaker's cognitive process. Witztum, der Hart, and Friedman (1988) reported that metaphor utterances are used in everyday life and play a role in all segments of life, including in the therapeutic domain. They believe that metaphoric expressions are a therapeutic technique for clinicians to cure patients. Metaphor usage cannot be avoided in speakers' experiences of life. Lusekelo and Kapufi (2014) pointed out that it is about sharing experiences of the world in terms of socio-cultural materials, beliefs, and values from which the metaphors originate amongst speakers. They use metaphoric expressions to ensure everyone (encoders and decoders) feels affirmed in social interaction.

Ivanovic (2017) highlighted that metaphors are usually derived from common source domains that can be found in all languages and cultures. Often, metaphoric expressions are retrieved from such source domains as a human body, fertility, animals, plants, economics, religion, and many more. Moreover, metaphor is used to analogise external objects close to human life such as jungles, deserts, islands, tundra, mountains, cities (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980, p. 146).

### C. *Metaphor and Ideology*

Generally, ideology is a way of looking at the world in a cultural group. Through ideology, every cultural group constructs and establishes its life. Barker (2014, p. 137) explained ideology as ideas, group meaning, practice in regulating the procedures for practical and moral behaviour. Ideology has an important role in constructing metaphorical expressions. It is a substratum for speakers to produce metaphorical languages appropriately. By referencing the right ideology, the speaker accustoms himself/herself and others in socio-historical and socio-cultural contexts to achieve meaningful communication. Moreover, ideology is a set of notions that guides human groups in behaving toward certain goals, and ideology is used for human liberation (Takwin, 2009, p. 5).

## III. METHODS

### **Approach and Method**

This research used a qualitative approach with a phenomenological method. The qualitative approach intended to know the natural setting to interpret phenomena and involve various existing methods (Satori & Komariah, 2010, p. 23). A phenomenological research method is used in this research, closely interpreting individuals' experiences. This is



intended to understand the meaning of experience from the perspective of the participant (Emzir, 2010, p. 22). This research was conducted from February to October 2018 and involved 24 *caci* actors from six villages in the Manggarai region, western Flores, East Nusa Tenggara province, East Indonesia.

#### **Informant**

The informants of the research were 24 persons, all native speakers of Manggarai language and *caci* artists. They are also customary leaders experienced in constructing metaphors in the *caci* performance. The 24 persons were selected as informants by using purposive sampling and snowball techniques.

#### **Instruments**

Based on research characteristics, the primary instrument of this research was the researchers themselves. This is in line with the notion proposed by Lincon and Guba (Satori & Komariah, 2010) who affirmed that humans can be data collector instruments because they are flexible and adaptive by using all their senses. Then, this primary instrument was assisted by secondary instruments such as interviews, a set of stationery, field notes, and audio-visual recordings. All the questions in the interview were researcher-made and then checked by five experts for relevance and content validity before being given to respondents. The five experts were from Udayana University, Denpasar, Indonesia.

#### **Method of Data Analysis**

After the data were collected, the next step was to conduct data analysis. The method used in this research was qualitative data analysis through the phenomenological method. First, we made a list and grouped the metaphors that had been collected. Second, we reduced and eliminated the metaphor data. Third, we grouped and gave an ideological theme to each metaphor construction. Fourth, we identified the final data. After all the data were collected and grouped, they were described and analysed based on the theory used.

#### **Procedure of Data Analysis**

Analysis of the data in this study was through the procedure of form and meaning. Every cultural phenomenon has a form, then the form has its function which ultimately has a certain meaning (Ratna, 2016, p. 345). The obtained metaphors are viewed from the form based on classification. From that we could see the function in metaphorical construction. The next step was to carry out an analysis to get the meaning or ideology behind it. Informants were divided into six groups and were seated in a face-to-face seating arrangement. The researchers proposed each question from the interview list and then all of them could freely answer according to what they have experienced and knew about the metaphor construction in *caci* performance. Informants voluntarily responded to the questions given.

#### **Ethical Code of Research**

This research has obeyed rules and regulations for researching in Indonesia. It has been approved by the research boards from three regencies in Manggarai region, western Flores, East Nusa Tenggara province, eastern part of Indonesia. This research was also sponsored by the Indonesia Endowment Fund for Education (LPDP).

### IV. FINDINGS

Referring to the research problems, there are three research findings related to the metaphor construction of Manggarai ethnic in *caci* performance. First, metaphor constructions are used in *caci* performance spaces such as invite *caci* opponent, ritual space, welcoming and performance of *caci*. Second, metaphor types in *caci* performance are animal metaphors, plants, body or physical, and water metaphors. Third, the ideologies behind these metaphors are commonly about economy ideology, identity, and moral ideology. These ideologies mentioned are shaded by two prime ideologies, namely pragmatism and indoctrism.

TABLE 1  
METAPHOR FINDINGS IN *CACI* PERFORMANCE

Metaphor Types	Metaphor construction	Metaphors usage	Ideology	
Animal metaphors	<i>Lalong raci reba Cumbi</i> (Colourful rooster, Cumbi's young person)	<i>Caci</i> performance	Identity	
	<i>Kakor neho lalong bok neho wontok</i> (Crowing like a rooster, growing like soft plants)	Ritual of <i>teing hang</i> (feeding the ancestors)	Identity	
	<i>Ráca rangga wali ntaung</i> (Regardless horn, reply to the year)	<i>Caci</i> invitation	Moral	
	<i>Lángkar nuru bud</i> (Quail dried meat)	Welcoming celebration	Moral	
	<i>Lako kole one tana masa toe ma c áþ &amp; l áþ é</i> (Walk also on dry land, do not break the wings)	Ritual of <i>caca selek</i> (self-purification or gratefulness)	Identity	
	<i>Jarang Taga reba Carang</i> (Horse of Taga, Carang's young person)	<i>Caci</i> performance	Identity	
	<i>Jampi tunggeng reba Ruteng</i> (Mighty horse, Ruteng's young person)	<i>Caci</i> performance	Identity	
	<i>Jarang pumpuk reba Urung</i> (Prairie horse, Urung's young person)	<i>Caci</i> performance	Identity	
	<i>Rentong tado woja lando</i> (The figure embroidering rice flowers)	<i>Caci</i> performance	Identity	
	<i>Wecak wela téwar wua</i> (Sprinkled with flowers, appearing the fruits)	<i>Caci</i> invitation	Economy	
Plant metaphors	<i>Rantang mar wake melo saung eta</i> (Fear of dry or bitter roots, withered leaves)	<i>Caci</i> invitation	Economy	
	<i>R áak c ápa, neka manga pora raci</i> (Split eating betel, drunk areca palm nut)	Welcoming celebration	Moral	
	<i>Lenteng neho nio toe dá áþ neho watu</i> (Floating like a coconut, not sinking like a stone)	Ritual of <i>caca selek</i> (self-purification or gratefulness)	Identity	
	<i>Kala rana reba wesa</i> (The young woman who is asked for, Wesa's young man)	<i>Caci</i> performance	Identity	
	<i>Bombong kampas reba Pongkor</i> (Cotton flower, young person is from Pongkor village)	<i>Caci</i> performance	Economy	
	Body (physical) metaphors	<i>Neka dongkek mata timpok wa'i gami</i> (Don't bend our eyes, stumble on rocks)	Ritual of <i>teing hang</i> (feeding the ancestors)	Moral
		<i>Bolek kid loke baca kid tara</i> (Wet face, radiant skin)	Ritual of <i>teing hang</i> (feeding the ancestors)	Moral
		<i>Neka rango ranga, neka merik weki</i> (Don't be pale the face, don't be thin)	Ritual of <i>teing hang</i> (feeding the ancestors)	Identity
		<i>Porong tampang kin gala mese kin bekek</i> (Let your forehead firm, shoulder remains large)	Ritual of <i>teing hang</i> (feeding the ancestors)	Identity
		<i>Langkas ngger eta mese ngger peang, tawa lima gantang reges lima leke</i> (Height to the top out, laughed five dishes, hearty laughter five shells)	Ritual of <i>teing hang</i> (feeding the ancestors)	Moral
<i>Neka merik weki neka poeng mose</i> (Don't be thin, do not hold life)		Ritual of <i>wuat wa'i</i> (beg a bless of the ancestors)	Identity	
<i>Molas nggure reba Ruteng</i> (Girl glanced over, Ruteng's young man)		<i>Caci</i> performance	Moral	
<i>Kapu neka pa'u kali ngasang pola neka gomal</i> (Carry doesn't fall, carry doesn't lose)		Welcoming celebration	Identity	
Water metaphors		<i>Limbang lami tacik mbilar</i> (We cross the ocean storm)	Ritual of <i>caca selek</i> (self-purification or gratefulness)	Identity
		<i>Kimpur neho tiwu neho kiwung tuak</i> (Thick as a deep pool in a stream, hard as a palm tree)	The ritual of <i>caca selek</i> (self-purification or gratefulness)	Identity
	<i>Kudu wa one waes laud</i> (To be swept away in running water)	Ritual of <i>letang wae</i> (cross the river)	Moral	
	<i>Ngo baki</i> (Go to wash the face)	Farewell celebration	Moral	
	<i>Baca tara</i> (Wet face)	The ritual of <i>caca selek</i> (self-purification or gratefulness)	Identity	
	<i>T án &amp; wa mbau eta</i> (Wwamp below, a shade above)	The ritual of <i>caca selek</i> (self-purification or gratefulness)	Economy	

The data obtained from the *caci* performance indicated some valuable findings to be considered. Based on the findings of the metaphors in *caci* performance (table 1), 24 *caci* actors constructed four types of metaphors: animals, plants, body, and water metaphors. Four metaphors were employed in different stages of *caci* performance with the three ideologies behind them.

## V. DISCUSSION

*Caci* performance consists of several important interconnected aesthetic spaces. These aesthetic spaces cannot be separated from one another. First, *caci* performance is used to possess the opponent, which is called *meka landang*

(outsiders). *Meka landang* are invited and indicated by giving them *tuak* (local palm wine). Second, *caci* performance is preceded by doing the traditional ritual, to feed the ancestors (ritual offerings to spirits) as a philosophy of *caci* itself. There are three stages in doing the ritual space for feeding the ancestors — namely, pre-departure day, which is done at night; *wuat wa'i* ritual (beg a blessing of the ancestors), done on departure day and in the morning; and the ritual of *caca selek* (self-purification or gratefulness), done after *caci* performance. Third, welcoming toward *meka landang* is done at the village gate. Fourth, a welcoming celebration is held in the *mbaru gendang* (traditional house in a village). Fifth, the *caci* episode is the peak of *caci* performance, done in the village square. Sixth, farewell is the final *caci* episode. Seventh, the ritual of *caca selek* is a sign of the end of the whole series of *caci* performances.

The rite of welcoming the guest, as carried out at *caci* performances above, plays an important role in the cultural communication of Manggarai people. Ndiung and Bayu (2019) reported that people in Manggarai have a unique tradition in the procedure of welcoming the guest that plays an important role in solidifying brotherhood and fostering hospitality. They further describe that the procedure of welcoming the guest in the Manggaraian tradition is called *tiba meka* (welcoming guest) rite. The guests welcomed with this rite are commonly outsiders, government figures, public figures, and religious leaders.

*Caci* aesthetic spaces are filled with dialogue texts, performing the beauty of language in the form of metaphors. There are several metaphor groups that are constructed in each *caci* aesthetic space. The types of those metaphors consist of plant, animal, body or physical, and water metaphors. These metaphors are used based on moral, identity, and economy ideology. Ideology affects the insight of *caci* doers in constructing the relevant and appropriate utterances. Sawaludin and Salahudin (2016) claimed that there are some philosophical values within *caci* performance, and the Manggarai people have preserved this tradition. They further reveal that philosophical values that appear within *caci* performance are aesthetic in constructing metaphor, bravery, tolerance, brotherhood, togetherness, politeness, sportsmanship, willingness to sacrifice, responsibility, peacefulness, and those able to live in harmony in this speech community. In line with the living in harmony concept, Solikhah (2016) found that the metaphor constructions have to represent our respect for living in harmony with human beings, nature, ancestors, and God. The metaphor expressions stimulate the reflection of how people are able to keep harmony and peacefulness in the community.

Metaphor construction at the time of inviting *meka landang* (outsiders) is uttered in the following short excerpt, *rantang mar wake melo saung eta*. This short excerpt literally means 'fear of dry roots under dry leaves above'. In this metaphor, humans are analogised with plants. Humans are equated with plants so that human life is not easy to dry and wither like plants. This metaphor realises that humans are vulnerable to conditions like plants, as well as the expectation toward the fertility of crops. This is in line with the metaphor construction *nenggitu kole po'ong agu paeng lime pande dami* 'likewise with work in our garden'. These two metaphor constructions have an emphasis on the ideological meaning behind them. The ideology background of these metaphor utterances is the economy. As a speaker in delivering these utterances, the expectation for fertility and welfare is implicitly stated. Economy ideology contributes to the way of thinking in constructing metaphorical expressions. McKinnon (2013) found that metaphor construction is premised on a strong ideology so that it is useful and profitable for the speech community.

Metaphor reality aesthetic comes to the space of feeding the ancestors one day before leaving for the *caci* performance by the invited side, that is, *meka landang* (outsiders/opposing side). In this ritual, all of *caci* doers assemble at the traditional house for the ritual undertaking. The ritual is led by an old man. The typical metaphor in this ritual is the metaphor for protection. Physical metaphor is one of the metaphors that is often spoken in the ritual speech of feeding the ancestors. The metaphor of *boleh kid loka baca kid tara* (wet face, radiant skin) is associated with a moral ideology. The point is the simplicity of a *caci* actor. A *caci* actor has moral responsibility in performing the grace of *caci*. The *caci* actor performs the grace, expresses the peace, and provides a sense of being calm for all the audience present as far as possible, especially for the families left behind when playing *caci* performances.

The metaphor above-mentioned is a moral perspective on the Manggarai ethnic group. Providing a sense of comfort is characteristic of the Manggarai people, who avoid giving offence to prevent conflict as much as possible. Moral ideology is an instrument for preventing conflict, judging and reasoning, self-justification, knowing how our thoughts or ideas are formulated and then directing them to produce the appropriate utterances (Freedden, 2006). Similarly, Sua, Anshari, and Maman (2017) reported that moral value utterances are an instrument to aid people in daily life interaction. According to them, moral value utterances reflect people in Bone, Indonesia to be humble, gentle, honest, and polite toward each other.

The next metaphor in the ritual of feeding the ancestors is *neka rango ranga, neka merik weki, porong tampang kin gala mese kin bekek* (don't be pale the face, don't be small, let your forehead firm, shoulder remains large). This metaphor is based on the ideology of identity. Each group of *caci* actors shows the others the ability and maintains the dignity of the *caci* actor and his village. Identity ideology is related to the injury suffered by the *caci* actor when the men in the scene whip each other. The strength and agility of the *caci* actors become a target point in the ideology of identity. Physical endurance and agility in fending off the opponent's strike are important things for a *caci* actor to possess. The identity battle is thick in the *caci* scene. A facial injury suffered by a *caci* actor is jointly felt by all members of his group, because facial injury is a joint responsibility for all village groups. This is the identity of the injured village and becomes the subject of discussion. That is the importance of maintaining the identity of the *caci* actor to maintain the mutual identity in the community.

Another metaphor present in the ritual is *wuat wa'i* (beg a blessing of the ancestors). This ritual aims to strengthen the spirit and physique of the *caci* actors in each other to fight. *Neka merik weki neka koeng mose* (don't be small, don't be low on dignity) is one example of physique, a metaphor when the *wuat wa'i* ritual is done. That metaphor has the meaning of physical strength and mental endurance in the *caci* performance. This metaphor is in contact with the ideology of identity. Vengadasamy (2011) reported that metaphors are ideological constructs for a group identity. As a consequence, metaphor constructions have to provide an insight into strengthening one's cultural heritage and being assimilated into the society of the adopted country.

The ritual of *letang wae* (cross the river) is a ritual to discard and ward off bad things toward the whole *caci* group. This ritual is carried out in a river flow that limits the territory of the two villages that will do the *caci* performance. In this ritual, the characteristic metaphor is the water metaphor — for example *kudu wa one waes laud* (all bad things washed away with running water). The ideology that underlines this is the moral ideology. Water is a symbol of the purification and life of the Manggarai people. Because of that, the water metaphor always appears in the discussion related to bad things, especially about physical purification and soul safety. Based on this ideology, the Manggarai ethnic group needs to take care of an attitude of life toward others and nature.

The moral ideology entity in the *caci* performance is indicated when performing a welcoming ritual for *meke landang* (outsider). *Kapu neka pa'u kali ngasang pola neka gomal* (respect as the identity of the village organiser) is an example of a metaphor in the welcoming ceremony with the ideology of identity background. Through this ideology, the organiser shows their respect to the outsider. Kindness is an identity that must be addressed by the organiser. Therefore, the organiser as much as possible serves the guests (outsiders), especially in terms of consumption. This is related to the sense of comfort for both the organiser and the guests of *caci*. Food and drink for the guests of *caci* should not be lacking.

The climax of *caci* performance lies in the mutual flogging scene. *Caci* actors in the mutual flogging scene produce metaphoric expressions. The metaphors that mainly appear in the mutual flogging scene are animal and plant metaphors. One of the animal metaphors produced by *caci* actors is *lalong raci reba Cumbi* (colorful rooster, a young person is from Cumbi village). The ideology carried in this metaphor is the ideology of identity. The *caci* actor likens himself to a beautiful rooster that is agile and skilful. This relates to the role of chicken as a time marker, signalling danger and natural signs of the Manggarai ethnic group. *Bombong kampas reba Pongkor* (cotton flower, a young person is from Pongkor village) is one of the plant metaphors that presents together with the ideology of the economy. The *caci* actor in this metaphor proclaims the importance of economic power in supporting life. The economy is likened to the cotton billow that encourages the life of the Manggarai to become more peaceful. The aims are happiness and welfare.

The water metaphor is performed when the *caci* guests undertake the farewell agenda to the organiser. *Ngo baki* (go to wash the face) is a metaphor that functions permissively. This metaphor is used in the argumentation for getting permission from the organiser. The ideology that underlines this metaphor is moral ideology. This ideological basis is conveyed in the metaphor as a refinement and form of appreciation for the organiser. In terms of moral ideology, the Manggarai do not want any offence in building social relations and more aesthetics.

The last space in the *caci* performance is the ritual of *caca selek* (self-purification or gratefulness). Several metaphors are conveyed in this space such as (1) water metaphor *limbang lami tacik mbilar* (we cross the ocean storm); (2) plant metaphor *lenteng neho nio toe dā ē neho watu* (floating like a coconut, not sinking like a stone); (3) animal metaphor *kako kole one tana masa toe ma c ē l ē ē* (walk also on dry land do not break the wings). The metaphors are based on the ideology of identity with the *caci* guest group, a metaphor that conveys excellence and success in *caci* performance. Therefore, it is important to do the ritual of *caca selek* as an expression of gratitude and especially put the ancestral spirits back in place and the soul back in the body.

## VI. CONCLUSION

*Caci* performance in the Manggarai ethnic group of east Indonesia is thick with metaphors, which are constructed based on ideological backgrounds. These metaphors consist of animal, plant, physical, and water metaphors. The metaphors are used in three stages of performance, namely (1) pre-performance (welcoming *caci* opponent), done at the organiser's village gate, (2) whilst-performance stage, done in the village square, and (3) post-performance stage (farewell), done in the organiser's traditional house.

The ideologies that underline the metaphor in *caci* performance are classified into two major ideologies: first, pragmatism ideology, the concept that regulates the order of everyday life of the Manggarai people; second, indoctrism ideology, which is the indoctrination process that educates the philosophical concept and viewpoint of the life of Manggarai people in building good relationships between humans, humans and nature, humans and spirit, and especially humans and God.

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# A Study of English Vocabulary Learning in China—From the Perspective of Conceptual Metaphor Theory\*

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**Abstract**—Vocabulary plays an essential role in foreign language learning, and it is the same with Chinese students' learning English. However, in China traditional ways of English vocabulary learning focuses on the recitation and analysis of the sound, spelling and meaning of English words without considering their cognitive motivations and thus makes understanding and memorization of them invalid and boring, which directly affects Chinese students' English level of listening, speaking, reading and writing. Therefore, some effective methods of English vocabulary learning must be found so as to arouse students' interests and facilitate their learning of English words. Conceptual metaphor theory reveals that metaphor is not only a universal cognitive phenomenon but also a cognitive tool of human beings, which can shed some lights onto English words learning, a kind of cognitive activity. Conceptual metaphor theory also depicts cross-domain mapping as its working mechanism by saying that cross-domain mapping is a kind of thinking link from source domain to target domain. And this thinking link is of great help to the memorizing processes of words and understanding of words' connotation and can make English vocabulary learning systematic and flexible. This paper explores the application of conceptual metaphor theory into college English vocabulary learning from three aspects, namely, polysemous words, idiomatic expressions and word connections, aiming at cultivating students' metaphorical awareness and improving their metaphorical competence in vocabulary learning.

**Index Terms**—vocabulary learning, similarity, cross-domain mapping, conceptual metaphor theory

## I. INTRODUCTION

Just as basic building materials are essential to a building, vocabulary is essential to a language. “Without English grammar very little can be conveyed but without English vocabulary nothing can be conveyed.” (Wilkins,1972,p.111) Indeed, vocabulary is one of the most essential elements in a foreign language. If a learner has not got sufficient vocabulary, no matter how well he grasps the grammar and how idiomatic his pronunciation and tone may sound, it is hard for him or her to communicate efficiently and freely with others. Just as Mc Carthy asserted that no matter how well the student learns English grammar, no matter how successfully the sounds of second language are mastered, without words to express a wider range of meanings, communication in the second language just cannot happen in any meaningful way. These remarks clearly show the role vocabulary plays in English learning, which directly affects students' listening, speaking, reading, writing and translating.

However, nowadays not enough attention has been paid to English vocabulary learning in China. Investigations have shown that a poor command of English vocabulary is still one of the serious problems facing Chinese students during their English learning .That is to say, on the one hand most Chinese students lack effective vocabulary learning methods and strategies, on the other hand their teachers are still using traditional ways of vocabulary teaching without taking cognitive factors into consideration. Therefore, how to learn English vocabulary well concerns a lot for students and meanwhile they are in badly need of a scientific and systemic method of English vocabulary learning. Since vocabulary learning itself is a kind of cognitive activity, it is justified to make a research into this learning activity using cognitive theories, for example, conceptual metaphor theory, a core theory in cognitive linguistics, to provide a new strategy to college English vocabulary learning. This paper is just out of this concern and aims to apply conceptual metaphor theory into college English vocabulary learning, hoping that by doing this can it help students improve their English vocabulary proficiency, better their learning attitude, and enhance their learning autonomy.

## II. GENERAL KNOWLEDGE ABOUT VOCABULARY

### A. A Brief Explanation of Vocabulary

Fishwick once said that words make us human and that when you are out of words you are out of life. Obviously, vocabulary is of great significance in foreign language learning, for which Harmer makes such a vivid analogy: “If we

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compare language structure with the sketch of language, vocabulary is the thing that provides the most important organs as well as blood and flesh.” Therefore, at the beginning of our discussion, it is of great necessity to have a general understanding of what vocabulary is.

Vocabulary is the set of words within a language that is familiar to that person.(Wiki—encyclopedia,2011)In a broad sense, vocabulary can also be defined as knowledge of words and word meanings; however, in actual learning activities ,

Vocabulary is more complex compared to its definition and can be defined and classified differently, for which there are two reasons. First, according to the two forms, oral form and print form, in which words usually appear in actual use, vocabulary can be divided into two kinds: oral vocabulary and print vocabulary. To be more specific, oral vocabulary refers to words that we recognize and use in listening and speaking, while print vocabulary refers to words that we recognize and use in reading and writing. Second, according to the two channels through which word knowledge comes from, that is, receptive channel and productive channel, vocabulary can also be divided into receptive vocabulary and productive vocabulary. Receptive vocabulary includes words that people recognize when they hear or see them; productive vocabulary includes words that people use when they speak or write.

### *B. Vocabulary Meaning*

Words have no practical significance without meaning, and the first step of vocabulary learning is learning its meaning. So it is necessary for us to have a look at the two aspects of vocabulary meaning. The first is about the link between meaning and the world that words refer to, and the second concerns the sense relations that exist among words.

#### 1. Denotative meaning and connotative meaning

As for the first aspect of vocabulary meaning, that is, the link between meaning and the world that words refer to, there are two terms concerned, namely denotative meaning and connotative meaning. Denotative meaning is the literal meaning of a word or the “dictionary definition”. For instance, if you look up the word “fox” in a dictionary, you will find that one of its denotative meanings is “a wild animal which looks like a dog and has reddish-brown fur, a pointed face and ears, and a thick tail.”(from Cobuild English-Chinese Dictionary ) Connotative meaning refers to the associations that are aroused about or linked to a certain word or the ideas, qualities, places, etc which you think of about a certain word. For example, the word “fox” could make you associate it with “slyness” or “dishonesty”, and here “slyness” and “dishonesty” could be regarded as connotations of the word “fox”. But it should be noted that the connotative meanings of a word cannot arise without its denotative meanings.

Connotative meanings are not objective representations of things but new usages or associative meanings invented by language groups. For example, the denotation of “red rose” is a kind of flower with a green stem, while its connotation is a symbol of passion and love, which is what a red rose represents. There are other examples, say, the connotation of “the brown cross” symbolizes religion or, to be more specific, Christianity, and the connotation of “a cartoon heart” represents love and affection. According to semiotics, connotative meaning comes into being when the denotative relationship between a signifier and its signified is not adequate enough to meet the community’s needs.

#### 2. Sense relation

Generally speaking, sense is the meaning of “meaning” and denotes the relationship between language and its reference.

Sense relation refers to relation that exists among words and is a feature of meaning. The dimension in which sense relation exists is also called “axis” by linguists. There are two dimensions or axes in which sense relation exhibits, namely horizontal axis and vertical axis .The former is about the relation existing between items in a sentence, which is called syntagmatic relation. For instance, we usually say “His new car was seriously damaged in the accident” rather than “His new car was seriously injured in the accident”, which is because in terms of horizontal axis there is only one verb “damage” that can collocate with the noun “car”. The latter is about the relation existing between items in the whole lexical system, which is called paradigmatic relation. For instance, understanding a word’s meaning involves knowing how that meaning is defined in relation to other similar or opposite words. So English vocabulary learning can also be seen as a process of acquiring knowledge of synonyms, antonyms, and other relations in its semantic structure. Now an elaborated discussion will be given on syntagmatic relations and paradigmatic relations.

#### Syntagmatic relations

Syntagmatic relations refer to relations between words when they occur in sequence. In English, there are a lot of words co-occurring with high frequency, for example, “a beautiful girl”, “a ripe watermelon”, “a large elephant”, and these co-occurring words are usually called collocations. Apart from “noun+adjective” collocations, there are also a lot of “noun+verb” collocations , such as “the dog barked” (not ‘roared’), “the wind blew (not ‘shone’)”, “verb+noun” collocations, such as “Tom is picking roses” , “the boy is collecting stamps”, and “noun+present participle” collocations in compounds, such as “pocket-picking” , “brain-storming”, etc.

#### Paradigmatic relations

Words not only occur in sequential relationship but also in complex relationship with other words in the network of language meanings, and this complex relationship is called paradigmatic relation. Although there has not reached a consensus upon the categorization and naming of the categories in paradigmatic relations, there are some sense relations frequently mentioned by researchers when they are discussing about paradigmatic relations. And these sense relations are synonymy, antonymy, and hyponymy.



### Synonymy

Synonymy refers to the state of being synonyms. Synonyms refer to words with almost identical or similar meanings and are said to be synonymous. For example, the words “motorbike” and “automobile” are synonyms, “poor area” and “poverty-stricken area” are synonyms. In a figurative sense, two words are often said to be synonymous if they have the same connotation. Synonyms can be words in any part of speech, say, nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs or prepositions, so long as both members of the pair are in the same part of speech. Here are some examples of English synonyms:

Adjective: “poor” and “needy”; “wild” and “savage”

Noun: “students” and “pupil”; “tactics” and “strategy”

Verb: “fade” and “wither”; “wait” and “await”

Adverb: “quickly” and “speedily”; “consequently” and “accordingly”

Preposition: “on” and “upon”; “over” and “above”

However, it should be pointed out that synonyms are relatively similar. That is to say, they are just similar to a certain extent. Or we can also say that synonyms are defined with respect to certain rather than all the senses of words. For example, although “pupil” and “student” are synonyms, one sense of “pupil” which means “aperture in the iris of the eye” is different from that of “student”. Similarly, while words “expire” and “die” can be regarded as synonyms in the sentence “he expired”, they cannot be equal and replaced by each other in the sentence “my passport has expired”. So from this we can see that synonymous meaning of words rely heavily on context.

### Antonymy

Antonymy refers to the relationship of being opposite, and its linguistic realizations are called antonyms. Antonymy has been commonly used as a term that is synonymous with opposition. Explicitly speaking, antonyms are words that lie in an inherently incompatible binary relationship, just like the opposite pairs. Here are some examples of antonymy: “male” and “female”, “long” and “short”, “up” and “down”, “precede” and “follow”.

Antonymy has the property of “incompatibility”, and one word in an opposite pair entails that it is not the other pair member. For example, something that is long entails that it is not short. Antonymy is also regarded as a binary relationship because there are two members in a set of opposites, and the relationship between the two members that are opposite to each other is called “opposition”. Therefore, by asking the question “What is the opposite of X?” we can by and large determine a member of a pair of opposites.

### Hyponymy

Hyponymy refers to the phenomenon that a word or phrase whose semantic field is included within that of another word. Here “a word or phrase” is regarded as a hyponym, and “another word” is regarded as hypernym. Simply speaking, hyponymy is a type—of sense relationship between a hyponym and its hypernym. For example, desk, chair, sofa and bed are all hyponyms of their hypernym “furniture”, and “furniture” is a hyponym of “thing”.

## III. REVIEW OF VOCABULARY LEARNING HOME AND ABROAD

### A. Vocabulary Learning Abroad

Vocabulary learning and vocabulary acquisition can be employed interchangeably since Ellis (1995) states that second language acquisition means that people learn a foreign language in a subconscious or conscious process.

Historically speaking, vocabulary learning has not been the focus in English learning and teaching, instead grammar and phonology have been. This is because, compared with grammar and phonology, vocabulary is less amenable than those two closed systems. So psycholinguists are against vocabulary learning and put the priority of grammar over vocabulary (Laufer, 1997). Apart from this, most teachers and students always think that vocabulary learning is a superficial activity that is not worthwhile to get their full attention, which in turn brings about the situation that even if students want to lay more emphasis on vocabulary, teachers will ask them to pay more attention to grammar first.

It was not until the middle 1980s that there have been great shifts in the role of English vocabulary in the second language acquisition and an increasing number of empirical studies in vocabulary learning have been conducted. These empirical studies on vocabulary learning show that students and teachers have been aware of the importance of vocabulary gradually. Vocabulary learning therefore has become the focus in any language acquisition (Schmitt, 1997). There are some foreign language acquisition researchers who even openly remark that vocabulary learning is an essential part of second language learning and lays a solid foundation in understanding a language, either native or non-native. Besides, grammatical knowledge cannot solve all the problems of language and also cannot make for linguistic proficiency. So now most scholars have begun to realize the significance of vocabulary learning in second language learning and done a lot of studies on it.

Although many researchers have pointed to the importance of vocabulary learning for second language learners (Laufer, 1997), they also noted that vocabulary learning has been something of a “poor relation” as far as linguists and language teachers have been concerned. Despite the fact that the amount of empirical research on vocabulary learning is increasing, there has not reached a consensus over issues such as the conceptualization process in which vocabulary learning occurs, the importance of context for vocabulary learning, and the extent to which students develop specific strategies for vocabulary learning during their language studies.

### B. Vocabulary Learning in China

It is no doubt that vocabulary is the most basic component in foreign language learning. However, English vocabulary learning is still the primary problem facing Chinese teachers and students and there are a lot of drawbacks in college English vocabulary learning in china. Just as Chinese scholar Li Fuyin (2004) stated that Chinese learners are limited in vocabulary size, unfamiliar with contemporary word usage and generally short of idiomatic expressions.

As for Chinese college students, since they are lack of effective learning methods and strategies, it is difficult for them to achieve satisfactory results in English vocabulary learning despite great efforts they have made. And these students also find it hard to communicate well in English. As for teachers, they usually follow traditional teaching methods. That is to say, their teaching of vocabulary mainly focus on word pronunciation, formation, literal meanings ,usages and memorization strategies, failing to touch on associative meanings of words. Apart from these, teachers ignore cognitive factors when explaining words' usages, let alone applications of cognitive theories in vocabulary teaching. Therefore, how to teach and learn English vocabulary concerns a lot for both teachers and students, and there exists urgent need for a scientific and systemic theory to guide English vocabulary teaching and learning.

The popularity of cognitive linguistics provides a good chance to improve the situation of English vocabulary teaching and learning in china. Since vocabulary learning is a kind of cognitive task, it is justified to apply cognitive theories into it. Some researches in cognitive linguistics studies have shown that an enhanced awareness of conceptual metaphors will help language learners comprehend and remember figurative lexis (Frank & Demecheleer, 1998). Recently more and more researchers also have found the correlation between metaphorical concepts and English vocabulary learning, saying that a lot of English words can be learned through metaphors. Besides, college students have formed cognition ability and can make good use of their cognitive resources in learning English vocabulary. Therefore, there exist great feasibilities in the application of conceptual metaphor theory into college English vocabulary learning.

#### IV. ENGLISH VOCABULARY LEARNING AGAINST THE BACKGROUND OF CONCEPTUAL METAPHOR THEORY

##### A. *General Knowledge about Conceptual Metaphor Theory*

The study of metaphor can be traced back to the period of Aristotle. In his treatise on Poetics and the Rhetoric, Aristotle pointed out that metaphor is referring to the object as the name of another object and that the function of metaphor is rhetoric and beautification of language (Aristotle, 1954). In 1980, the book of *Metaphors We Live By* was published. In this book, Conceptual Metaphor theory was first put forward by Lakoff and Johnson, which means metaphor's being incorporated into in the field of cognitive linguistics. This theory states that metaphor is not only a linguistic phenomenon but also a cognitive means of human thinking and that metaphor is a tool that people use to experience and understand abstract and complex things in terms of specific and simple things. Now some of the key concepts in conceptual metaphor theory will be introduced in order to make the argument of this paper more clear and reasonable.

##### Universality

Conceptual metaphor is deeply imbedded in our daily life, not only in the language, but also in human being's thinking and action. Even out of different cultures, conceptual metaphors can sometimes display similar experiences of human beings in thinking ways and in actions such as emotions, activities, states, etc, which is called the universality of conceptual metaphor.

Metaphor can be divided into two kinds: conventional metaphor and novel metaphor (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980). The former refers to metaphors that are used by a particular group of people in a language community, while the latter refers to metaphors that are created by any ordinary speaker who may make use of conceptual metaphor in their life. And the former has more to do with the universality of conceptual metaphor.

How does conceptual metaphor's universality come about? This can be explained by the central view of cognitive linguistics that the basis of meaning is human being's metaphorical way of thinking rather than logic concepts, making it possible that some metaphorical expressions in English and Chinese may share the same conceptual metaphor. Please look at the following examples.

Metaphorical expressions in the language of English:

- (1)The woman's voice was as soft and sweet as a young girl's.
- (2)She knew it wasn't worth complaining from bitter experience.
- (3)There is something for everyone in this bitter-sweet tale.

Metaphorical expressions in the language of Chinese:

- (4) Bao chang xin suan (taste to full the bitterness of life)
- (5) Suan tian ku la (sour, sweet, bitter and hot---joys and sorrows of life)
- (6) Chi cu (be jealous usually of a rival of love)

From the above examples, it can be seen that there is a similar conceptual metaphor lying behind these metaphorical expressions. (Su Lichang, 2009, p. 90)

##### Systematicity

Systematicity refers to the feature of metaphor's source domain and target domain's being joined in a systemic way, which enables conceptual metaphor to be extended or have its own internal logic and serves as the reason why people can use metaphor vocabulary in a systematic way. Due to this systematicity, people are permitted to comprehend one

aspect of concepts of a conceptual metaphor and meanwhile to keep focusing on other aspects of concepts of it. For example, when we pay much attention to attacking the opposite view and defending for our own view, there still exists the cooperative perspective of this argument. Another example: although someone is arguing with you, he is still giving you some time for you two to understand each other. "Conceptual metaphor is potential and inherent in the conceptual level, and the metaphorical expressions or language metaphor is the realisation of conceptual metaphor in language" (Wen & Ye, 2003). Thus by means of metaphorical expressions, we can see the systematicity of conceptual metaphor. Now look at the following examples:

(7) We are at a crossroad on journey of our love.

(8) We got married in the end. And it still had been a long way.

(9) We still have to go separate ways when our love has come to the end of the journey.

The above examples show that both LIFE and LOVE domains can be considered from the perspective of JOURNEY domain in some contexts, so we can get metaphors such as JOURNEY OF LIFE and LOVE IS JOURNEY. And JOURNEY OF LIFE and LOVE IS JOURNEY are in a systemic relationship with each other, which is the clear illustration of systematicity of conceptual metaphor.

To some extent, systematicity of conceptual metaphor makes it possible that conceptual metaphor can be extended to a range of ordinary means of thinking, which makes human thinking colorful and fanciful. Therefore, while we use a metaphor to structure a concept, it also means that this metaphor can be extended in different ways and situations, which can benefit vocabulary teaching and learning.

#### Similarity

Conceptual metaphor's similarity means that there exist similarities between categories in our conceptual system and our own experiences in the world. To be more specific, similarity refers to the state of two objects' or concepts' being similar psychologically and physically and can be divided into psychological similarity and physical similarity (Shu Dingfang, 2000). Psychological similarity refers to two objects' or concepts' being similar caused by some psychological factors such as cultures and religions, whereas physical similarity, as its name suggests, means two physical objects' being similar in forms, functions, characteristics and so on. It should be pointed out that metaphor's similarity is not hypothesized in advance and doesn't inevitably exist. Instead, it is created. Conceptual metaphor's similarity can facilitate college students' learning of English words since it is the tendency of human's cognition to perceive two similar things easily.

#### The working mechanism of conceptual metaphor

The working mechanism of conceptual metaphor is a cross-domain mapping from the source domain to the target domain. Source domain is a relatively familiar, specific and simple concept that is mapped, while target domain is a strange, abstract and complicated concept that is the recipient of mapping. The achievement of metaphorical lexical meaning is in the process of the mapping from source domain to target domain, and conceptual metaphor makes the mapping between these two domains happen in a systematic way. That is to say, due to conceptual metaphor, one conceptual domain maps systemically and correspondingly onto another conceptual domain through human beings' cognition and reasoning, which explains why people can understand new metaphorical expressions at once. Conceptual metaphorical mapping, to be more specific, is a corresponding relationship between entities in two domains. Once the corresponding relationship is stimulated, the reasoning mode of the source domain will map on to the target domain, and then cognitive correspondence occurs. For instance:

(10) They fight furiously in the argument.

The metaphorical expression in example (10) is the linguistic realization of the conceptual metaphor ARGUMENT IS WAR and its mapping is from the known source domain WAR to the unknown target domain ARGUMENT. As for the cognitive correspondences in this example, there is the corresponding relationship between the soldier and the debater, the victory of war and victory of debate, the bomb and strong point, etc, which helps us obtain the meaning of this metaphorical expression. From this, it can also be seen that mappings across domains underline the production and understanding of metaphorical utterances and serves as the mechanism of metaphorical meaning making.

However, mapping is not arbitrary and obeys some principle. The principle that governs mapping is the in-variance principle, for which Lakoff gives the following explanation: "metaphorical mappings preserve the cognitive typology (that is, the image schematic structure) of the source domain in a way consistent with the inherent structure of the target domain". (Lakoff, 1993, p.215)

To sum up, cross-domain mapping is the working mechanism of conceptual metaphor, which is helpful for our understanding of abstract concept and in turn will benefit English vocabulary learning of Chinese students.

#### *B. Application of Conceptual Metaphor Theory into College English Vocabulary Learning*

With the development of cognitive linguistics, researches into metaphor can shed some new lights onto college English vocabulary learning. Sweetser argued that metaphor is an indispensable but ignored resource in terms of polysemy (Sweetser, 1990). Lazar emphasized that "the ability to identify and use the metaphorical extension of words is a critical skill for English learners to enlarge their vocabulary" (Lazar, 1996, p.43). Besides, metaphorical expressions are ubiquitous in current college English textbooks, which is a no-deny fact. Therefore, it is of great necessity to apply conceptual metaphor theory into college English vocabulary learning so that students can foster their own cognitive

styles and improve their vocabulary learning efficiency in a more systematic way during their English vocabulary learning. The following part will discuss how key concepts of conceptual metaphor theory are applied into college English vocabulary learning and the discussion is conducted from three aspects: polysemous words, idiomatic expressions and word connections.

### 1. Metaphorical analysis of polysemous words

Polysemy is “the phenomenon whereby a single word has many meanings that are systematically related” (Mark Johnson, 1987, p. xii), which is quite common in every kind of language. Just imagine what it is like if there is no polysemy? Maybe the vocabulary would expand voluminously since every object or thing in the world needs to be linguistically represented by means of a linguistic unit, which goes against the economy principle of language activities. Judging from this, it is justified for polysemy to exist widely. But its wide existence does cause a lot of difficulties for Chinese students’ English learning. These students complain that they are always confused about why some English words have so many different meanings and doubt whether there are any rules behind the seemingly chaotic words and their meanings. Besides, following Saussure’s view that all the signs are arbitrary (Saussure, 1966), they assume polysemy as arbitrary and a hard peanut which no right tool can crack except rote memorization.

However, far from the above assumption, conceptual metaphor theory argues that a lot of polysemy in our language are not created at random and instead are brought about due to human being’s metaphorical thinking. It is clear to us that in everyday communication the more frequently a word is used, the more items it will have. And some of the items result from metaphorization. Metaphorization refers to the process of the habitual use of metaphorical meanings of words, which gradually results in the so-called dead metaphors, such as the neck of the bottle and the waist of the mountain, etc, and it is an important factor that leads to changes in language. Once metaphorization is admitted and used widely, a word is more likely to have a new metaphorical meaning and thus become a polysemy. So from this, it can be seen that polysemy is about the relations that hold between the prototype meaning and other family resemblance meaning of words and that there exists similarities between these two kinds of meanings. According to the experientialist view of cognitive linguistics that meaning is embodied, the prototype meaning of a polysemous word, to a large extent, comes from our physical and concrete experience, and other meanings of it are derived from and similar to its prototype meaning. It can also be said that the understanding of other meanings of a word can be done by means of its prototype meaning. This is in accordance with metaphor’s essence of similarity and its cross-domain mapping mechanism which involves the understanding and experiencing of non-physical or abstract things in terms of physical or concrete things. Starting from this, it can be suggested that if teachers can explain the metaphorical connections between different meanings of the same word in vocabulary teaching, it might facilitate students’ better understanding of the word to a large extent and help them foster long-term memory of polysemous meaning of the word. Now let’s look at how conceptual metaphor theory is applied in polysemy learning.

We will begin with several human organ words which are typical polysemous words. First, look at the word “head”. The prototype meaning of “head” is “the upper part of the body or the front part of the body in animals; contains the face and brains”, from which derives many secondary meanings like “people who are in charge of a company or an organization” (for example, the head of a school, the head of a government, etc), “your mind or your mental activities” (for example, he is not good at doing sums in head), “the beginning or source of a river or stream” (for example, the head of the Thames) and “the top or most important end of something” (a pin-head), etc. But how are these sub-branch meanings of “head” related to its prototype meaning metaphorically? “Head” has the following properties: being positioned at the top of human’s body, containing brain which is the source of human’s intellect, organizing our behavior, etc. Therefore, by mapping those properties of head to abstract unfamiliar domains, relevant sub-meanings of it can be derived. Apart from the word “brain”, there are a lot of other human body words which are polysemous, for example:

Face: “face of a mountain, face of a watch, face of the earth”.

Eye: “eye of a needle, eye of hurricane”.

Mouth: “mouth of a river, mouth of a hole, mouth of a tunnel”.

Arm: “arms of a chair, arms of a sea, arms of a tree”.

Hands: “hands of a watch, hands of a speedometer”.

Foot: “foot of a mountain, foot of a wall, footnote” (Cambridge Dictionary, 2001)

From the above analyses, it can be seen that the principle that underlines meaning-change is metaphor; that is to say, systematic metaphorical mapping from one domain to another is the cognitive motivation of the production and interpretation of polysemous words. Metaphor’s property of being systematic enables the sub-branch meanings of polysemy to be related in a systematic way, which can improve students’ vocabulary learning efficiency greatly. Besides, according to the view point that metaphors are experience based, so are polysemous words, and this will also makes polysemy learning much easier for Chinese college students.

Therefore, during the process of vocabulary learning, students should first develop the awareness of the pervasive existence of conceptual metaphors and then try to understand the prototype meanings of polysemous words in college English texts and their sub-meanings from the perspective of conceptual metaphor so as to grasp how multiple meanings of these polysemous words are logically connected. Besides, teachers should also help students create opportunities in class in order to practice analyzing polysemes in terms of conceptual metaphors, which can consolidate

students' vocabulary retention as well as deepen their understanding of the sub-meanings of these polysemous words.

## 2. Metaphorical analysis of idiomatic expressions

Idiomatic expressions are composed of more than two constituents and each constituent is a semantic unity. These expressions come from linguistic practice of human beings and appear in phrases or sentences. Although every idiomatic expression has its own respective literal meanings, in terms of idioms its literal meanings will be lost and metaphorical meanings will arise instead.

Apart from proposing the view point that "Language is structured metaphorically." (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980, p.5), Lakoff & Johnson also gives their opinion on the relationships between conceptual metaphors and idioms by saying that meanings of idioms are not arbitrarily formed but metaphorically structured. In their book "Metaphors We Live By", they take plenty of idioms as examples to explain how these idioms are comprehended under conceptual metaphor theory. For example, the idiom "spin one's wheels" is motivated by a conceptual metaphor LOVE IS A JOURNEY. Literally "spin one's wheels" means that during a journey the wheels of a car are stuck in the mud and thus spinning but the car still does not move. In fact, there is a conceptual metaphor LOVE IS A JOURNEY involved in the idiom "spin one's wheels". That is to say, the source domain JOURNEY is mapped to the target domain LOVE and thus arises the epistemological correspondence that two lovers meet with difficulties and try to solve their difficulties.

## 3. Metaphorical analysis of word connection

According to lexicon-semantic theory, humans acquire words first and then as the number of words increases, the mind is forced to set up systems which keep the words well-organized for retrieval (McCarthy & Carter, 1990). So from this, it can be seen that human lexicon is regarded as a network or associations, a web-like structure or interconnected links. In order to improve the efficiency of vocabulary learning, students should try to establish links between words and the words' associations from the cognitive perspective, for example, by applying conceptual metaphor into vocabulary learning.

Based on the internal system of conceptual metaphor, the relations among the metaphorical expressions in the target domain mimic expressions in the source domains to a large extent so that the expressions in the target domains are generated from the expressions of the source domains (Cooper, 1999). Take the structural metaphor THEORIES ARE BUILDINGS for example. It is known to us all that every building has its internal structures such as foundation, support, material, room, window, etc. And every building also has the property of being built, collapsing and then being rebuilt as well as the property of being strong or shaky. Since it is people's cognitive tendency to use a highly structured and clearly delineated and familiar concept to structure a less clearly delineated and unfamiliar one, the structures and the properties of BUILDINGS can be mapped onto the background of THEORIES by cross domain mappings. By doing so, students may find it effortless and safe to choose relatively easy expressions such as "lay the foundation", "construct", "rebuilt", "collapse" etc from BUILDINGS domain which is relatively easy and simple to talk about the more abstract and complex THEORIES domain. Conceptual metaphor theory states that mappings or correspondences between the source domain and the target domain is a systemic system rather than a number of isolated and random cases, so in the actual practice of applying conceptual metaphor into vocabulary learning students can learn words in a semantic network of all contexts. Just as Verspoor said that vocabulary presented in thematic group is retained more effectively than vocabulary presented in unrelated group. But it should also be pointed out that systemic mapping doesn't mean that there is a completely one-to-one correspondence between source domain and target domain. So in the early stage of applying conceptual metaphor into vocabulary learning students should be advised not to turn out some problematic phrases or expressions like "The theory has no windows". Once students made such mistakes, teachers should help put them right in time. Anyhow, teachers' guidance and instruction could make the metaphor approach of vocabulary learning more effective and beneficial since it kindles the imagination of students in memorization as much as possible.

## V. SUMMARY

In a word, cultivating the habit of vocabulary learning by means of conceptual metaphor is of great value to students. A good application of metaphorical modes in vocabulary learning can not only reduce students' cognitive efforts but also activate their motivation in learning new words since it is much easier to learn words that are of the same thematic group than learn them as complete units. Lazar (1996) points out that students should be motivated to classify vocabulary into thematic groups according to conceptual metaphors and that this can improve students' skill of enlarging vocabulary. He also adds that this learning skill cannot be got instantly got and has to be acquired only through repeated practice and with the guidance of the teacher. So teachers shoulder great responsibilities to foster students' metaphorical thinking. On the whole, teaching vocabulary by means of metaphor may become the trend of applied linguistics in the near future. Teachers and students should pay attention to this area.

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# A Critical Discourse Analysis of the US and China Political Speeches—Based on the Two Speeches Respectively by Trump and Wang Yi in the General Debate of the 72nd Session of UN Assembly

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**Abstract**—The research attempts to analyze two political discourses delivered respectively by American president Donald Trump and Chinese foreign minister Wang Yi in the 72<sup>nd</sup> session of UN assembly. With Fairclough’s 3-Dimensional Discourse Model as the analytical framework, we make an investigation into the two political discourses so as to gain insights into the interplay of discourse, ideology and society, by examining linguistic characteristics of text, discursive and social practice dimensions. On the first dimension of text, we find that both leaders prefer Judgment resources to the other two resources within the Affect System in their remarks, by resorting to the new advancement in Systemic Functional Grammar—Martin’s Attitude subsystem under his Appraisal framework, and closely examining the interpersonal metafunctions, coupled with statistical measures. Within the Judgment subsystem, there exist significant differences between the two speeches in terms of Tenacity+ resources. On the dimension of discursive practice, our research reveals that both leaders use a great number of intertextuality resources in the remarks. Besides, both leaders have a preference to the sub-category of “The Original Producer of Discourse being the Speaker’s Compatriots” under the category of “Intertextuality”. That is, Wang Yi has a preference for the lines of Chinese sages in the Antiquity, whereas Trump is fond of using intertextuality resources from a diversity of domains, such as laws and statutes, legal texts and documents of governments. Lastly, we develop an understanding of roles played by “American First” ideology and Chinese government’s national interest in today’s political arena through analyzing technologizing means of discourses.

**Index Terms**—political speech, Fairclough’s three-dimensional discourse analysis, ideology, intertextuality, appraisal theory

## I. INTRODUCTION

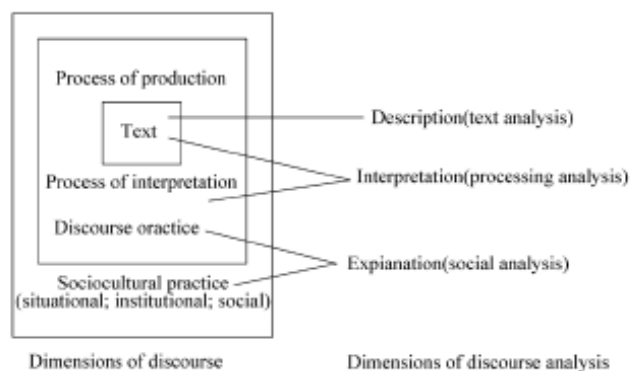
Political speeches refer to discourses in the forms of public addresses or orations delivered by government heads or officials, other representatives of governments, or heads of a nation, to clarify their positions, opinions and policies of the governments. The studies on political speeches can be traced to the Ancient Greece (Chilton, 2004), when orators like Cicero believed the power of speech was in the duty of the citizens, whereas others thought speeches full of rhetoric skills were but deception and distortion of social realities. In the Age of classical Athens, there were brilliant political figures, who were at the same time great speakers of political speeches, such as Demosthenes (384-322 BC), Aeschines (389–314 BC) and many others. As for political speeches, van Dijk (1997) claims that the study on political discourse analysis is not only concerned with the orators or speakers themselves, but also with the political and communicative events or encounters. He (van Dijk, 1997, p.11-52) highlights the role played by the interaction between context and text, and occasions are important in the analysis of political speeches, such as “cabinet meetings, parliamentary sessions, election campaigns, rallies, interviews with media, bureaucratic practices, and protest demonstrations”. Relevant researches center on the following aspects: political talk and online discussion (Anastasia & Stamou, 2018; Magdalena & Diana, 2009), the relationship between politics, ideology, and the government (Fairclough, 1989; Hudson, 1978; van Dijk, 1997) political language as well as relevant theories and practices (Chilton, 2004; McCarthy, 2002; Cap, 2006; Wodak, 1989), political discourse as interdisciplinary topics (Kirvalidze, 2016; Reyes, 2011, Benson & Elisabeth, 2006; Bhatia, 2006). In Chinese linguistic academia, major strands of research on political discourse are as follows: the systemic-functional and CDA perspective (Chonglong Gu, 2018; Li Wei, 2016; Wang Hesi, Yin P’an & Wang Furong, 2011; Zhang Delu & Su Shiguang, 2015), historical CDA approach (Lin Yuting & Miao Xingwei, 2016), the translation

approach (Dou Weilin, 2011; Dou Weilin, Wen Jianping, 2015), the cognitive-discourse perspective (Zhang Tianwei, Guo Binbin, 2016; Wang Hui, Sun Jing, 2016), and other transdisciplinary methods or the combination of more than two approaches (Ju Yumei, 2020; Li Tao & Xu Fang, 2018; Wang Hongyang & Cheng Chunsong, 2007; Zhu Wei, 2015). Most the endeavors of the researches are oriented towards one or two certain aspect(s) of political remarks, whereas a unified and sound analytical framework is obviously lacking. Both the depth and number of research papers concerning Fairclough's 3-dimensional theoretical framework are far from sufficient. In the research papers so far collected from CNKI (China Zhi wang) in the five years, for example, most researchers follow the SFL analytical tools to analyze Transitivity system, mood and modality, and interpersonal metaphor in media reports. The analysis from the Attitude system or lexical discourse semantics can hardly be found. Further, still lacking is statistical analysis about significance of frequency between China and Foreign leader's political speeches, which may shed light on how the discourse and ideology can be mutually affected and constructed. Considering the above demerits, this research seeks out to give a more convincing and elaborated explanation of the US and China Political Speeches from Fairclough's three-dimensional perspective.

## II. FAIRCLOUGH'S THREE-DIMENSIONAL CDA AS AN ANALYTICAL FRAMEWORK

Critical Discourse Analysis, or, shortened as CDA, is a flourishing discipline of linguistics. It sheds light on social inequalities, injustice and the abuse of power, etc. in the light of discursal analysis. Representative figures include Norman Fairclough, Ruth Wodak, Teun van Dijk, Theovan Leeuwen, Gerlinde Mautner, who distinguish themselves from other CDA researchers by their peculiar research backgrounds and strategies, namely, the Dialectical—Relational Approach, the Discourse-Historical Approach, Socio-cognitive Approach, Social Actors Approach and Corpus-Linguistics Approach. Of all the CDA linguists, Norman Fairclough stands out as a peculiar socially-oriented contributor to critical discourse analysis studies. Fairclough (1989) claims, language and power are richly interrelated. It is through the uncovering of ideology and power behind language that we may bring to light the injustices in the society. Fairclough (1985) also claims that the important task ahead for critical discourse analysts is to denaturalize the ideology internalized already in discourse and text. He also encompasses in his theoretical framework Bakhtin's intertextuality and genre theory, as well as Gramsci's Theory of Hegemony. In the three-dimensional theoretical framework (Fairclough, 1985), as is shown below in Table 1, the first or the innermost dimension refers to text, involving the description of the discourse. The second tier is called discursive practice, which involves the interpretation of the relationship between text and interaction. The last analytical dimension represents social practice, which calls for the explanation of the relationship between social interaction and the social context as a whole. Also, in Stamou's estimation (Stamou, 2013), there exist 3 levels in Fairclough's theory, namely, the micro-level analysis of text dimension, the meso-level analysis mainly concerned with discursive practice, and the macro-level part focusing on social practice.

TABLE 1  
FAIRCLOUGH'S THREE-DIMENSIONAL CDA ANALYTICAL FRAMEWORK



## III. RESEARCH DESIGN

### A. Data

The present data includes political speeches delivered respectively by US President Trump and Chinese Foreign Minister Wang Yi at the session of General Debate in the UN Assembly in 2017. Both leaders' speech texts can be found on the official websites of the US White House and China's Foreign Ministry and other famous media. We have provided the source of information at the end of this research paper for further reference. Based on the texts at hand, we have carefully marked out every and each linguistic resource according the requirements of the SFL framework and operational procedures, so the inter-coder reliability can be held as accurate in that we have invited students who are conversant with the SFL theories, and we have also made agreements about the accuracy and the standardization of the



marking work. As far as the two remarks are concerned, the length of the English text is 4134 words in all, and the Chinese totals 3459 characters. We have adopted methodology featuring a combination of both qualitative and quantitative ways. We strictly follow a three-dimensional analytical stage of Fairclough's CDA analysis, namely, "the description, interpretation, explanation of texts", this study adopts both a "top-down" and "bottom-up" method, that is, the concrete items of Attitude resources will first be searched, retrieved, and sorted out from the data, and their frequency as well as distribution will be provided mainly by our manual calculation as well as an analytical UAM Corpus tool. The author and the coding person have double-checked the data and the frequency in order to achieve the expected accuracy and efficacy. First, we have read carefully the two remarks and decided on the most appropriate analytical SFL methods—the Attitude system as postulated by J. R. Martin, a successful theory on discourse semantics. Secondly, we have also applied other theories, suitable methods and, drawing upon research findings of previous papers, determined the proper variables to be looked into. Thirdly, focusing on the linguistic resources, where most differences between the two remarks lie, we have carried out a statistical calculation to assess whether these differences are of significant value. In so doing, we can come to more convincing conclusions about the relationship between language, power and ideology, based on quantitative data. The purpose of the research lies in revealing how meanings at three dimensions are constructed through our analysis from the perspective of SFL, evaluation theory and relevant social theories.

### B. Research Questions

Our research questions are as follows:

- (1) What Attitude resources have been used by president Trump and Chinese Foreign Minister Wang Yi in their political remarks in the UN Assembly?
- (2) By means of the analysis of frequency, percentage as well as SPSS analysis into the Judgment resources, what statistical conclusions can we draw? Are the differences statistically significant?
- (3) On the dimension of discursive practice and social practice, what interpretation and explanation can be made based on the two leaders remarks?

## IV. RESEARCH FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

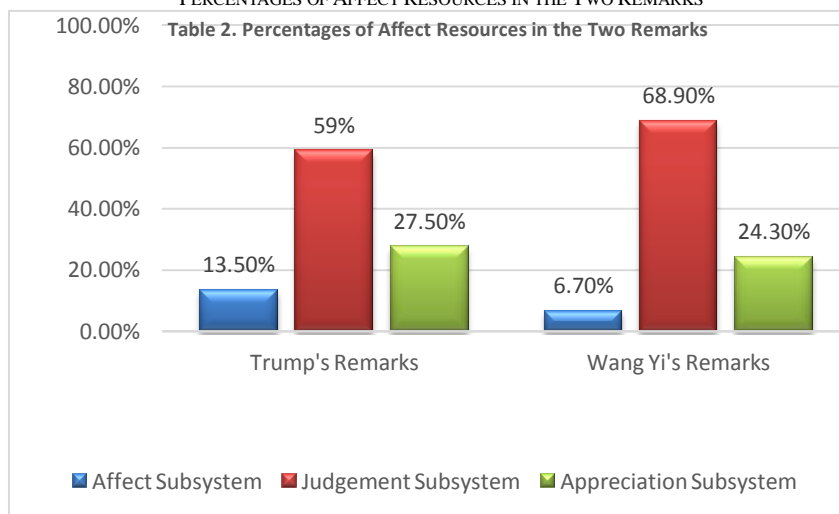
### A. SFL-based Analysis of the Text

In Halliday's classification of 3 metafunctions, Halliday (1994) identifies three modes of meaning, namely, ideational, interpersonal and textual meanings, which operate simultaneously in all texts or discourses. However, when it comes to the speaker/ author's intersubjective stance, Martin & White (1999) finds the interpersonal part calls for further elaboration and development. Martin & White's (1999) lexically-based evaluation of language adopts a peculiar perspective into the interpersonal meaning of texts, lending itself to a better interpretation of language in use. Martin & White (1999, p.36) argues Attitude is about "people's feelings, including emotional reaction, judgment of behavior and evaluation of things".

#### 1. Comparison between American and Chinese Speeches in terms of Attitude Subsystem

Appreciation refers to evaluations of toward world composed of semiotic meanings as well as natural phenomena, as regards the manners in which these things they are valued, assessed or not related to a particular field. Judgment (Martin & White, 1999, p.52) construes our attitudes to people and the way they behave, consisting of two subtypes—"Social Esteem and Social Sanction". Appreciation (Martin & White, 1999, p.56) refers to meaning as regards the construal of our evaluation of "things", especially those we make and performances we give, but also including natural phenomena—what such things are worth. Among the three subsystems, Attitude stands at the focal part, for it is effective in analyzing emotions and feelings. Compared with Engagement, which is mainly about strategy of discourse, speakers' Attitude can more revealingly show the three-sided relationship of "power—discourse—speaker".

TABLE 2.  
PERCENTAGES OF AFFECT RESOURCES IN THE TWO REMARKS



It is clear that in the above chart, both Trump and Wang Yi do not use many Affect resources in their remarks. Compared with the Affect resources of Trump's, Wang Yi's Affect resources are much lower, only constituting 6.7% of the whole speech. The reasons underlying this phenomenon is not hard to seek. One plausible reason is that due to the solemnity of the occasion, it is neither rational nor suitable to address the UN representatives with positive or negative subjective emotions. As the Chinese are commonly believed to be introverted in character, and due to the formality of the occasion, this tendency becomes more salient in Wang Yi's remarks. And it is more than understandable, Chinese government representatives will shy away from revealing personal emotions in front a large public. As far as Appreciation resources are concerned, there is also no great difference between the two remarks. In the same vein, President Trump is not in the mood to show whether he is happy or sad, confident or anxious, interested or bored. So, this type of Affect resources is relative few.

From Table 2, we can also see that leaders in both countries have resorted to the Affect resources of Judgment in their remarks, with Wang's remarks as high as 68.9% and Trump's reaching 59%. Judgment and Appreciation are different from Affect subsystem, in that feelings in the two resources are by nature institutionalized ones. In this sense, the two subtypes of resources (Martin & White, 1999, p. 45) are uncommon senses that worlds of shared community value. Judgment resources has more to do what we are expected to behave and what we should avoid doing in a society, where there are conventionalized rules and regulations administered by state and other authorities. In formal occasions like the discussing session in the UN assembly, it is conceivable that leaders of diverse countries are expected to air their unambiguous opinions and Judgments about key issues in the world arena, such as severe threats from environment degradation, terrorist and extremist attacks, authoritarian powers; position and stance of every country in their contribution to the world peace, stability and prosperity. This can speak for the high percentage of Judgment in both leaders' addresses. In Wang Yi's remarks, the percentage reaches as high as 68.9%, which carries strong determination of the Chinese government and exhibits the Chinese government's clear awareness of her due role in the international affair as well as in the UN. In like manner, Trump, as the representative of the American government, expresses what stance the US has taken toward possible perils from terrorism, what judgments the American has made about those "rogue countries", what responsibility the American government has undertaken in the global affairs and what role will his country play in the UN. Judgment subsystem (Martin & White, 1999, p.52), it is known, consists of "Social esteem" and "Social sanction", with the former dealing with "Normality (how unusual someone is)", "Capacity (how capable they are)" and "Tenacity (how resolute they are)", the latter with "Veracity (how truthful someone is)" and "Propriety (how ethical someone is)". Appraisal resources, as important attitudinal elements, are heavily reflective of ideology for Attitude linguistic resources, especially Judgment subsystem, is directly linked with a person, an institution or and government's fundamental values—the ethics, morality or social values of other people and other countries. These values are closely associated with ideological assumptions, which have been "naturalized" into common senses, and are taken granted in the two speeches, leaving few traces of persuasion or propagandizing.

Interestingly, within the Judgment resource, and in both remarks, "Capacity" and "Propriety" resources occur most frequently, with its frequency totaling 95 times. We will in the ensuing part do a statistical study to see whether the differences are statistically significant. Here are some examples of "Capacity" resource:

e.g. "The success of the United Nations depends upon the independent strength of its members...our success depends on a coalition of strong and independent nations that embrace their sovereignty to promote security, prosperity and peace, for themselves and for the world."

(<https://www.haaretz.com/us-news/full-text-trump-s-first-address-to-un-1.5452208>)

In this example, "success", "strong" and "strength" are typical "Capacity" category of Judgment sources, which are

all used to express Trump and the US government’s affirmation and praise for the achievement so far achieved by the UN.

For Appreciation resources, in the two remarks, they are 27.5% and 24.3% respectively. The Chinese remarks have fewer types of Appreciation resources than those in the English speech. Interesting to note that, there are both positive + and negative- types of Appreciation in Trumps remarks, whereas in Wang Yi’s remarks all the Appreciation resources are positive-type. This reflects different cultural orientations in the West and the East, in that The American are quicker and more willing to say whether things are worthwhile, attractive or captivating.

**2. Contrast between American and Chinese Speeches in terms of Attitude Subsystem**

As far as “Propriety” is concerned in Trumps speech, we can acutely feel American government’s way of judging whether things are ethical or not. These linguistic data are the “material forms of American ideology” (Fairclough, 1992, p.87)

e.g. “If the righteous many do not confront the wicked few, then evil will triumph. When decent people and nations become bystanders to history, the forces of destruction only gather power and strength.”

(<https://www.haaretz.com/us-news/full-text-trump-s-first-address-to-un-1.5452208>)

It is obvious that the American has their own criterion for judging what group of people can be thought of as righteous or decent and what group are evil or wicked. They are righteous and decent, if they confirm fittingly with the American values of politics rather than the political code of their own countries.

Chinese foreign minister Wang Yi frequently uses both repetition and parallelism in his remarks to produce strong wills the Chinese government and the earnest hope of the Chinese people. Examples abound in this remarks, such as “我们现在需要的，是更加全面的无核化，更加彻底的无核化，更加不可逆的无核化。（...it is the greater need now for more comprehensive, more thorough and more irreversible denuclearization.）”，“联合国应当发扬光大这一民主精神，推动各国在国际事务中权利平等、机会平等、规则平等，共同制定国际规则、共同治理全球事务、共同分享发展成果。（The UN should promote such spirit of democracy and make sure that all countries enjoy equal rights and opportunities and follow the same rules in international affairs. This way, countries can set international rules together, run global affairs together, and share in development achievements together.）”“尊重多样性、维护多样性、促进多样性，应该成为我们的自觉和自愿。（We should raise awareness about its importance and be more than willing to respect, protect and promote such diversity.）”

([http://www.fmprc.gov.cn/web/ziliao\\_674904/zyjh\\_674906/t1495748.shtml](http://www.fmprc.gov.cn/web/ziliao_674904/zyjh_674906/t1495748.shtml))

In the case of the Chinese text, it is also the discourse semantic resources of Judgment occupy the largest share among the three Affect resources, with it reaching 68.9%. When it comes to particular types of judgment resources, things are different.

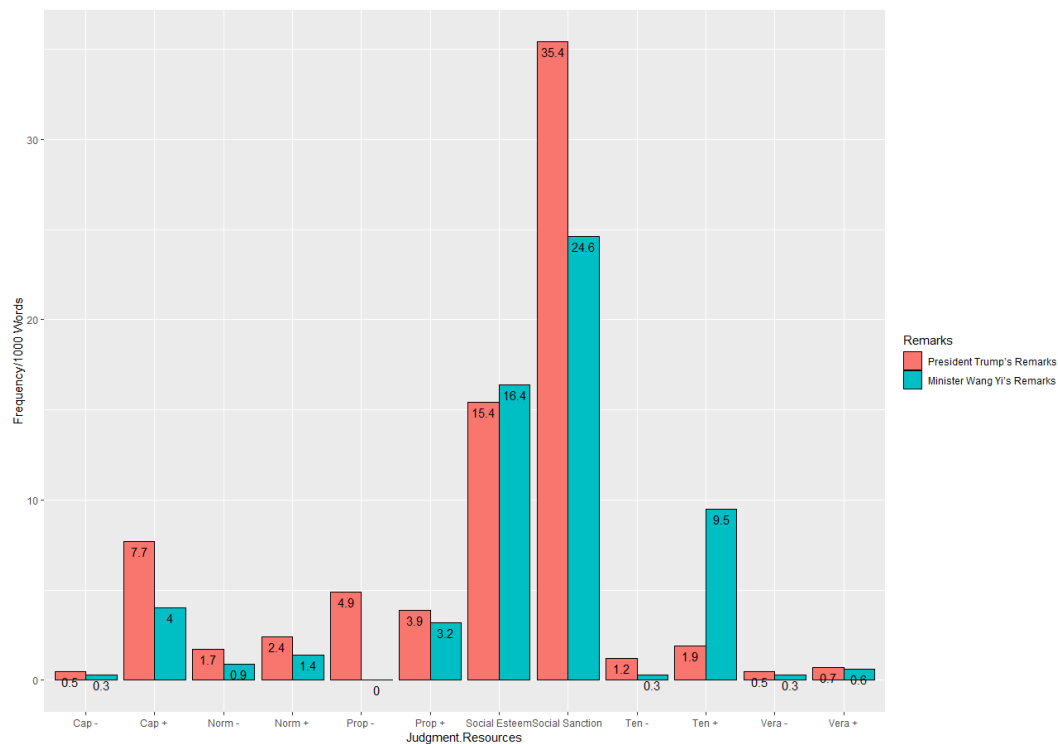
**3. Differences between American and Chinese Speeches within Judgment Subsystem**

As has been discussed above, unlike Affect and Appreciation subsystems, linguistic resources linked with Judgment system are most conspicuous in both leaders’ remarks. Thus, a further statistical study of each and every item within Judgment system will bring us closer toward how the leaders of the two big nations view different political systems, such as communism, dictatorship, terrorist or democracy; what political values the two great figures and their nations cherish, like values of solidarity, freedom, morality or equality; what political relations the two leaders think are correct, including power, hegemony, oppression, tolerance, and many other aspects of political discourses.

TABLE 3.  
JUDGMENT RESOURCES IN TRUMP AND WANG YI’S REMARK

	President Trump’s Remarks			Minister Wang Yi’s Remarks		
	Total Frequency	Frequency/100 Words	The Percentage in the Judgment System	Total Frequency	Frequency/100 Characters	The Percentage in the Judgment System
<b>Social Esteem</b>						
Norm	10	2.4	9.5%	5	1.4	7%
+						
Norm -	7	1.7	6.7%	3	0.9	4.2%
Cap +	32	7.7	30.5%	14	4	19.7%
Cap -	2	0.5	2%	1	0.3	1.4%
Ten +	8	1.9	7.6%	33	9.5	46.5%
Ten -	5	1.2	4.8%	1	0.3	1.4%
<b>Social Sanction</b>						
Vera +	3	0.7	2.9%	2	0.6	2.8%
Vera -	2	0.5	2%	1	0.3	1.4%
Prop +	16	3.9	15.2%	11	3.2	15.5%
Prop -	20	4.9	19%	0	0	0
Total	105	25.4		71	20.5	

TABLE 4.  
THE BAR CHART OF JUDGMENT RESOURCE IN TRUMP AND WANG YI'S REMARKS



From the above two tables, we will easily find the American president has used more linguistic resources of Social sanction, for Social sanction has more to do with penalties, punishments, as levers against those who do not comply with the code as instituted by church and state (Marin & White, 1999, p.52). The US government is often condemned by the world for being too aggressive and hegemonic, which can be evidenced by our research on the Judgment resources. Trump's remarks use both negative and positive Propriety resources to judge how far so-and-so is beyond reproach or not.

TABLE 5  
CHI-SQUARE TEST AND SIGNIFICANCE VALUE OF FREQUENCY/ 1000 WORDS/ CHARACTERS IN JUDGMENT SUBSYSTEM

Judgment Resources	President Trump's Remarks Frequency/1000 Words	Minister Wang Yi's Remarks Frequency/1000 Words	$\chi^2$	P Value
Social Esteem	15.4	16.4	0.032	0.857
Social Sanction	35.4	24.6	1.167	0.197
Norm +	2.4	1.4	0.333	0.564
Norm -	1.7	0.9	0.333	0.564
Cap +	7.7	4	1.333	0.248
Cap -	0.5	0.3	*	*
Ten +	1.9	9.5	5.333	<b>0.021</b>
Ten -	1.2	0.3	*	*
Vera +	0.7	0.6	0.000	1.000
Vera -	0.5	0.3	*	*
Prop +	3.9	3.2	0.143	0.705
Prop -	4.9	0	*	*

According to the results of the chi-square test above, there is a significant relationship between Tenacity+ item in President Trump and Chinese Foreign Minister Wang Yi's Remarks. As is shown in Table 5, for Tenacity+ item,  $\chi^2=5.333$ ,  $df=1$ ,  $p<0.05(0.021)$ . This is clear evidence that in terms of Tenacity+ item, the two leaders have great differences. It is important to note that, "Tenacity+" resources rank as the largest linguistic resources in all the subsystems and sub-categories in the Chinese discourses. China has displayed how dependable as the biggest developing nation the country is in the world affairs. Moreover, China has for many times shown the world how reliable and how robust the country's actions have been, and these have been witnessed by the countries the world over.

e.g. “中国始终是致力于和平的力量。我们为半岛核问题的和平解决做出了不懈努力。不管形势如何演变，不管需要多长时间，不管遇到什么困难，中国，都将坚守半岛无核化的目标，坚持对话谈判的方向，坚定维护地区的和平稳定。” (English translation from the website for the Ministry of Foreign Affairs: “China has always been a force for peace. We have made unremitting efforts for peaceful resolution of the nuclear issue on the Korean Peninsula. No matter how the situation evolves, no matter how long it takes, and no matter what difficulties lie ahead, China will

remain committed to the goal of denuclearization on the Korean Peninsula, stick to the direction of dialogue and negotiation and firmly uphold regional peace and stability.”)

([http://www.fmprc.gov.cn/web/ziliao\\_674904/zyjh\\_674906/t1495748.shtml](http://www.fmprc.gov.cn/web/ziliao_674904/zyjh_674906/t1495748.shtml))

In this part, Wang Yi states China's pivotal role in aiding the Korean Peninsula restoring its peace and security. Minister Wang Yi gives full play to “Tenacity” resources, such as “始终”(always), “不懈”(unremitting), “坚守”(remain committed to), “坚持”(stick to) and “坚定”(firmly) to prove to the world how dependable and how determined the Chinese government is in the great undertakings of world peace and stability. It has long been the Chinese government principle to develop relations of peace and friendship, equality and mutual benefit, and prolonged stability. These “Tenacity” resources are clear evidence of China's long-held peaceful foreign policies, which, through the remarks of the Chinese minister of Foreign Affairs, carry China's determination to maintain a fair and rational new international political and economic order.

### B. Discursive Practice Dimension

“Intertextuality” (Kristeva, J, 1986; Bakhtin, 1981; Zhang Quanfang, 2016) highlights the point that texts are linked with other texts, either in the past or in the present. Hawthorn (Hawthorn, 1994, p.99.) believes “intertextuality” refers to “relation between two more texts which as an effect upon the way in which the intertext (that is the text within which other texts reside or echo their presence) is read”. Fairclough (1992, p.4) maintains the discursive practice dimension, very much resembling “interaction” in the “text-and-interaction” view of discourse, reveals the essence of the processes of both discourse production and interpretation. Those elements closely related to the discursive event, such as the social environment, institutional or organizational circumstances will in this dimension be given premium on, and causes will be analyzed for what can account for the discursive event as well as the constitutive/ constructive effects of the discourse. The study of intertextuality can help to disclose the anonymous discursive practices, reveal to the audience the existing conditions of the previous discourses, to which the later discourses are given birth. First, in the stage of exploring into the reproduction and transmission of discourse, we may find, as far as both President Trump's and Wang Yi's speeches are concerned, there are intertextuality links between this oration and his other previous speeches. Intertextuality was first invented by Kristeva in the late 1960s, and Bakhtin (1986, p.46-47) thinks texts are inherently intertextual, which means texts are composed of components from other texts. Fairclough (1992, p.102) argues intertextuality has the power to transform prior texts and restructures the existing conventions, such as genres and discourses, to create new ones. It's not difficult to find that, to study the production of a discourse, intertextuality cannot be ignored. And relevant concepts like Recontextualization can be observed when we compare the two political remarks with other discourses.

Habermas (1984) proposed the colonization of the “life world” by the “systems” of the economy and the state. He thinks the originally cardinal roles of language as communicative tools have been replaced by “strategic of language”. From Table 6, we can see that the number of intertextuality in China Foreign Minister's remarks is much higher than the American president's speech. In Wang Yi's speech, the instances of intertextuality constitute as high as 11.7%. A further analysis into his remarks shows that these instances include both “indirect quotes” and “direct quotes”, whereas in the American president's speech, most intertextuality cases are “indirect quotes”. It can be seen that the American leaders are fond of using intertextuality resources from laws, legal texts and government documents. We have the impression that President Trump has made efforts to internalize ideology into his remarks. Here is one example: “As president of the United States, I will always put America first. Just like you, as the leaders of your countries, will and should always put your countries first.”

(<https://www.haaretz.com/us-news/full-text-trump-s-first-address-to-un-1.5452208>) “Putting America first” is American government's national policy, and Trump has held it high in his heart when vying with Hillary Clinton for American president. He thinks it is natural to put one's national interest first above anything else. On the side of Wang Yi's speech, he faithfully quotes the intertextuality by putting them in quotation marks. Examples include “本届联大将“以人为本：和平、尊严和可持续发展”作为主题，具有重要意义。(the theme of this year's General Assembly session, "Focusing on people: striving for peace and decent life for all on a sustainable planet", is a most relevant one)”, “两年前在这个讲坛上，中国国家主席习近平呼吁“构建以合作共赢为核心的新型国际关系，打造人类命运共同体”。(Two years ago at this very podium, Chinese President Xi Jinping called on us to foster a new type of international relations featuring win-win cooperation and to build a community of shared future for mankind.)” and “联合国要推动各方“彼此以善邻之道，和睦相处”，实现共同、综合、合作、可持续的安全。(The UN must encourage all its members to "live together in peace with one another as good neighbors", and achieve common, comprehensive, cooperative and sustainable security.)”

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TABLE 6  
FREQUENCIES AND PERCENTAGES OF INTERTEXTUALITY RESOURCES IN TRUMP AND WANG YI'S SPEECHES

Intertextuality Orator	Time Duration of Each Address	Instances of Intertextuality (The number of characters/ words)	The total Number of words/ characters of the speech	Percentage of intertextuality in each speech
US President Trump	60'	153	4134	3.7%
China Foreign Minister	16'	405	3459	11.7%

TABLE 7  
TYPES OF INTERTEXTUALITY RESOURCES

Intertextuality in Discourse	The Original Producer of Discourse being the Speaker's Compatriots (Frequency)	The Original Producer of Discourse Not being the Speaker's Compatriots (Frequency)	Citation with positive connotations (Frequency)	Citation with negative connotations (Frequency)	The total number of the occurrence of intertextuality instances (Frequency)
Remarks of Trump	11	0	10	1	11
Remarks of Wang Yi	20	27	44	3	47

From the above two tables, we can find both the percentages and frequencies of the instances of intertextuality are high in the two speeches. Examples of intertextuality of the English remarks constitute a percentage of 3.7, and the Chinese a percentage of 11.7, which is clear evidence of Bakhtin (1986)'s argument that discourses of whatever kind are characterized by the signals given by speakers or writers to show a transition, and will echo with previous utterances made by previous speakers or writers, point to anticipated utterances of future speaks or writers.

In Wang Yi's speech, for instance, he says, "展望未来，联合国的理想尚未实现，各国仍需继续努力。(The noble ideals of the UN are yet to be attained, and countries must make continued efforts toward those ideals:)"

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At first sight, there is not a single trace of intertextuality in this utterance, especially in the eyes of foreigners. For those illiterate Chinese, the conclusion might remain the same. However, we can find in the Founding Father of China Sun-Yatsen's will, there are utterances like, "革命尚未成功，同志仍需努力。(My Translation: The great career of revolution has not yet been accomplished, so our comrades still have a long way to go.)" "The insertion of the text into history respond, reaccentuate, reworks" (Kristeva, 1986) previous text by Dr. Sun-Yatsen, the prominent political figure before the founding of the new China, and by so doing, contributes to making history in today's world, and helps to disseminate China's voice toward global affairs. Another type of example, as found in Wang's remarks, reveals to the audience how "The Original Producer of Discourse Not being the Speaker's Compatriots" Category can be effective in winning the applause of the target audience, the majority of whom are accustomed to English remarks with rich Western culture.

In the following example, "全球化是不可阻挡的潮流。既不是"西方化"，也不是"东方化"；既不能搞"丛林法则"，更不能"赢者通吃"。(Globalization is an unstoppable trend. It is neither "Westernization" nor "Easternization". It should not follow the law of the jungle, still less the winner-takes-all approach.)"

([http://www.fmprc.gov.cn/web/ziliao\\_674904/zyjh\\_674906/t1495748.shtml](http://www.fmprc.gov.cn/web/ziliao_674904/zyjh_674906/t1495748.shtml))

Regrettably, the number of this type of intertextuality is rather small, indicative of the room for improvement in China's future diplomatic discourses. "The Law of Jungle"<sup>1</sup> means the cruel rule of "survival of the fittest" or "every man for himself" in societies or in the natural world. Rudyard & Kipling (2007) in his novel *the Jungle Book*, wrote the poems concerning the theme of the jungle.

On the side of President Trump, he alluded to "the Marshall Plan", "the United States Constitution" as well as its content—"We are the people". He mentioned, for one, "the Institution" several times, so as to highlight the same aspect of American policy, scattered respectively in the genre of legal document and the genre of oration. Trump has made the "vertical intertextual relations" (Kristeva, 1986, p.30) accessible to the audience by minimizing the differences of parameters and various texts in terms of one theme. Trump has assigned new meanings to the Constitution, that is, as a successful canon for people the world over to follow. In so doing, Trump "reaccentuates" (Bakhtin, 1986, p.79-80) the American Constitution in a reverent and glorified fashion in order to disseminate the American value.

It is easy to find that both leaders have a preference to the intertextuality of Category of "The Original Producer of Discourse being the Speaker's Compatriots". There might be a couple of reasons for their practices. Both leaders are very familiar with anecdotes and quotations in their native land, so it is natural to use these language resources at hand. Besides, both leaders are apt to impress the audience with rhetorics rich in peculiar national characteristics. In this regard, Wang Yi, like other Chinese leaders, has a preference for using famous lines from classical Chinese texts.

<sup>1</sup> "Law of the Jungle." Oxford English Dictionary Online. Oxford University Press. n.d. Web. 10 May 2013.

Examples include, “彼此以善邻之道，和睦相处(live together in peace with one another as good neighbors)”, “我们要推动不同文明‘百花齐放’，鼓励不同文化‘百家争鸣’，促成不同国度‘百舸争流’。(We should encourage different civilizations, cultures and countries to flourish together through interactions and healthy competition.)”.

([http://www.fmprc.gov.cn/web/ziliao\\_674904/zyjh\\_674906/t1495748.shtml](http://www.fmprc.gov.cn/web/ziliao_674904/zyjh_674906/t1495748.shtml))

### C. *Social Practice Dimension*

Social practices, in whatever forms, can be regarded as discursive constructions about relevant topics at a particular period in history. On the plane of national ideology, Donald Trump has earnestly preached what is representative of American government’s best interest. Discourse means more than a media of communication or transmission of information. According to Fairclough (1989, p.77), ideological assumptions will inevitably be embodied by discourses as “common sense”. The ideology of a nation will be institutionalized through a network of powers, and knowledge is applied to operate to help form what is truth for the US by means of discursive practices. These types of truth, once formed, will become “naturalized” as backgrounded national ideologies, which may exert its powerful dominance and control individuals and communities. Trump gives full play to his power of the American president, by manipulating and controlling his discourse practice so as to consolidate and construct “ideological—discursive formations” These IDFs, much resembling the concept of speech community, helps to constitute social systems (Fairclough, 1995). He, as one of the authors of the IDFs, and, also the representative of the American ideology, proactively participates in the constructing practice of “technologizing” political discourses, and the technologization of discourses, in turn, reveals how discourses are shaped and manipulated by power. In Foucault’s theory, he sees discourse as larger systems of thought, which can be used to regulate people’s behavior. In this sense, power, ideology and discourse are thus closely interrelated. In Trump’s speech, he does his utmost to preach to the world the cardinal American values and national interest by flamboyantly boasting about America’s indispensable role in defending world peace, dispelling ruthless despots, and upholding democracy and freedom. In Trump’s discourse, he says “authority and authoritarian powers seek to collapse the values, the systems, and alliances...”, this reveals that (Fairclough, 1989, p.32-34) ideology has a part to play to “coerce” others to go with them, otherwise they will exercise their power of penalty and ultimate sanctions by winning other nations’ consent or acquiescence in their possession and exercise of power. Trump also mentions “the depraved regime in North Korea”, who “is responsible for the starvation deaths of millions of North Koreans.”, thus justifying American diplomatic and military strategies against this country.

(<https://www.haaretz.com/us-news/full-text-trump-s-first-address-to-un-1.5452208>) By repeatedly inculcating American ideology into its native land as well as the world, Trump will successfully keep the balance of consent and coercion on the basis of a series of political beliefs. Behind the technologizing of discourse is the ideology of “American First” (Shen Yamei, 2018). “American First” as national level ideology can find its origin in the prevalent nationalist and protectionist movement in the 1930s. Today, President Trump begins to use this slogan once again, with its connotations somewhat changed in the new age. Obviously, Trump has seen “American First” as one important national ideology to “to make American great again”. The president makes sure that his discourse perfectly matches the canons of these ideological requirements. In contrast to Trump’s denouncement of North Korea and Iran as “corrupt dictatorship” “oppressive regime” or “rogue state”, China presents to the world a different national ideology by building “a community of shared future for mankind.”

## V. CONCLUSION

The research focuses on two political remarks, respectively delivered by the American president Donald Trump and Chinese foreign minister Wang Yi in the 2017 UN Assembly. Under the classical Three-dimensional analytical CDA pattern, we carried out our analysis from the linguistic perspective of text, discursive practice and social practice. The research findings show that: on the first dimension of linguistic text, by applying Martin’s Attitude system, we found, in the interpersonal aspect, leaders in both countries have resorted more to Judgment resources in their remarks rather than the other two resources of the Affect System. Within the Judgment system, there is significant difference between Tenacity+ resources in the two leaders’ remarks. On the second dimension of our analysis, namely, discursive practice, we found both leaders use a number of intertextuality resources in their remarks. Besides, both leaders have a preference to the intertextuality of Category of “The Original Producer of Discourse being the Speaker’s Compatriots”. The Chinese politicians have a preference to quote statements of Chinese ancient sages, whereas the American leaders are fond of using intertextuality resources from laws, legal texts and government documents.

### NOTES

The data resource of American president Donald Trump—

<https://www.haaretz.com/us-news/full-text-trump-s-first-address-to-un-1.5452208>

The data resource of Chinese Foreign Minister—Wang Yi:

[http://www.fmprc.gov.cn/web/ziliao\\_674904/zyjh\\_674906/t1495748.shtml](http://www.fmprc.gov.cn/web/ziliao_674904/zyjh_674906/t1495748.shtml)

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# Communicative Competence of the Saudi Learners of English at the Faculty of Languages and Translation, King Khalid University

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**Abstract**—Saudi students of English at the tertiary level King Khalid University, encounter so many difficulties in real communicative situations due to the influence of the traditional methods of teaching English at the intermediate and secondary schools. The researcher conducted a questionnaire consists of eight questions in order to find out the main difficulties of the learners. The sample of the pilot study was ten students and the actual population of the study was ninety students from level four and eight. The learners' responses indicate that they lack the needed skills of communication strategies which usually lead to communication breakdown. For example, they change the topic when they feel there are some gaps in their speech. This literally means that students resort to risk-avoiding instead of risk-taking. The findings of the study point out the extent to which the Saudi students' first language influences their tendency of using some of the target language communication strategies. It is recommended that the linguistic competence should be taught implicitly whereas the functional competence should be taught explicitly during spoken English classes which may compensate for their lack of exposure to the target language.

**Index Terms**—communicative competence, communication strategies, communication breakdown, lack of exposure

## I. INTRODUCTION

One of the main difficulties of the Saudi learners of English when they join the Faculty of Languages and Translation at King Khalid University is their lack of oral proficiency. Students can hardly understand simple questions, let alone answering them. Their reading and writing abilities are much better than their listening and speaking. This indicates clearly that students did not get enough practice of the spoken language during their studies at the intermediate and secondary schools. The textbooks used at these stages obviously do not help the learners to communicate in English in daily life situations. Students do not have any formal oral tests during their studies at the intermediate and secondary schools. As a result of this negligence at the early stages of their studies, students encounter many problems at the tertiary level in listening and speaking.

This paper attempts to shed lights into the main problems of the Saudi learners' oral proficiency and to suggest some solutions to help the learners to overcome their difficulties in listening and speaking.

## II. HYPOTHESES

The researcher hypothesizes that there is a correlation between:

1. Students' low oral proficiency and lack of communication strategies,
2. Students' low oral proficiency and lack of exposure to the target language and its culture.

## III. BASIC RESEARCH QUESTIONS:

Which of the following factors affect the Saudi learners' communicative competence most and lead to communication breakdown?

1. Lack of communication strategies.
2. Lack of exposure to the target language and its culture.

## IV. LITERATURE REVIEW

By early nineteen eighties a change in the second language pedagogy gave birth to the Communicative Approach which was a revolution against the traditional approaches. It aims at developing the learners' communicative competence. In other words, it is mainly concerned with developing the communicative ability in language learners. Howatt (1984) indicates that the original motivation for developing a Communicative Approach was remedial, an attempt to overcome the inadequacies of existing structural syllabi, materials and methods. However, the recent

approach is organized on the basis of communicative functions. It does not ignore the role of grammar in the process of language teaching but questions the usefulness of grammatical rules without their application to real life situations.

V. CHARACTERISTICS OF THE COMMUNICATIVE APPROACH

The goal of Communicative Approach is to make learners communicatively competent. Of course, this has been the stated goal of many of the traditional methods, but in the Communicative Approach the notion of what it takes to be communicatively competent is much extended.

Communicative competence involves being able to use the language appropriately in a given social context. To do this, students need knowledge of the linguistic forms, meaning, and functions. Dorney and Thurell 1997, p.141-152

The term "Communicative Competence" was coined by Dell Hymes (1972) a sociolinguistic who was convinced that Chomsky's (1965) notion of competence was limited. In view of Chomsky's (1965) strong claim that that competence is to be associated exclusively with a knowledge of the rules of grammar, Hymes (1972) proposed a broader notion of competence, that of 'Communicative Competence'. This notion intends to include not only grammatical competence (implicit and explicit knowledge of the rules of grammar) but also context or sociolinguistic competence (implicit and explicit knowledge of the rules of language use). He is (ibid) of the view that there are rules of grammar that would be useless without rules of language use (Hymes 1972, p, 141-161).

VI. DEFINITION OF COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE

Richard's (1992:65) defines Communicative Competence as:

The ability not only to apply the grammatical rules of a language in order to form grammatically correct sentences but also to know when and where to use these sentences and to whom.

Ellis (1994) indicates that:

Communicative competence includes knowledge that speaker – hearer has of what constitutes appropriate as well as correct language behavior and also of what constitutes effective language behavior in relation to particular communicative rules.

Savignon (1983:87) is of the view that:

Communicative Competence is relative, not absolute, and depends on the cooperation of all the participants involved.

According to Canale and Swain (1980) and later in Canale (1983) definition, four different components or subcategories make up the construction of communicative competence. The first two subcategories reflect the use of the linguistic system itself. "Grammatical Competence" is that aspect of communicative competence that encompasses knowledge of lexical items and rules of morphology, syntax, sentence- grammar semantics, and phonology. It is the competence that we associate with mastering the linguistic code of a language or the "Linguistic Competence". The second subcategory is "Discourse Competence" the complement of grammatical competence in many ways. It is the ability to connect sentences in stretches of discourse and to form a meaningful whole out of a series of utterances. In other words, it focuses on discourse of supra-sentential (above the sentence) level – those properties of language which bind the sentences together such as coherence; whereas grammatical competence focuses on sentence level grammar.

The last two subcategories define more functional aspects of communication. "Sociolinguistic Competence" is the knowledge of sociocultural rules. This type of competence requires an understanding of the social context in which language is used by participants, the information they share and the functions of the interaction. They are concerned with style, register, appropriateness (degree of politeness) and so on.

The fourth subcategory is "Strategic Competence". Canale and Swain (1980:40) describe strategies competence as:

The verbal and nonverbal Communicative Strategies that may be called into action to compensate for breakdown in communication due to performance variable or due to insufficient competence.

The components of communicative competence can be illustrated as follows:

- 1. Grammatical competence } Linguistic Competence
- 2. Discourse competence }
- 3. Sociolinguistic competence } Functional Competence
- 4. Strategic competence }

Though communicative Approach came as a reaction against the traditional methods and sought to improve learners' Communicative Competence, it can be noted that more and more materials in modern course books are designed to develop 'Linguistic Competence' in the learners. On the other hand, ' Strategic Competence' which is regarded as the most important element in communication is utterly neglected. Therefore, learners' Communicative Competence cannot be improved merely by developing some of its components (i.e. Grammatical Competence and Discourse Competence) which represent the linguistic system. Thus, activating strategic competence is of crucial importance of foreign

language learners. Researchers in this field indicate that lack of strategic competence may account for situations when students get stuck and are unable to carry out their communicative intent.

Nunan (1987:136) has pointed out this phenomenon, he says:

While a great deal has been written on the theory and practice of communicative language teaching, there have been comparatively few studies of actual communicative language practice.

## VII. DEFINITION OF STRATEGIC COMPETENCE

One of the problems has occupied researchers of CSs from the beginning concerns the identification of CSs. This issue is still controversial to date. Poulisse (1994) indicates that of all definitions of CSs that have been offered so far, the one by Faerch and Kasper (1983) is the most widely used. They define CSs as "Potential conscious plans for solving what presents itself as a problem in reaching a particular communicative goal". In this definition problem-orientedness is adopted as a primary and potential consciousness as a secondary criterion. In practice, this means that CSs can be identified when speakers are aware of a problem in their communication.

Ugla (2019) indicates that the speakers use strategic competence to communicate smoothly and fluently through FL. The importance of strategic competence is to work with the strategic knowledge verbally and non-verbally to compensate for failures. For instance: a speaker corrects himself and at the same time strengthens his communication ability. Oral communication is always known as communication strategies.

Al Alawi (2016) indicates that "Among Arab speaking students in Oman, it has been observed that many learners struggle while communicating in English. They cannot express their ideas or interact with other people freely. Many of them are very hesitant to communicate because of their inadequate competence in the target language".

Selinker (1972) coined the term "Communication Strategies" (CSs) in his seminal paper on "Interlanguage", discussing strategies of second language "Communication" as one of the five central processes involved in L2 learning. However, it was Varadi (1992) who first empirically studied this phenomenon, namely, "Strategies of target language learner communication". In 1973, he presented a paper at a small European conference on "Message Adjustment" in which he considered the first systematic analysis of strategic language behavior. But that paper was not published till 1980. In the seventies, Tarone, Cohen and Dumas (1976), Tarone (1977) published two studies on CSs in which they provide the first definition of CS as well as the first lexical taxonomy.

Richards (1992:354) defines strategic competence:

An aspect of communicative competence which describes the ability of speakers to use verbal and non-verbal communication strategies to compensate for breakdown in communication or to improve the effectiveness of communication. For example, a learner may lack a particular word or structure and may have to use a paraphrase or circumlocution to compensate.

This indicates that, communication strategies are the means of strategic competence; and that the use of strategy is called for only when the learner faces some problems in a communicative situation. Varadi (1992:137) points out that "the original insight into communication strategies was based on a mismatch between communicative intention and linguistic resources." This implies that communication strategies are used only when a speaker perceives that there is a problem which might interrupt communication.

In fact, strategic competence occupies a special place in understanding communication. It is the way we manipulate language in order to achieve our communicative goals. Paribakht (1985) conducted an empirical study in which she investigated the Strategic Competence in relation to language proficiency. Poulisse, 1996 compared native and non-native speakers' Communicative Strategies (CS) used in a task which required the subjects to describe concrete and abstract concepts (e.g., palanquin and hammock verses fate and honesty). The study involved 60 subjects: 20 native speakers of English, and two groups of 20 Iranian learners of English. The difference between the types of CS used by the three groups was minimal. The groups did differ, however, in the relative frequency with which they used a number of CS types. In comparison with advanced learners and native speakers, initial learners made more use of their knowledge of the world and of paralinguistic knowledge (i.e., mime and gestures) when they had to compensate for the limitations of their linguistic knowledge. This led Paribakht to conclude that CS use and L2 proficiency level are related.

Chen (1990:156) states that:

One can develop learners' communicative competence by building up their strategic competence that is their ability to use communication strategies that allow them to cope with various communication problems that they might encounter.

Chen (ibid) conducted a study on 12 Chinese learners to explore the relationship between learners' language proficiency and their Strategic Competence. He adopted a concept-identification task as the communicative task. There were 24 concepts: 12 concrete and 12 abstracts; each concept within the concrete and abstract category had the same difficulty level. Each subject was required to communicate two concrete and two abstract concepts from the 24 to a native speaker interlocutor in an interview situation. The subjects were asked to convey the items to the native speakers, who did not know which concepts were being transmitted – without using the exact target words so that they were

forced to make use of CSs. The native speaker's task was to identify the concept and at the same time to rank the communicativeness of the strategy used to convey each concept. The major findings were:

1. The frequency of the CSs employed by the Chinese EFL learners in their target language communication was found to vary according to their proficiency level. The CSs employed by the low-proficiency learners significantly outnumbered those employed by the high proficiency learners.

2. The relative frequency with which Chinese EFL learners selected different types of CSs in their target language communication was found to vary according to their proficiency level. Linguistic-based CSs were more frequently employed by the high-proficiency learners whereas knowledge-base and repetition CSs were more extensively used by the low-proficiency learners.

3. A positive relationship was found between the Chinese EFL learners' proficiency level and their communicative effectiveness. High-proficiency learners were more efficient in their use of CSs than were low-proficiency learners.

4. Not only the language proficiency, but also the language distance between the learners' L1 and L2 was found to affect their choice of CSs. No obvious L1-based CSs were employed by Chinese EFL learners of both high and low proficiency due to lack of formal similarity between the learners' L1 (Chinese) and L2 (English).

So far, the most comprehensive study of CS is the one conducted by the University of Nijmegen (Poullisse 1990). The Nijmegen project was set up to investigate the proficiency effect, the relationship between CS use in L1 and L2 and the effectiveness of various CS types. Only compensatory strategies were studied.

Rabab'ah (2016) is of the view that:

Second/foreign language learners' speaking ability is sometimes interrupted by a gap in their linguistic knowledge. In trying to fill the gap, they employ communication strategies to keep the conversation going. If they fail to do so successfully, this gap may cause frustration breakdown. Research has shown that both native and non-native speakers of English employ communication strategies, but non-native speakers use them more frequently due to their limited linguistic sources.

According to Nakatani (2010:118), the term oral communication strategy is used to "highlight interlocutors' negotiation behavior for coping with communication breakdowns and their use of communication enhancers".

Rabab'ah (2005) suggests that learners of the foreign/second language should be exposed to variety of tasks and activities to enhance their communicative ability and that should be integrated into ELT syllabus.

Littlewood (1981) is of the view that:

Learners must draw on a wider range of skills and strategies in order to new meanings across. There is a gradual increase in the range of communicative functions that are likely to occur. Learners also need to develop greater skills for managing the interaction, e.g., signaling disagreement or interrupting without offence. There is increasing opportunity for learners to express their own individuality in discussion.

Faucette (2001) is of the view that communication strategies need to be taught such as circumlocution, paraphrase and approximation to enable the learners to keep the channel of the communication open. Similarly, Dornyei and Scott (1997) recommended teaching five interaction strategies (appeal for help, asking for repetition, clarification request, confirmation request, and guessing), which can help the learners to negotiate the meaning with their interlocutors.

Dornyei (1995) indicates that the real career of CSs started in the early eighties when Varadi published his article "Strategic of Target Language Learner Communication: Message Adjustment". Then followed by Canale and Swain (1980): Canale (1983), Faerch and Kasper (1983a) published and edited volume, "Strategies in Interlanguage Communication", which pulled together the most important published papers on CSs at that time. Many publications appeared focusing primarily on identifying and classifying CSs. The most important research on CSs appeared in the second half of 1980s at the University of Nijmegen (Netherlands). The results of that research shed light on various aspects of CSs use and challenged some aspects of the previous taxonomies.

Bialystok (1990) and Poulliss's (1990) researches were another important contribution in the field of CSs.

Finally, the second half of the 1990s brought further empirical and conceptual analyses of the teachability of CSs which is introduced as a new dimension in the field of second language teaching.

## VIII. TYPOLOGIES OF CSS

Faerch and Kasper (1983) classify communication strategies into three major types:

1. Formal reduction strategies
2. Functional strategies and
3. Achievement strategies.

### 1) **Formal reduction strategies**

These are strategies by learners to avoid producing non-fluent or incorrect utterances. Using such strategies, learners focus on the use of specific, limited rules or patterns that they can perfectly master. The purpose of utilizing these strategies, which deal with linguistic aspects of the target language, i.e., phonology, morphology, syntax and lexis, is to avoid errors and to facilitate speech.

### 2) **Functional reduction strategies:**

These strategies are used when the learners have experienced problems in the planning phase (due to insufficient linguistic resources) or the execution phase (retrieval problems). The aim of such strategies is to avoid rather than to achieve.

### 3) Achievement Strategies:

Whereas the previous two kinds of strategies are to solve communication problems using avoidance, achievement strategies make use of communication resources expansion. They are used both in the planning and executive phase. Achievement strategies used in planning phase are called compensatory strategies. They are classified as follows:

- a) **Code switching:** Tarone, Cohen and Dumas (1983) refer to it as language switch. This means a change by a speaker from one language or variety to another one. It can take place in a conversation when one speaker uses one language and the other speaker answers in a different language. A person may start speaking one language and then change to another one in the middle of their speech or sometimes even in the middle of a sentence.
- b) **Interlanguage transfer:** It is similar to code switching but rather it includes the shift to a combination of linguistic features of the native language and the Interlanguage. Here, the learner combines a word in their native language with a word in the foreign language that has similar spelling or pronunciation but with different meaning. For example, the Danish word "history" which means "story" may be matched with the English word "history".
- c) **Inter-intralingual transfer:** This strategy includes overgeneralization of grammatical rules. For example, the words "people" and "information" will be pluralized as "peoples\*" and "informations\*" which means the learner did not master the exceptions of the grammatical rules of the target language.
- d) **Interlanguage-based strategies:** These are strategies affected by problems that learners face in their interlanguage system. To solve these problems, learners may use 'generalization, paraphrase, and/or word coinage (using new words of the individual's own to express what that individual wants to say, e.g., "inner clothes" for "underwear").
- e) **Cooperative strategies:** Such strategies are used when learners fail to communicate successfully, and ask for help from the listener, the teacher, a friend and so on.
- f) **Non-linguistic strategies:** In face to face communication, the learners may use non-verbal mime, gesture, and signals.

Whereas achievements strategies aiming at solving problems at the planning phase are called compensatory strategies, achievement strategies used to overcome obstacles in the execution phase are retrieval strategies. The retrieval strategies are categorized in Faerch and Kasper (1983) as follow:

1. Waiting for the term to appear, appealing to/formality, retrieving via semantic fields, searching via other language, retrieving from learning situations and sensory procedures.
  - 1) Avoiding communication
  - 2) Adjust the message
  - 3) Use paraphrase
  - 4) Use approximation
  - 5) Create new words
  - 6) Switch to the native language
  - 7) Use non-linguistic resources
  - 8) Seek help

He (ibid) suggests that when the learner is aware of gaps or weaknesses in his linguistic repertoire and when he feels that others are competing for turns, he chooses to avoid participating in the discussion of the topic. When the learner cannot avoid participating, he may choose to adjust the message to the linguistic resources available to him. For example, he may omit some information which he is unable to express or may express it less precisely by slightly changing the meaning. He may also describe a word or a concept for which he does not know the target language expression, which is called paraphrase. For example, if he does not know the word "kettle" he may use a definition such as "a thing we boil water in". In place of the word, sometimes the learner may use a word or a phrase which is very close to the target language expression (the strategy of approximation). For example, if the learner wants to refer to a "water-pipe" but does not know the word, then he may call it a "pipe".

Corder (1983:104-106) points out that all strategies used by learners fall under two macro-strategies. They are:

1. Message adjustment or risk-avoidance or

## 2. Resource expression or risk-running strategies.

He maintains that when the learner is faced with a situation where his linguistic resources do not permit him to express himself successfully the learner has only two options open for him. He can either tailor/adjust the message to the linguistic resources available to him (the strategy of message adjustment) or he can attempt to increase his resources by one means or another in order to realize his communicative intentions (the strategy of resource expansion).

In message adjustment the learner either refuses to enter into or continue a discourse with some field or topic because of a total linguistic inadequacy (which is called strategy of topic avoidance or he tries but give up or says something slightly different from what was intended. These are message abandonment and semantic avoidance strategies respectively. Here the learner compromises on the message. In resource expansion the learner attempts to increase his resources by one way or another in order to realize his communicative intentions rather than compromise on the intended message.

## IX. THE EFFECT OF CSS ON ORAL COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE

There is little agreement on the role CSs should play in foreign language classrooms. Some people have propagated the view that learners should receive explicit instruction as to what CSs are and what kind of CSs they could use.

Research on effects of this kind of direct instruction is scant and contradictory; some investigators claim that learner's communicative abilities were greatly improved after they received instruction in CSs use. For example, Savignon (1972), who calls them "coping strategies", Buch (1989), Chen (1990) Rost and Ross (1991), Dornyei and Thurrell (1991), Dornyei and Thurrell (1991), Dornyei and Thurrell (1994), Dornyei (1995), Dornyei and Scott (1977).

Other investigators have argued that there is no need to explicitly teach CSs since second language (L2) learners who generally know how and when to use CSs in their first language (L1) are able to transfer their strategic competence to L2 situations. They know what kind of descriptions to give to unknown words and know that transfer strategies are likely to be successful. Thus, L2 learners do not so much need to develop their strategic competence, but rather need to learn how to perform it.

Chen (1990) rejects the idea that Strategic Competence is transformable from L1 to L2. His argument is that learners employ CSs every now and then, but may not be able to use the appropriate CSs spontaneously. Dornyei (1995) supports Chen's point of view when he argues that learners come to the L2 classroom with the skill of "reading" in their L1. So why do we have to teach them to read in the target language since they have already acquired the skill?

O'Mally (1987:143) provides some evidence for the teachability of strategic competence. He indicates that:

Teachers should be confident that there exist a number of strategies which can be embedded into their existing curricula, that can be taught to student with only modest extra effort, and that can improve the overall class performance... Future research should be directed to refining the strategy training approaches, identifying effects associated with individual strategies, and determining procedures for strengthening the impact of the strategies on student outcomes.

O'Malley and Chamot (1990:184) emphasizes that learning strategy training should be direct, that is "students should be appraised of the goal of strategy instruction and should be made aware of the strategies they are being taught". Oxford 1990 supports the idea of direct strategy training. She says:

Research shows strategy training which fully informs the learners (by indicating why the strategy is useful, how it can be transferred to different tasks, and how learners can evaluate the success of this strategy) is more successful than training that does not. Oxford (1990, p.207).

Chen (1990) agrees with Faerch and Kasper (1983) that strategic competence could be taught explicitly in the L2 classroom. He sees that it is possible to do something about our teaching method to make it conducive to the development of learners' Strategic Competence. That means teaching the learners how to use CSs appropriately and effectively as part of the classroom syllabus. Bialystok (1983) argues that strategy training could enable them to recognize particular communicative problems and employ particular CSs, which are the most effective ones to solve these problems.

Rost and Ross (1991) support the idea of teaching CSs explicitly. They came to this conclusion from their study of using CSs for teaching listening comprehension to a group of learners "Identification – task strategies". Their findings indicate that the strategies they implemented in their study are highly teachable.

Some studies did investigate the potential usefulness of the specific training of CSs, and provide evidence that explicit instruction can increase both the quality and quantity of communicative competence.

## X. PIONEER STUDIES IN CSS TRAINING

Savignon (1972) was one of the pioneers in this field. She seems to have realized that the mastery of the mechanics of a language did not ensure the ability use of the language of communication. She also observed that the traditional teaching practice did not help or lead to authentication. Therefore, she started to think of the possibility of creating authenticity in second language teaching in the classroom. That means producing some materials for teaching verbal

exchange based on real life situations. That means producing some materials for teaching verbal exchange base on real life situations. She was concerned mainly with the skills that are needed to get ones' meaning across, to do things in the second language, to say what one really wants to say. She conducted an experiment in which she studied the communicative skills and grammar skills of three groups of college students enrolled in and introductory audio-lingual French Course in the United States. All three groups received the same number of hours of instruction in the standard (formal and grammatical) program, but one group had an additional hour to a "culture lab" program and the third spent an additional hour in a language laboratory program. We will refer to these groups as the communicative competence (CC) group, the culture group, and grammatical competence group.

She found that although there was no significant difference among groups on tests of grammatical competence, the 'CC' group scored significantly higher than the other two groups on four communicative tests she developed. Savignon's finding was that students who had received training in communicative skills felt better prepared to use their limited knowledge of French to (its best) advantage. Freed from an overt concern with linguistic accuracy; they were able to communicate in French whereas the other control groups were not.

Buch (1989) observed that some learners manage to participate in the target language communicative situations, whereas the majority fail though they have more or the same socio-economic, educational and linguistic to use the language for communication. She also observed that he traditional teaching practice did not help or lead to authentic communication. Therefore, she started to think of the possibility of creating authenticity in second language teaching in the classroom. That means producing some materials for teaching verbal exchange based on real life situations. She was concerned mainly with the skills that are needed to get ones' meaning across, to do things in the second language, to say what one really wants to say. She conducted an experiment in which she studied the communicative skills and grammar skills of three groups of college students enrolled in an introductory audio-lingual French Course in the United States. All three groups received the same number of hours of instruction in the standard (formal and grammatical) program, but one group had an additional class-hour per week devoted to communicative tasks (where the emphasis was mainly on getting one's meaning across). The second group got an additional hour to a "culture lab" program and the third spent an additional hour in a language laboratory program. WE will refer to these groups as the communicative competence (CC) group, the culture group, and grammatical competence group.

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Buch (1989) observed that some learners manage to participate in the target language communicative situations, whereas the majority fail though they have more or less the same socio-economic, education and linguistic background and almost the same linguistic repertoire. Therefore, she conducted a study to develop the ability of using CSs in learners who were inhibited from using CSs (and thus, fail to participate in TL communicative situations). In her study, she prepared a set of activities on the assumption that in performing those activities learners would resort to various CSs. However, I order to find out whether they contribute to the development of use of CS, a 14-day pilot teaching program was carried out at Gujarat Land Society Institute of English (GLSIE), Ahmedabad.

The learners chosen for pilot program were seven learners form the senior batch of GLSIE. Those learners came from more or less the same socioeconomic background. The learners were informed about the purpose of the pilot program and the kind o activities they were going to be involved in.

The use of CSs was not taught explicitly or separately. It was encouraged and induced by allowing learners to use CSs, by the teacher using CSs in her own conversation and demonstrating the use of CSs when learners fell short of TL expression.

The use of mother tongue (MT) was not only allowed but also encouraged in the initial stages. The teacher also used MT in the beginning and gradually switched over completely to the TL and also the learners were asked to interact only in the TL in the later stages.

These activities were also observed by one more observer who was a senior researcher in the area of English Language Teaching. The researcher came to the conclusion that the outcome of the pilot program was successful. That means, the use of CSs enabled the learners to express themselves better. Moreover, it increased the learner's participation in the classroom activities which enhanced TL interaction. Besides, the task and activities (used in the pilot program) interested in the learners and they could involve learners in target language interaction. A positive change with regard to learners' language behavior was also noticed towards the end of the program. That means strategy training helps the learners to participate in TL communication effectively.

Dornyei and Thurrell (1991) conducted an empirical study on the teachability of CSs. They believed that CSs can be taught in the classroom for L2 learners explicitly as well as implicitly. In 1991 they reported their experiment on teaching some aspects of "message adjustment" and resource expansion skills. They taught:

- a) Fillers
- b) Going off the point (avoiding giving information)



## c) Paraphrase and circumlocution

- i. Explanation
- ii. Definition
- iii. Paraphrasing
- iv. Appeal for help

## a) Fillers

Dornyei and Thurrell (1991) used the term "fillers" to refer to hesitation devices, pauses, etc., but this term was developed further in Dornyei (1995a) and replaced by "stalling for time-gaining strategies". The latter term included different aspects that allow the speaker to think properly of the next word or words. It gives more time for "maneuvering" and for carrying on the conversation in times of difficulty. Time-gaining, for example, give the speaker/learner a good chance to re-plan his ideas according to the situation.

These fillers or time-gaining expressions range from very short structures (well, I mean, actually, you know), to what are almost phrases (as a matter of fact, to be quite honest, now let me think, I'll tell you what, I see what you mean, etc.).

Dornyei and Thurrell (*ibid*) suggest that the use of these devices can be encouraged right from the early stages. The teacher should make his learners aware of the usefulness of fillers whenever possible.

## b) Going off the point

This strategy trains the learners how to evade an answer smoothly when they do not want to, or simply cannot answer a question. Moreover, it trains them how to steer the conversation in a desired direction. This, of course, will enable the learners to control the conversation even if something unexpected occurs. An example from Dornyei and Thurrell (1991:20-21). Avoiding giving information:

The teacher addressed a student with a question that asks for specific information, for example, how old are you? The students must respond in two or three sentences without actually giving that particular information. A possible answer might be, for example, "Well, that's an interesting question. Isn't it strange how people always feel that they need to know the age of a person? I don't really think that age is important at all.

They also suggest that there should be some preparation time in the first stage of these activities. The preparation time should be decreased gradually till the learners get used to these activities.

## c) Paraphrase (circumlocution)

## i) Explanation

Dornyei and Thurrell (1991) suggest that the teacher could hand out a slip of paper to each student with the name of an object on each slip. Everybody in turn must try to "explain" their word to the others without actually saying what it is. Students jot down their guesses for all the words and the winner is the person whose word has been found out by the most students.

## ii) Definition

Similarly, the learners can be trained to "define" objects. For example, in pairs, students are given the name of an object (e.g., car) which they must define by using relative clauses (e.g., 'A car is a vehicle in which you can travel'). Each pair in turn reads out their definition, while the other pairs check whether it is precise enough. If it is not – that is, if they can find another object that the definition suits (e.g., 'bus' in this case) they get a point and for another point they must give a more specific definition (e.g., 'a car is a small vehicle in which you can travel'). Again, this new definition is also open for discussion (Dornyei and Thurrell 1991).

## iii) Paraphrase, for example:

So, you are saying that....

You mean ..... etc.

This is a very useful strategy for learners to clarify what they have heard and to invite the interlocutor to help if they have misunderstood something.

## iv) Interruption:

Student 1 asks a question; student 2 interrupts by asking him/her to repeat a word again, for example:

S 1: London is the Capital.....?

S 2: Sorry, can you repeat the word after the Capital?

Or what does the word 'capital' mean? Or did you say that London is the capital of...?

Saraswati (1991:117) came to the conclusion from her study which she conducted on an Indian post-doctoral research scholar at Edinburgh that:

Since communication strategies play a significant role in communication, it may be useful to build in enough challenge into course materials in order to create conditions congenial for the use of strategic competence.

Similarly, Faerch and Kasper (1983:55) indicate that:

If by teaching we also mean making learners conscious about aspects of their (already existing) behavior, it is obvious that we should teach them about strategies.

Dornyei and Thurrell (1994) believe that a given conversation course, taught directly, needs to be based on four categories of conversation skills. The following is a description of these skills:

1. Conversational rules and structures.
2. Conversational strategies.
3. Functional and meanings in conversation.
4. Social and cultural context.

Dornyei (1995:163-164) suggests the following which can be used as guidelines for teaching CSs explicitly. These strategies can be summarized as follows:

1. Raising learner awareness about the nature and communicative potential of CSs. This can be done by making learners aware/conscious of strategies already in their repertoire, sensitizing them to the appropriated situation where these could be useful, and making them realize that these strategies could actually work. Faerch and Kasper (1986:187) quoted in Dornyei (1995:63) also emphasize the need to increase learners' "metacommunication awareness" with respect to strategy use.

1) Encourage students to be willing to take risk and use CSs; that is, to manipulate available language without being afraid of making errors.

2) Providing L2 models of the use of certain CSs through demonstration, listening materials and videos, and getting learners to identify, categorize, and evaluate strategies used by native speakers or other L2 speakers.

To sum up, teaching Communication Strategies directly or explicitly in the Saudi tertiary level teaching situation can be very useful and effective for the following reasons:

1. Saudi learners are not exposed to the real environment of the target language. Therefore, they need to be taught how to use CSs in order to solve their communication problems when occur.

2. Learners' L1 and L2 in Saudi Arabia are not cognate languages. In other words, there is a language distance between students' native language and the target language and that will not help students make successful transfer as is the case in the European languages. For example, French word "attention" /ə'tensjɔ/ into the L2 /ə'tenʃn/ as it exists in both languages with a slight difference in pronunciation.

3. There are cross-cultural differences between students' L1 and L2 and that leads in many cases to misunderstanding and communication breakdown. In fact, there are so many cultural-specific "do's and don'ts" that learners are constantly faced with in the target language.

## XI. DATA COLLECTION AND METHODOLOGY

The data was collected by using a questionnaire conducted on level eight. The number of the students was 90. Students are in their in the final year and are expected to graduate. They were selected because they can deal with the questionnaire in English.

Moreover, it is expected that their English is much better than other students in lower levels. The researcher checked students' understanding of the questionnaire before they started to answer the questions.

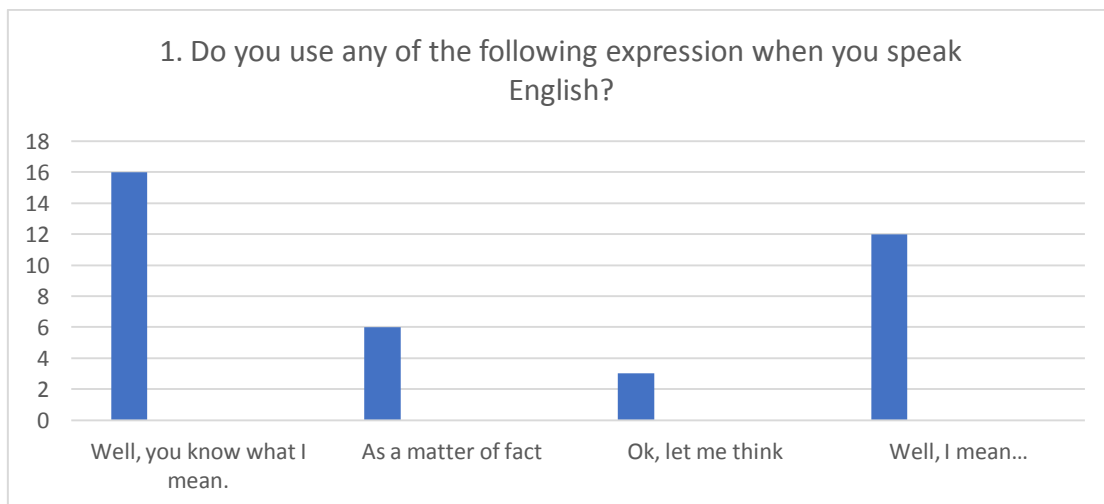
The questionnaire consists of eight questions; each question consists of four statements. Students are required to select the strategies they are using while communicating in the target language.

Try-out of the questionnaire

The questionnaire was tried out on five students to make sure that they have understood all the questions. Those five students were excluded while conducting the questionnaire to collect the data.

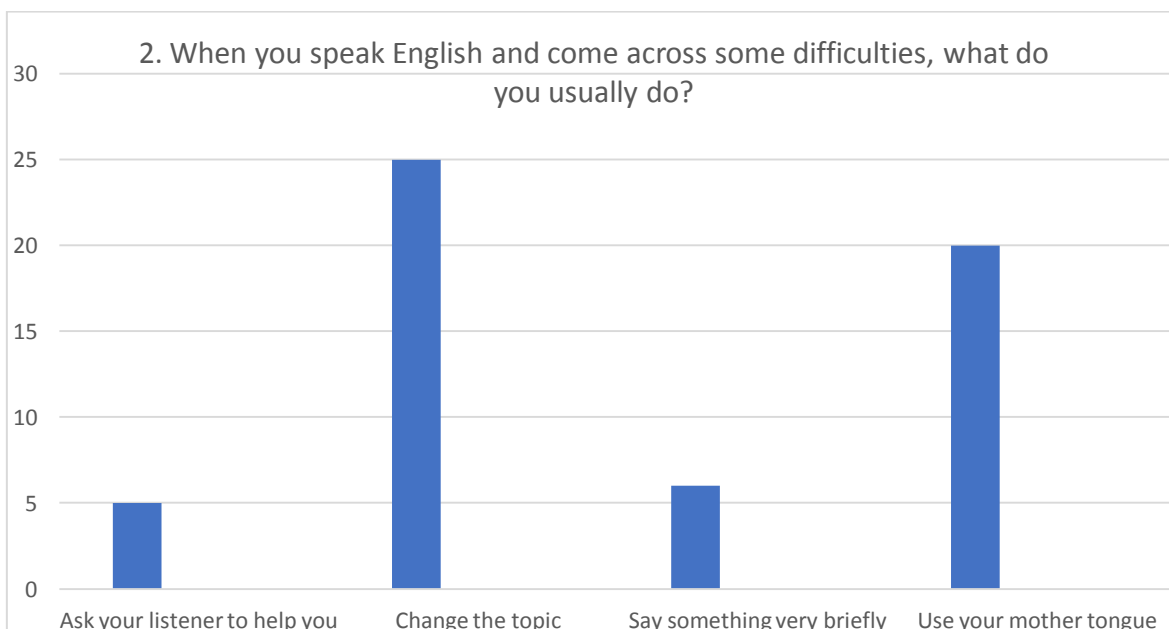
## XII. DATA ANALYSIS

1. Do you use any of the following expression when you speak English?			
		Freq.	%
1	Well, you know what I mean....	16	18
2	As a matter of fact....	6	7
3	Ok, let me think....	3	3
4	Well, I mean....	12	13
Total		37	41



This first diagram shows that students are somehow familiar with the strategies (well, you know what I mean.... and (well, I mean.... As these two expressions exist in their mother tongue. This indicates that only few students use these strategies which help students to think and plan their ideas at the same time to show the speaker that they are thinking of the question. Very few students use "as a matter of fact" and "Ok, let me think" because they do not have something similar in their mother tongue.

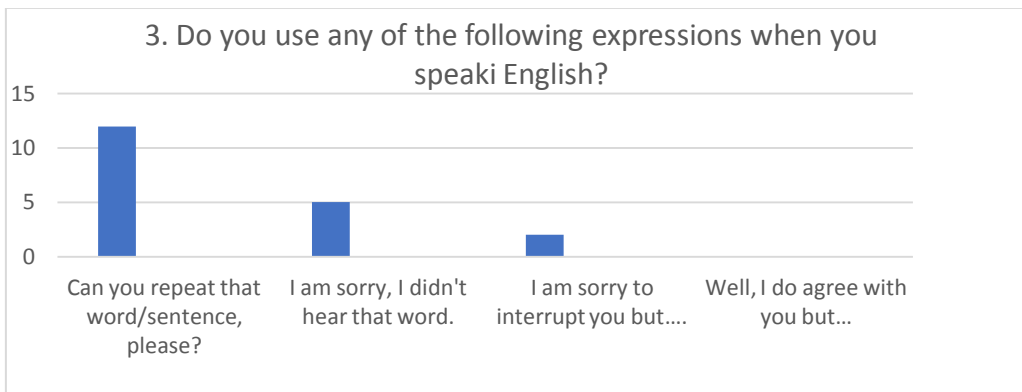
		Freq.	%
1	Ask your listener to help you	5	6
2	Change the topic	25	27
3	Say something very briefly	6	7
4	Use your mother tongue.	20	22
	Total	32	36



This second diagram shows that almost all students are not familiar with steering the topic in a way that they can speak and keep the channel of communication open. That means communication with the speakers of the target language breakdown immediately.

Moreover, students in many cases resort to their mother tongue to convey the message. This strategy doesn't help them especially when the speaker doesn't speak their mother tongue.

3. Do you use any of the following expressions when you speak English?			
		Freq.	%
1	Can you repeat that word/sentence, please?	12	13
2	I am sorry, I didn't hear that word.	5	6
3	I am sorry to interrupted you but...	2	2.2
4	Well, I do agree with you but...	0	0
	Total	19	21.2



The third diagram shows that few students are only familiar with asking the speaker to repeat a word or a sentence. Similarly, a small number of students are familiar with the strategy of asking the speaker to repeat because they didn't hear the word. Apologizing for interrupting the speaker is not a very common strategy for the Saudi learners. The last strategy "Well, I do agree with you but...." is not known to the Saudi learners at all.

4. If you do not understand what your teacher is saying, which of the following do you do?			
		Freq.	%
1	Switch off with a feeling of disappointment.	25	28
2	Put an extra effort to understand.	8	9
3	Make a note of words/sentences and ask your teacher.	20	22
4	You negotiate the meaning with your teacher.	9	10
	Total	62	69

4. If you do not understand what your teacher is saying, which of the following do you do?

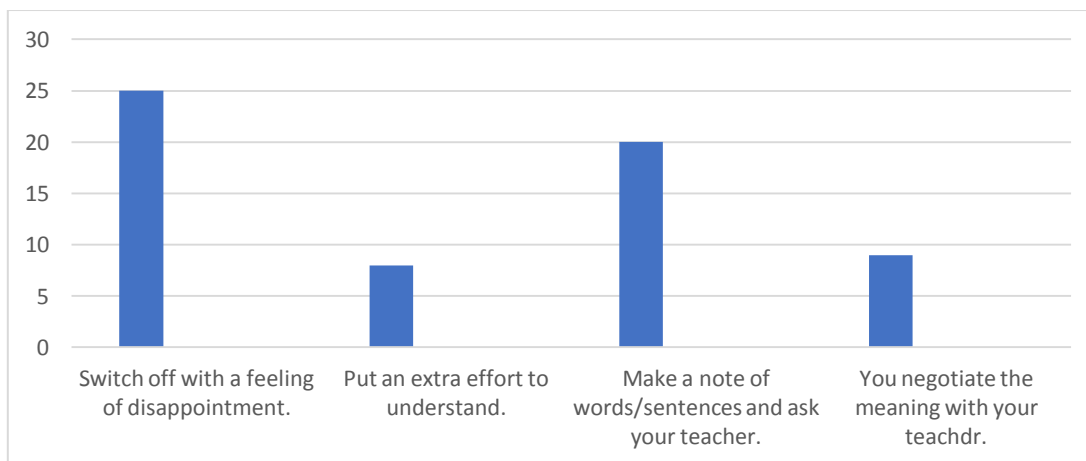


Diagram 4 shows that students feel frustrated when they can't understand the teacher and as a result, they switch off. Probably, this is the most common strategy students resort to in such situations. Therefore, students need to be trained to use more strategies such as "putting an extra effort to understand or "making notes in order to negotiate their difficulties with their teachers.

5. When speak English and you do not find the right word, what do you usually do?			
		Freq.	%
1	Explain that word in English.	2	2
2	Use a word that is close to that word.	5	6
3	Avoid that word completely.	15	17
4	Use your mother tongue.	30	33
	Total	52	58

5. When speak English and you do not find the right word, what do you usually do?

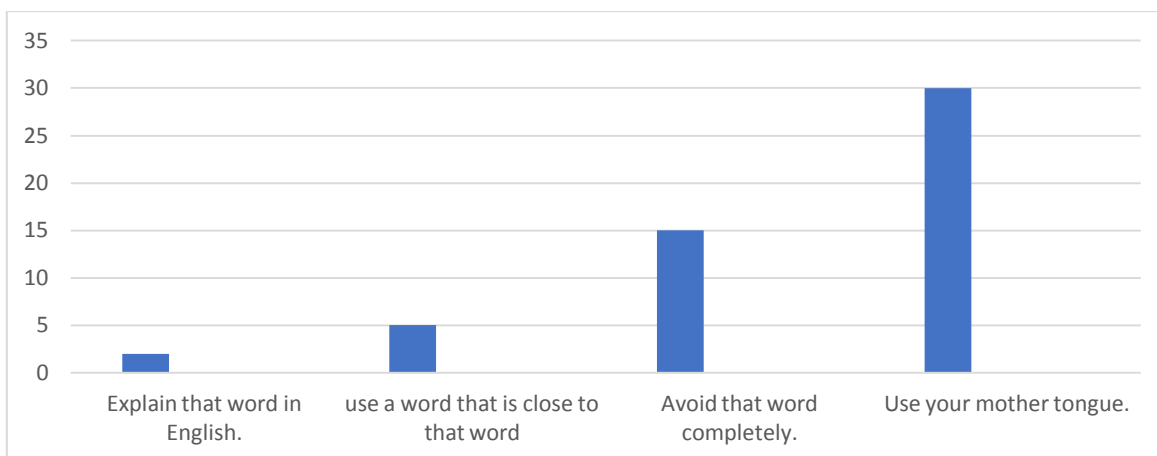


Diagram 5 Shows that Saudi students use their mother tongue more compared to t all other strategies when they speak English and come across a word which they can't explain in English. This usually happens when they speak English to their teachers who share their mother tongue. However, students avoid that word when they speak to people or teachers who do not share their mother tongue. Few students explain the right word in English and some students use a close word to the needed one.

6. When you speak English do you imitate the native speakers use of:			
		Freq.	%
1	Gestures	53	59
2	Eye-contact	0	0
3	Miming	4	4
4	Fillers/pauses	25	28
	Total	82	91

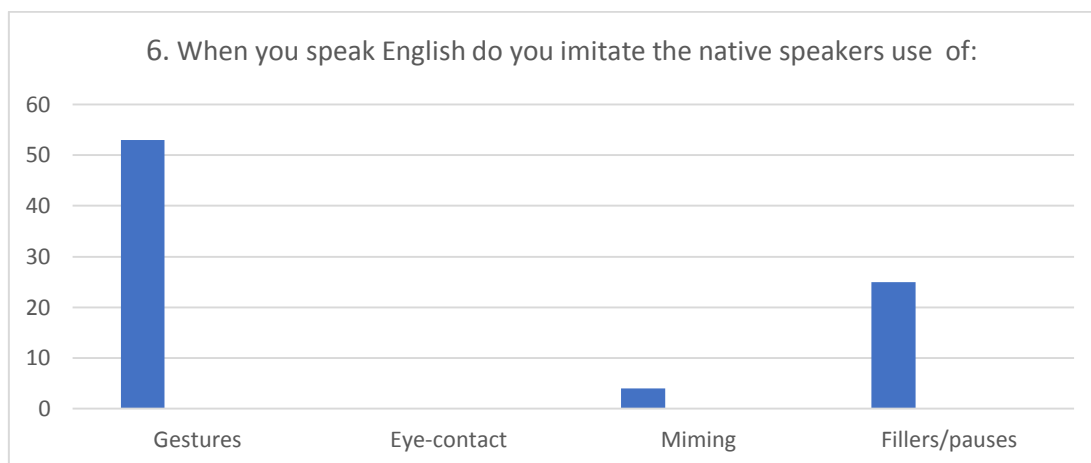


Diagram 6 shows that students can use gestures and fillers/pauses, but they usually avoid using "eye-contact and miming" and that probably that is due to the students' culture. Eye-contact is not used in Saudi students' real life communication, and that is due to some restrictions in the students' culture. As a result, students need to be trained to use these two learning strategies. Eye-contact and miming show that students are not exposed to the culture of the target language. Moreover, these strategies are not frequently used in the students' native language.

7. When you speak English what do you mainly focus on?			
		Freq.	%
1	Grammar	40	44
2	Pronunciation	8	9
3	Meaning	10	11
4	Vocabulary	30	33
	Total	88	97

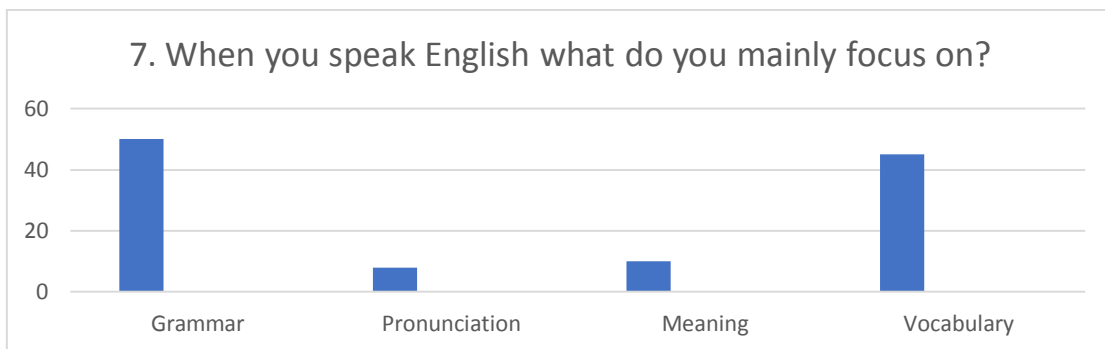


Diagram 7 shows that students focus on grammar and vocabulary more than pronunciation and meaning. Students believe that grammar and vocabulary are the most important elements to communicate in the target language. Therefore, students' grammar and vocabulary are much better compared to the other two language skills.

8. When you plan your speech in English, which of the following do you usually do?			
		Freq.	%
1	Think in your mother tongue and then translate into English.	60	67
2	Think in English only.	12	13
3	Think in English and compare it with your mother tongue.	15	17
4	Any others.	0	0
	Total	87	97

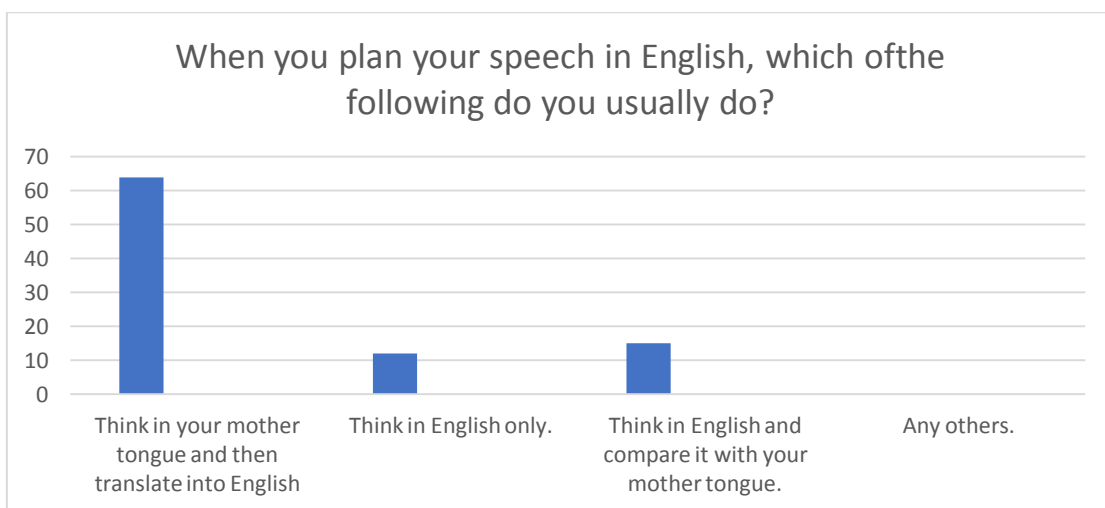


Diagram 8 shows that students mostly think in their mother tongue first and then translate into the target language. Some of them think in English but they again compare it with their mother tongue just to make sure or double check. They have developed this habit at their lower stages of learning English. Students usually try to understand everything in their mother tongue and as a result, they translate every word into their mother tongue. Very few students think in English only and do not translate what they have to say into their mother tongue.

### XIII. FINDINGS AND CONCLUSION

The findings obtained from the Saudi tertiary level students' responses indicate that they are not aware of the usefulness of communication strategies. As a result of their lack of awareness of communication strategies such as paraphrasing, appeal for help, message adjustment etc., they resort to their first language strategies more frequently when they attempt to communicate with competent speakers of English.

#### Lack of Awareness of Communication Strategies

The lack of awareness of communication strategies leads to communication breakdown. This was pointed out in the students' responses to question (5) where they indicate that they avoid the required word if they cannot find it at the moment of speaking. Few students indicate that they explain that word in English or use a word which is very close in meaning to the required word but most of them indicate that they use their mother tongue equivalent to compensate for gaps in their speech.

This means that Saudi students resort to risk-avoiding strategies (by avoiding the required word or expression) more than risk-taking strategies where they have to expand their message by different means. This information was confirmed in the students' responses to question (2) where a large number of the students indicate that they change the topic when

they feel that there are some gaps in their speech. Moreover, they indicate that they use their first language more than they say something briefly in English or appeal for help from their interlocutor.

The following findings point out the extent to which the Saudi students' first language strategies of communication influence their tendency of using some of the target language communication strategies.

So far, the findings of the study have given us an insight into the situation of learning English at the tertiary level and the various factors which affect the Saudi students' ability to communicate with competent speakers of English in real life communicative situations. Therefore, students should be made to realize that successful oral communication not only involves how accurate the speakers are, but how clear they make themselves. In other words, speakers may utter an incorrect sentence; however, the listener can understand what the speaker intends to say. This means that speaking skills are not only some linguistic skills that can enable the speaker to communicate correctly. Therefore, Saudi students need to be aware of the components of the communicative competence in order to enable them to communicate successfully.

It is recommended that the linguistic competence should be taught implicitly whereas the functional competence should be taught explicitly during spoken English classes. This is because the findings indicate that most of the difficulties that Saudi students encounter while communicating in the target language and lead to communication breakdown result from their lack of the functional aspects of communicative competence. That means Saudi students lack the knowledge of the sociocultural rules of the target language which help them adjust themselves in a specific situation. Similarly, they lack strategic competence which gives the speakers an opportunity to express themselves with the amount of the language they have already mastered.

Therefore, Saudi students need to be trained how to resort to risk-taking strategies which help students to expand their message they want to convey without resorting to their first language equivalents.

Moreover, Saudi students need a course that focuses on the conversational skills based on the guidelines which were suggested by Dornyei and Thurrell (1994) as follow:

1. Conversation rules and structures; openings, turn taking, interruption, topic shifting, adjacency pairs and closing.
2. Conversational strategies: message adjustment or avoidance, paraphrasing, approximation, appeal for help, asking for repetition, asking for clarification, using interpretive summary, checking and use of fillers.
3. Functions and meanings in conversation:
  - a) Languages function such as making suggestions and asking for information.
  - b) Indirect speech acts. These are linguistic forms that include an action or a function. For example, could you open the window, please?  
It is not a real question but rather a request to open the window.
  - c) Same meaning – different meaning. This issue deals with the surface and the real meaning of the utterance. For example, the compliment 'What a nice car you have! Might mean *I did not know that you are so rich or hope you will let me borrow it next Sunday.*
4. Social and cultural context including; participant variables (status) the social situation, the social norms of appropriate language use formal/informal, and cross-cultural differences.

These guidelines should be taken into consideration when designing/selecting a new spoken language courses at the tertiary level in order to enable Saudi students to overcome their difficulties they encounter when they are put in real communicative situation with competent speakers of English.

#### Lack of Exposure to the Target Language and its Culture

Findings indicate that Saudi learners of English are not exposed to the target language and its culture. Moreover, they do not have sufficient practice in the class which may compensate for their lack of exposure. However, students should be encouraged to communicate with competent speakers of English. Moreover, they should be given more opportunity to work in 'groups' and 'pairs' as that can help them develop their abilities to speak instead of making them wait for their turns to speak in the classroom.

At the same time, teachers should find some resources which can help their students to communicate in real communicative situations and also enrich their knowledge of the culture of the target language. For example:

- 1) Encouraging their students to communicate in English inside and outside the classroom.
- 2) Encouraging their students to visit the ELP center in the English Department where they can meet native speakers of English and communicate with them.
- 3) Watching some videos and programs which focus on the culture of the target language.

However, the social distance may cause breakdown of communication and misunderstanding and therefore teachers try to help students to overcome this problem. For example, they can teach some cultural issues explicitly especially

where students might have problems as a result of the cross-cultural differences. These cultural differences should be introduced in small doses, because some students may become defensive towards the culture of the target language.

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# Deconstructing the Miltonic Exaggerations in *Paradise Lost*

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**Abstract**—*Paradise Lost* has become a controversial epic in misrepresenting characters especially among pious critics and religious scholars. Based on applying the deconstruction theory analysis on *Paradise Lost*, this paper discusses three main purposes about the Miltonic exaggerations in *Paradise Lost*: the infringement of God divinity, the high power position of Jesus Christ, and Oliver Cromwell; as the intended symbolic political figure by Milton. In fact, the Bible and the Holy Quran are considered two main sources to the paradise story, so they apparently deconstruct the Miltonic thoughts in this epic poem. According to deconstructionism in *Paradise Lost*, Milton consecrated the ideology of the Trinity concept which is not explicitly mentioned in the New Testament. He also exceeded the reasonable limitation of divinity by ignoring the role of the Great God and overstating the role of Jesus Christ as the whole mercy and justices. In addition, Milton came out with *Paradise Lost* after Oliver Cromwell's death in order to express his grief about Oliver Cromwell and the Commonwealth fall as well.

**Index Terms**—God, Jesus, Cromwell, infringement, exaggeration, *Paradise Lost*

## I. INTRODUCTION

Although Milton had determined his purpose in Book I of *Paradise Lost*, "I may assert eternal Providence, and justify the ways of God to men" (*Paradise Lost*, 1999), he had gone beyond his aim and made too many overstatements about the God's divinity, Jesus Christ Power, and Oliver Cromwell's kingship in order to adjust his work to cope with the political events around England at his time. In fact, *Paradise Lost* is an epic poem that is still considered a literary masterpiece in the literary canon. It was written in blank verse by the English poet John Milton during the 17th century and it is regarded as the greatest work that was introduced by John Milton. The poem includes the biblical story that concerns with the fall of man, temptation of Adam and Eve, and Satan and how was their castigation from Garden of Eden. Indeed, Milton has used unique style, plot, and language to make his poem worthier but the fault that opens the gateway for scholars to have a different perception about *Paradise Lost* is his presenting to the truth and his overstatements about the characters. Since the beginning, *Paradise Lost* had attracted many disobedient readers and had disturbed others. For example, Dryden in *The state of Innocence* (1671) was an admirer of Milton's epic Poem as two men had different political affiliations. Dryden had supported Milton to employ his epic poem to cope with his thoughts. He thought that Satan who refused slavery and started to revolt against God to overturn his monarch is an unequivocal portrait of Oliver Cromwell, the king-killer. Shelley also regarded God and Satan as literary characters in *Paradise Lost*, and determined that Satan was represented rather better, he stated that "Milton's Devil as a moral being" is, he writes, "far superior to his God". William Blake is another critic who identified Milton as "a true Poet and of the Devil's party without knowing it". He hinted to Milton's overstatements that led him to depict Satan as a hero. In *Milton's God* (1961), William Empson seriously objected C.S. Lewis and others for their efforts in rehabilitation's God character and regarding Milton succeeded in justify the ways of God. Empson stated that "the reason why the poem is so good is that it makes God so bad". In fact, this paper focuses on the overstatements in *Paradise Lost* that must be taken into consideration because of their contrary to religion. For instance, unbalanced portray to any character especially in topics that are tightly related to religion leads into confusion among readers, and it may underestimate the value of religion. It also puzzles out the inscrutability that made many critics despise the God divinity due to Milton's misrepresentation to God's character in his epic poem. Since *Paradise Lost* is rich with different thoughts and many overstatements that came into view as contradictions, the theory of deconstruction can be applied to the text to show the negative side of it.

## II. INFRINGEMENT UPON GOD'S DIVINITY

Reading *Paradise Lost* with a religious perception shows up Milton's intention beyond the text. Milton has dedicated his thoughts either intentionally or unintentionally against God's divinity when he described God as the father. He depicts an image in the reader's mind that God behaves as human beings and He shares with them many characteristics. One of those characteristics is the growth process. Being a Father means having responsibility on his children, but Being Great God means having the responsibility of all creatures and being Supreme without any limitations to His Greatness. Milton consecrated the disparagement of the greatest divinity of God by misrepresenting him in *Paradise Lost*. Focusing on the whole epic poem illuminates how God was presented; His speech is dull and unpoetic and low number of lines are given to Him. In the first two books, God was totally absent, and when He was given a role to appear as a

character, His first words were about having a Son, “Only begotten Son, seest thou what rage transports our Adversary?” (*Paradise Lost*, 1999). In fact, God must be unique and incomparable as He is. Not as what Milton wanted Him to be. The God described Himself in the Holy Quran, 42:11, “The originator of the heavens and the earth; He made mates for you from among yourselves, and mates of the cattle too, multiplying you thereby; nothing like a likeness of Him; and He is the Hearing, the Seeing”. He means that He made mates for human beings and animals in order to multiply in this life, but he never pointed to His Majesty as having a son. Moreover, the God has specified a short chapter in the Holy Quran to clarify this controversial issue. He said “Say: He, Allah, is one. Allah is He on Whom all depend. He begets not, nor is He begotten. And none is like Him” Quran 112:1-4 (Translated by A. Y. Ali). “Allah” is Arabic Word which simply means “The God” The Creator God. The nature of God is totally unique here. The God indicated to us His nature in a few words, to be easy for us to understand, while there are many qualities of God are described in numerous places in the Holy Quran. e.g., in 59:22-24, 62:1, and 2:255. Here the God only teaches us how to avoid the pitfalls into which many people and nations have fallen at various times while they were trying to understand God. Milton is one of those who have fallen into the pitfall when he described God as Godfather and not only this but he has passed the borders to depict Jesus Christ as the Son who helps his father in making actions. So, the Great God character appeared in need to others like Jesus and this image contradicts what was mentioned in the Holy Books. The God also clarified that there are wrong excesses were made by Christians after Jesus' crucifixion in his last Holy Book which was sent after Jesus' crucifixion. And Milton's speech about the God one of those committed excesses. The God has stated this issue in the Holy Quran “O People of the Book! (The Bible). Commit no excesses in your religion: Nor say of Allah aught but the truth. Christ Jesus the son of Mary was (no more than) a messenger of Allah,” (Quran 4:171). *Paradise Lost* proves the truth of this verse when Milton presented Jesus Christ as the Son of God. Now the question that raises up “why did Milton insist on presenting the character of Jesus in *Paradise lost* as a Son of God? Indeed, Milton only consecrated the ideology of the Nicene Council in 325 C. E and the Council at Chalcedon in 451 C.E. The former declared Jesus to be both fully God and fully man and the latter entrenched the doctrine of the Trinity into Christian theology in which God was represented in three successive modes: first as the Father, the second as the Son, finally as The Holy Spirit. At that time, the Roman Orthodoxy had considered a large portion of the Christian as heretics, because they believe in the concept of the Trinity which is not explicitly mentioned in the New Testament (Aslan, 2011). If we transported back to the third century, we will find that this term was considered new among the early Christian communities and there were many contradictions in the Christian societies for example, Montanism movement which was under the leadership of Tertullian. Montanist believed that Jesus had the same divine quality as God, but not in the same quantity as God. Nestorian Christians also believed that Jesus had two different natures- human and divine. In addition to that, there were those like Arians, they didn't believe in the Trinity, but they asserted the belief that Jesus is the Son of God. In fact, all these contradictions prove that the early conflicts among Christians as a whole led to chaos in writing about God's divinity. A close reading to the text will to some extent discern Milton's exaggeration about Jesus and ignoring in somehow the role of The Lord God. “Of Man's first disobedience, and the fruit of that forbidden tree whose mortal taste brought death into the World, and all our woe, with loss of Eden, till one greater Man restore us, and regain the blissful seat,” (*Paradise lost*, 1999). In the first four lines Milton described the disobedience of Adam and Eve as it is known everywhere, then he shifted to the Great Man. He means Jesus Christ. He totally ignored the forgiveness of God. Moreover, he gave the role of God to Jesus Christ whom never mentioned in any book in direct verse that he participated in this story. If we come to The Old Testament about the story of Paradise. There were four characters no more. Lord God, Adam, Eve and Satan (Genesis 3:7- 21). In the Bible Jesus Christ especially in this story was totally absent while in *Paradise Lost*, his role was more important than anyone else. In the Holy Quran also, God stated how He dealt with Adam “But his Lord chose him (for His Grace, he refers to Adam): He turned to him, and gave him Guidance. He said: "Get ye down, both of you, - all together, from the Garden, with enmity one to another: but if, as is sure, there comes to you Guidance from Me, whosoever follows My Guidance, will not lose his way, nor fall into misery” (Quran 20:122-123). This verse explains that God only who restores us, and regain the blissful seat. His condition is to follow his guidance otherwise we will run into misery life forever. In fact, Milton's plot was interesting for those people who don't know about the divinity of God and more antipathetic to believers. Many critics had exposed to Milton's failure in portraying the character of God in *Paradise Lost*, some of them are less pious like Shelly and Blake, who believed Satan to be the hero of *Paradise Lost* and some are pious like Alexander pope. Shelly described in his defense of poetry that God was portrayed in a less important way “Milton's Devil as a moral being is as far superior to his God as one who perseveres in some purpose which he has conceived to be excellent in spite of adversity and torture, is to one who in the cold security of undoubted triumph inflicts the most horrible revenge upon his enemy” (Richter, 2007). In the same critical way as Shelly, William Blake behaved in criticizing Milton. Blake found that Milton presented God as inferior while Satan was presented as superior, he also considered Milton as unwitting Satanist (Flanagan, 1998). Alexander Pope also thought that Milton portrayed the God-father as less perfectly good and instantly sympathetic. He blew up Milton in his first epistle of the second book of *Horace limited* “God the Father turns a School-divine” (Pope, 1963).

### III. THE HIGH POWER POSITION OF JESUS CHRIST IN *PARADISE LOST*

In the Third book, Milton began his book with a tricky sentence to grab the reader's attention in order to trigger them

towards the disbelief trap. He said "Hail, holy Light, offspring of Heaven firstborn, Or of the Eternal coeternal beam, May I express thee unblam'd?" (*Paradise Lost*, 1999). Milton realized that inventing deceptive ideas puts him in a place of reproach, for this reason, he was doubting whether to be blamed or not. Then he started to tip off his hidden thoughts about Jesus existence. He said "Before the Heavens thou wert, and at the voice of God, as with a mantle, didst invest" (*Paradise lost*, 1999). Milton did believe Jesus was born before the heavens, while the opening verse in the Bible didn't expose to Jesus existing before heavens. The Bible opened with this verse "In the beginning God created the heaven and the earth" (Genesis 1:1). Milton's description contradicts the Bible which is considered a Holy Book, so, this is enough proof to show that Milton resorted to fabrications in his work in order to convince his followers. Now, the most important thing is how Milton drew a map in the reader's mind to guide them to the misleading way without any critical thinking. Before he shifted to talk about mercy, mediation, power, Sacrifice, he had formerly convinced the reader with Jesus existence in heaven before creation. He also stated that God has announced his last judgement on Adam, when he said

I form'd them free: and free they must remain,  
Till they enthrall themselves; I else must change  
their nature, and revoke the high decree Unchangeable, eternal,(*Paradise  
Lost*,1999).

Milton fabricated his own barriers to inform us that Adam lost the mercy of God, and what he had to do in order to get rid of this dilemma is looking for mediation to bring the grace back. He depicted Jesus as a mediator who took on an initiative to intercede for Adam before God. In fact, Mediation before God considers pronounced blasphemy, because God is the most Compassionate, the most Beneficent, The One who has plenty of mercy for the believers and the blasphemers in this world and especially for the believers in the hereafter. God has based his rules, so if anyone commits a sin he has to demand mercy from God, without any mediator. God clarifies in the Holy Quran, how he forgave Adam. "Then learnt Adam from his Lord words of inspiration, and his Lord Turned towards him; for He is Oft-Returning, Most Merciful" (Holy Quran 2:37). God is the most merciful, He never needs any negotiation in order to give His mercy, He is The All-knowing, The Knowledgeable, The Patient, The One who does not quickly punish the sinners because His mercy comes before His wrath, they might return. And He is The Responsive, The Hearer, The One who answers the one in need if he asks Him and rescues the yearner if he calls upon Him. The grace and mercy of God in which God asserts his love according to Milton's poem, they have transferred to be upon Jesus Christ. Moreover, he confirms repeatedly that Jesus Christ is the only power that can finally establish a bond of understanding between heaven and earth. Milton tried to describe Jesus Christ in his poem as the following "Divine compassion visibly appeared, Love without end, and without measure Grace" (*Paradise Lost*, 1999). He exaggerated when he depicted Jesus Christ as the God who never has a limitation to his Mercy. God has clarified in the Bible in 43 verses that He is the most merciful, He said "His mercy endureth forever" 1 Chronicles 16:34, 16:41.

2Chronicles5:13,7:37:6,20:21,Erza3:11,psalms100:5,106:1,107:1,118:1,118:4,118:29,136:1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10,11,12,13...26,138:8,Jeremiah33:11.In all these verses God pointed to His mercy and He stated that His mercy is the only mercy stay forever. Milton portrayed Jesus as the most merciful when he depicted him as the whole mercy who negotiated the Great God to transfer His mercy upon him in order to rescue Adam of punishment. The most important clue that there is no any verse either in the Bible or in the Holy Quran that clarifies the mercy of Jesus upon Adam, So What came in *Paradise Lost* is totally different from the Holy Books. In other words, it is considered fake by believers. Although Milton represents Jesus Christ as the Mercy and all power, he exceeds the reasonable limitation by regarding God as unable to have the mercy and justice together. This considers as pronounced blasphemy. He depicts God as He needs, someone to act for Him, a God-figure who can also be Mediator. The God has already rejected such as allegations in all Holy Books. It was clear enough that Milton has highly motivated to depict Jesus Christ as a merciful who can take into consideration the repentance and atonement of Adam and Eve, While The God's mercy and love have been ended when the God put them on Jesus Christ. It is unfair that the mercy and love of God go through one of the creatures before it reaches to humans. God is the most merciful and the most gracious, so there is no limitation to His mercy to prove this idea from the words of God in the Holy Quran. He said: "(As for) My chastisement, I will afflict with it whom I please, and my mercy encompasses all things; so I will ordain it (especially) for those who guard (against evil) and pay the poor-rate, and those who believe in our communications" (Quran, 7. 156)

#### IV. OLIVER CROMWELL; AS THE INTENDED SYMBOLIC POLITICAL FIGURE BY MILTON

Interpreting the intended symbolic political figure in *Paradise Lost* requires knowing the background history of Milton before and during producing *Paradise Lost*. John Milton was an important figure not only in prose and poetry but also in politics which played a significant role in his life. Although he was a minor figure when he started to write a poem about Shakespeare, later he became famous when he started his writing in a pamphlet war. When Charles I was executed in 1649, the events around that period of time and its consequences led Milton's political writings to be dominated. Within two weeks, he has published a justification of proceedings against Charles, *The Tenure of Kings and Magistrates*, which was written while the trail was in progress. Because of his writings, a month later, he was rewarded a position of power in the Commonwealth as a Secretary for Foreign Tongues to the Council of State. Henceforward Milton's duty was not only responsible for holding much of the commonwealth correspondence but he was also work-

ing as a chief propagandist. Moreover, he published three works between 1649 to 1651; *Observation upon the articles of Peace, Eikonoklastes, and pro Populo Anglicano Defensio*. In 1660, When Charles II returned, Milton Published two works in which he endeavored to discontinue the tide: *The Readie and Easie way to Establish a Free Commonwealth*, in which Milton warns against the dangers inherent in a monarchical form of government, and *Brief Notes upon a Late Sermon*, in which Milton supported more despairingly that, if there have to be a king, it would be better to elect one rather than restore the Staurts (Helena, 1999). Since 1660 to 1674, Milton hardly fled with his life at restoration and he devoted himself to write *Paradise Lost* and then *Paradise Regained*. The political contexts that were written by Milton in order to advocate the commonwealth from 1649 to 1660, the translated works into latin, and his position in the commonwealth also determined that there was no any doubt that Milton wrote *Paradise Lost* as political obsession after the rule of Oliver Cromwell. He expressed his grieve about Oliver Cromwell and the fall of the Commonwealth by Writing *Paradise lost* to Keep Oliver Cromwell as its hero. Milton resorted to write his epic in a religious style in order to give a hint of his hero belief who used to derives his power of his religious belief "Cromwell had astonished the world, and gratified some republican political theorists, by showing that a strong state could be built, as it seemed, from scratch. Fortified by his belief in God's providence" (Hirst, 1999). Studying both historical contexts from 1649 to 1664 and *Paradise Lost* gave a hint that there was a relevance among them. In *Paradise Lost*, Milton hinted to Charles II revenge, when he depicted that Satan came back to Paradise again to revenge from Adam and Eve after he has been cast out. Because there is no any clue nither in the Bible nor in the Holy Quran that proves Satan's return. Quran clarified that Satan has been cast out once from paradise, but he, Satan, has disobeyed the God twice while he was in paradise and his punishment was as the following; In the first time, he lost his high honorary place to be in a low place, and the second time, when he was kicked out to the hell. This allusion gave us a clue that Milton might use Satan's returning in order to represent Charles II when he came back to revenge for his father's execution. Charles II revenged on 30th January 1661, the 12th anniversary of Charles I's execution. He command his fellowers to dig up the greive of Oliver Cromwell to bring out the body. Oliver Cromwell's body was hung all day before it was beheaded (Fitzgibbons, 2008). According to *Paradise Lost*, Satan had some disobedient angels who were negotiating or supporting him, in the opposite side, In the Quran and the Bible, the two Holy Books which are considered the first sources to this Story, there is no any hint that some angels were fellowers to Satan in paradise as obedients. This argument also confirm that Satan's fellowers were a symbol to Charles II's fellowers. Milton's grieve upon Oliver Cromwell transported him back to rememer *Paradise Lost* disobedience, and Adam's and Eve's sin. When Milton attended St. Paul's school and then Crist's College, Cambridge; he exposed to the Bible's Studeies in which he became acknwelgable. Moreover, He received a religious books from Thomas Young in Hamburg which became as trove knowledge in Milton's room. "On 26 March he wrote from London to Thomas Young in Hamburg, thanking him in Latin prose for the gift of a Hebrew Bible and enclosing a copy of a verse letter which was later published as *Elegia quarta*" (Campbell, 2008). All the previous studies and religious books gained him a privilege. In *Paradise Lost*, Milton minimized Adam's role and made Satan's role as a hero. He behave in such way to blame Adam and Eve who are considered the first couple that brought death and sin to huminity according to Puritanism belief. Milton believed that sin not only prevent people of being slave, but it is also main reason to their death. In the Epistle to the Romans, the Apostle Paul explains that "the wages of sin is death; but the gift of God is eternal life through Jesus Christ our Lord." So Milton expressed about his king death by presenting Jesus Christ to condole himself and Oliver Cromwell's fellowers.

## V. CONCLUSION

Exaggeration can be either positive or negative. It has been used too much in different fields such as Literature, Philosphey, Arts, and Religion in order to evoke stong feelings or to create an impression. In fact, exaggeration is almost affirmative, but it becomes unfavourable and loses its value when it exceeds the limitations of religion. For instance, when it transfers from the represen- taion of God to represent any creatures in the same excessive manner without taking into considerations the divinity and glory of God that must be incomporable. *Paradise Lost* is one of the litrary works, that is full with negative overstaments, in which God was potrayed as inferior while Jesus Christ and Satan were depicted as superior. Milton has resorted to exaggeration in *Paradise Lost* as a path to adapt his work to cope up with the events aroun England during his time. Milton had portrayed God in an unappropriate way untill God in *Paradise Lost* became known as the God of Milton among critics because he infringed God's Divinity and dipicted Jesus Christ and Satan in a high power position. Moreover, Milton wrote *Paradise Lost* after Cromwell's death in order to console himself and his fellowers with remembering the fall of man, temptetation of Satan and Adam's and Eve's Sin which all are considered more severe with what happened to Cromwell. Finally, the arguments that are presented in this paper are based on the Holy Books; the Holy Quran and the Bible which are considered the main sources to this story.

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# Research on the Flipped College English Class Based on “Knowledge Internalization”

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**Abstract**—In author’s *Literature Review of the Flipped Classroom*, it introduces the brief history, the definition, the theoretical basis of the Flipped Classroom. While in this paper, it firstly introduces the definition, characteristics, the new interpretation and three stages of knowledge internalization in the Flipped Classroom. After that the paper makes an analysis that how to construct the Flipped Classroom teaching model in College English, together with some problems. At last it gives out suggestions on the Flipped College English class based on “Knowledge Internalization”.

**Index Terms**—flipped classroom, Knowledge Internalization, definition, theoretical basis, three stages, construct, problems, suggestions

The flipped classroom, an information teaching method, is reconstructed from teaching time, mode and role, is an innovation of education, and it will definitely play an important role in the field of education in the future. The characteristics of multi-processes and multi-directions in the flipped classroom are conducive to students’ knowledge internalization, but the internalization is a gradual process, which only plays a guiding role for short-term teaching. Therefore, from the perspective of knowledge internalization, it is of great significance to deeply understand their relationship, to better improve the flipped classroom, as well as to promote the reform of teaching.

## I. THE DEFINITION AND CHARACTERISTICS OF KNOWLEDGE INTERNALIZATION

Knowledge internalization refers to the learners’ learning, communicating, sharing, accepting, and digesting the new knowledge, which makes it integrate with the learner’s inner knowledge, including knowledge category, literacy, ability and so on. And then it can be transformed into the knowledge base of learners’ innovative ability. Generally speaking, knowledge internalization is to transform the objective things into the learner’s inner things through the processing and recombination by the human brain (Su Wanbin, 2017). It is simply understood as a skill that human beings transform external knowledge into internal knowledge through understanding and absorption. In the process of knowledge internalization, knowledge is first perceived by human brain. And it is necessary to keep the information in the human brain for a short period of time to further process the input knowledge (Zhang Xu, Wen Youkui, 2008). It is also a slow process, requiring the stimulation of knowledge and the accumulation of time.

Knowledge internalization should have the following characteristics (Zhou Tianmei, 2004): First, it is stabilization. Knowledge, once psychologically internalized, should be quite stable. The higher the degree of internalization, the higher the degree of stability, and the closer the forgetting curve is to the horizontal curve, which is represented in the form of long-term or even lifelong memory. Second, it is intangible. The internalized knowledge is in the form of no skill. For example, there are many norms of knowledge in poetry writing. Not only that, but it also requires a high level of application skills, and truly mature poetry writers, their knowledge of poetry writing must be highly internalized without seeing the form and the skills. The third is unconsciousness. The internalized knowledge, when it is expressed or used, is a natural expression, completely perceptual. Fourth, it is intelligence. The internalized knowledge will inevitably transform knowledge into the external form of intelligence connotation and ability. The last one is psychological quantization. Internalized knowledge, philosophically speaking, is no longer a purely spiritual quality of consciousness, but has been transformed into a psychological energy in the physical sense.

## II. THE NEW INTERPRETATION OF THE FLIPPED CLASSROOM

### A. *Flipped Classroom in the International Context*

For a long time, Flipped Classroom has been widely used internationally in defining online video, which is literally translated as Flipped Classroom in Chinese. This kind of translation is very vivid, which is perhaps because of the over image that we ignore the question: why is it the classroom that is flipped instead of the teacher, the student, the content, the media or anything else? A popular explanation is: students listen to the “video” for class after going home, and discuss problems with “real teacher (or classmates)” in class the next day. It is just “flipped” the “real teacher” in previous teaching in the classroom, while students go home to do homework, just like the classroom in the daytime is moved to the home. So the concept of Flipped Classroom came into being. To some extent, Flipped Classroom is essentially a place where students use online video to learn before class. It emphasizes the learning place.

The definition of the flipped classroom was first given by MaureenLage, Glenn Platt and Michael Treglia, who put

forward that “Inverting the classroom means that events that have traditionally taken place inside the classroom now take place outside the classroom and vice versa.” (MaureenLage, Glenn Platt, Michael Treglia, 2000). “Invert” here means “turn inside out or upside down”, which has the similar meaning with the word “Flip”. In 2007, two chemistry teachers named Jonathan Bergmann and Aaron Sams, began to record PPT through video software with voice in Colorado. They uploaded the videos to the Internet to help those students who missed lessons for different reasons. Before long, the two teachers started a more innovative attempt to let all the students watch videos, listen to lectures at home. While in class, teachers mainly help students with their difficulties, or provide help for the students having difficulties in experiments. Therefore, as the real proposers of the flipped classroom, the two chemistry teachers Aaron Sams, Jonathan Bergmann (2013) consider it as a teaching method, which mainly proposes what is traditionally done in the classroom is now done at home, and that students do homework or do some classroom activities in the class. In the same year, Bryan Goodwin and Kirsten Miller (2013) think the flipped classroom makes the students learn tasks before class to spot the difficulties. The tasks all go through three similar procedures: first, before class all the students watch the teaching video designed by the teacher. Second, the students try to finish all the tasks given by the teacher. Third, all the students discuss with teacher or classmates through QQ platform to share the answers and write down those unsolved and difficult questions. Thus the students can work out the unsolved and difficult questions with classmates or teachers rather than get the basic information passively in class.

### B. *Flipped Classroom in the Domestic Context*

The change of learning place cannot completely affect or replace the real teaching process of interaction between teachers and students, nor can it make the relationship between teaching and learning change in essence. The essence of flipped classroom is the optimization of knowledge imparts in advance and knowledge internalization brought by the reform of teaching process (Zhao Xinglong, 2013). Therefore, teaching process is only one of the important elements to define flipped classroom. As a truly flipped classroom, two other elements need to be added: technical elements and environmental elements. Technical elements refer to the flipped classroom needs micro-video to support students' autonomous learning, while environmental elements refer to the flipped classroom needs to continuously and systematically analyze students' problems in the learning process, so as to truly improve the quality of classroom interaction. Therefore, the flipped classroom includes three basic elements: first, technical elements, mainly for micro-video; second, process elements, mainly for teaching activities of “before class, during class and after class”; third, environmental elements, mainly for learning analysis system with intelligent diagnosis function. Obviously, the context of the flipped classroom has changed: the flipped classroom has changed from focusing on the learning place to focusing on the whole process of teaching activities; it has changed from focusing on a single learning behavior to focusing on complex educational behaviors including teachers, students, content, media and environment and other factors; it has changed from focusing on watching online video to focusing on the student-centered multimedia environment supported by intelligent diagnosis system; it has changed from focusing on the use of information technology to focusing on the conscious integration of information technology and the whole process of teaching. In this sense, flipped classroom should be renamed “flipped” teaching and learning. The key is that the relationship, status and role between teachers and students have changed substantially. In a word, after the introduction of flipped classroom into China, it has changed in terms of connotation, mode and form. Although they are called “flipped classroom”, the meaning is totally different.

The Chinese scholars pay much more attention to the research of teaching design. For example, in the paper *Study on the Key Factors of the Flipped Classroom Teaching Mode*, it discusses several important factors in implementing the flipped classroom, namely the design of the teaching videos and classroom activities, together with the construction of the individual cooperative learning environment and so on (Zhang Jinlei, 2013). In Wang Hong's paper *The Design of Flipped Classroom Teaching Mode—Analysis Based on Typical Cases at Home and Abroad*, she constructs the flipped classroom teaching mode by analyzing the domestic and foreign typical cases (Wang Hong, 2013). Mr. Zhang Yunfeng, in his paper *The Exploration of the Flipped Classroom Teaching Mode* summarizes the characteristics and the design of the flipped classroom (Zhang Yunfeng, Hu Qing, 2013). He believes that the teaching design process mainly covers three parts as the design of teaching videos before class, targeted training and designed classroom activities. In an article *Design and Application of Task-based Flipped Classroom Teaching Mode*, the author analyzes the advantages and the facing challenges of the flipped classroom, and then constructs the teaching mode named “problem-core and task-driven” (Li Hailong, 2013). These previous studies have played an important role in promoting the widespread practice of the flipped classroom in China, and also laid the foundation for the relevant practical research in China.

## III. THREE STAGES OF KNOWLEDGE INTERNALIZATION IN THE FLIPPED CLASSROOM

### A. *Pre-class Learning*

The first step for students to acquire knowledge in the flipped classroom is pre-class learning. Teachers arrange courses according to the teaching plan, and the students have to learn before class according to the learning tasks assigned by the teachers. The learning tasks are accomplished step by step according to the learning plan by collecting information online, downloading micro-videos pushed by teachers (Weng Senyong, 2016). After completing pre-class learning, learners have a preliminary understanding of new knowledge. New knowledge has been partially assimilated



in its own knowledge, which is equivalent to internalization. However, it is a rough process in this stage of knowledge internalization, and there are many problems in the process of independent learning. All these problems will have an impact on the knowledge internalization, such as incorrect differentiation of key and difficult points of knowledge, incomplete grasp of knowledge points, and failure to effectively distinguish the authenticity of collected data. At this stage, if students mistakenly internalize incorrect knowledge, their own knowledge will be changed. Due to the influence of wrong knowledge, students can only accept knowledge in an adaptive mode, thus failing to internalize repeatedly in the latter two stages. Therefore, pre-class learning is the first stage of knowledge internalization, and it is also the enlightenment stage of knowledge internalization, with the characteristics of cognitive ambiguity and many uncertain factors. Although the effect of knowledge internalization is not obvious, it is the most important part in the flipped classroom.

#### *B. Organizing and Expressing*

In an experiment conducted at Baylor University in the United States, 60 college students were divided into three groups to examine their ability to recall information. In 30 minutes, the researchers played 24-second clips of 40 films to the college students. In addition to the main line of the plot, they should also be examined their memories of the details such as voice, color, action, background and so on. One group was asked to talk to others after watching the clips, the second group was asked to recall it with short visual cues provided by the researchers, and the third group did nothing. And then the students were asked to recall the clips after 7 minutes and 7 days respectively. The results showed that as time went by, the students could recall less and less information. But the first group that told the clips to others recalled the most, both plot and peripheral details. This experiment shows that oral expressing after learning is conducive to deepening the memory of knowledge and promoting the knowledge internalization. In the flipped classroom, the roles of teachers and students are exchanged, so that students act as teachers to summarize the knowledge learned before class, and express their understanding through narration. The organization and expression of students is a process of reorganization of their ideas. During the narration, learners extract the content they want to express from their own knowledge system, stimulate the brain twice. The repeated stimulation promotes the consolidation of knowledge, which is equivalent to another internalization of knowledge. This stage is the consolidation stage of knowledge internalization, which has the effect of strengthening knowledge internalization and realizing long-term memory, and plays the role of knowledge consolidation.

#### *C. Optimizing*

Teachers' optimization is the last step in the flipped classroom, and it is also a crucial stage of knowledge internalization. This stage is mainly composed of guidance, error correction and supplement. Teachers are here to guide students rather than impart knowledge. In the flipped classroom, the teacher acts as a listener to observe, to master students' understanding of knowledge, to find out students' problems, to guide students to form self-awareness, and to be good at discovering their own shortcomings and mistakes. And correct students' understanding of wrong knowledge in time in order to make students avoid internalizing wrong knowledge into their own knowledge structure. In traditional teaching mode, students are passively indoctrinated and confused. While in the flipped classroom, students are the creators of problems. Teachers point out problems and solve them in class. The students have a correct understanding of knowledge, which is reprocessed in their minds, and knowledge is internalized for the third time.

### IV. CONSTRUCTING THE FLIPPED CLASSROOM TEACHING MODEL IN COLLEGE ENGLISH

In the flipped college English classroom, teachers should make clear teaching goals, make full use of micro-video learning resources, arrange students' pre-class tasks scientifically and reasonably, cultivate students' autonomous learning ability by watching micro-videos, and effectively absorb key knowledge in learning, so as to deepen students' understanding. Carrying out a variety of classroom teaching activities according to students' learning characteristics, cultivating students' ability to think independently, improving students' ability to solve practical problems, are also helpful to students' ability of language expression and self-exploration. There are few flipped college English classroom teaching modes in today's colleges and universities, but the effect is very obvious. The use of micro-video learning resources has greatly stimulated students' interest in learning, and students' learning attitude has changed from passive to active. However, many students are still not good at expressing their views and opinions, which seriously affects the teaching effect. Therefore, it is necessary for teachers to further guide students and make them actively participate in the classroom (Wang Zhihong, 2016).

The specific process of the teaching mode is as follows:

#### *A. Preparation before Class*

This process requires college English teachers to make clear the specific features of college English courses by investigating the needs of society and enterprises, and design three modules of text appreciation, oral communication and practical writing, in combination with the goal of college talent cultivation and their rich teaching experience. Task-driven approach can be used to analyze, summarize and guide representative and typical people, events and objects as specific cases. Integrating the knowledge points imparted into students' tasks can improve students'

professional ability and humanistic quality.

### *B. Developing Resource*

Micro-video is an important way to guide and assist students' autonomous learning. Therefore, it is necessary to highlight autonomy and openness, and pay attention to the creative conception under the network environment while designing the micro-video. Specifically including text documents, PPT video files, audio files and other materials will be the learning resources. For example, in order to create a learning situation in the workplace and arouse students' thinking, teachers should set relevant questions according to the actual situation and find solutions to the problems. Generally speaking, the design of college English courses can be divided into different micro-videos, such as text appreciation, oral communication and practical writing modules, covering 80% of the key and difficult points in the textbook. Besides, additional task requirements can be attached to the micro-video, including the use manual of learning resources, lists of learning tasks, etc., so that students can form the habit of autonomous learning network resources (Feng Yuan, 2014).

### *C. Learning in Class*

The flipped classroom focuses on the transformation of the roles of teachers and students. Teachers are gradually transformed from traditional imitators into instructors of students' learning and let students transform into the main part of learning. Teachers divide students into different groups, considering the differences between students in learning ability, interests and hobbies. Each group collaborates with each other to discuss, evaluate and present the results. After receiving the task, the group first discusses the difficult problem and analyzes the problem, and then it can consult the electronic data and relevant books to conduct in-depth discussion, find out the methods and steps to solve the problem, and put forward the effective solution to the problem.

### *D. Evaluating*

The main purpose of evaluation is to master the overall learning effect of students and to test whether teachers' teaching methods are correct. It also can help teachers adjust teaching goals and teaching methods in time, and significantly improve students' learning efficiency and enthusiasm. The evaluation system should be based on multi-aspect, and make use of mutual evaluation between teachers and students to verify the important role of micro-video and the flipped classroom in College English teaching. The evaluation system mainly includes the evaluation of resource utilization, classroom participation and comprehensive performance, and so on. And the mutual evaluation between teachers and students is the core part of the whole system (Zhao Xinglong, Zhou Xu, He Kekang, 2012).

## V. PROBLEMS IN THE FLIPPED CLASSROOM

### *A. Time Schedules*

The Country has been emphasizing the quality education for students to reduce their burden. However, due to the pressure of CET-4, CET-6 and employment, many schools still adopt the exam-oriented education model to help students improve their academic performance. Therefore, the flipped classroom, which requires students to spend a lot of time after class, requires the support of the school in teaching schedule.

In the flipped classroom, teachers should not occupy students' study time in the evening, but let them have free time to watch teaching videos. For schools that do not attend self-study at night, teachers should strictly control the amount of homework. The main task of students after class is to watch teaching videos and complete a small number of exercises. For schools that need to attend self-study at night, teachers should not give lectures during self-study at night, so that students can complete the pre-class learning in the self-study at night.

### *B. Applicability of Course*

At present, most foreign flipped classroom abroad are science courses. The knowledge points of science are clear, and many teaching contents only need to clearly teach a concept, a formula, an example and an experiment, which is convenient for the flipped classroom. However, in liberal arts courses, such as politics, history, Chinese and other humanities courses, will involve multi-disciplinary content, and requires teachers and students to communicate ideologically and emotionally in order to achieve good teaching results.

So, how to apply the flipped classroom model in liberal arts teaching? The solution to this problem is a major challenge for liberal arts teachers, which is to improve the quality of teaching videos and arouse students to think. Summarize the basic knowledge points taught in the course through the teaching video, elaborate relevant theories, let students look up materials and think after class, and then communicate and discuss with teachers and classmates in class, so as to deepen their understanding step by step. Therefore, for different courses, teachers should adopt different strategies to complete the flipped teaching, and promote teaching reform according to students' feedback.

### *C. Information Technology Support in Teaching*

Undoubtedly, the flipped classroom needs the support of information technology. It needs computer hardware and software to build a personalized and collaborative learning environment from teachers' making teaching videos,

students watching teaching videos at home.

The quality of teaching videos has an important impact on students' learning effect. From pre-recording to post-editing, professional technical support is needed. And video design in different courses will also have different styles. The schools need to provide technical support to teachers, who will provide experience for the follow-up teaching videos (Zhang Jinlei, Wang Ying & Zhang Baohui, 2012). In addition, the success of the flipped classroom depends on the degree of communication between teachers and students, students and students. It is very important to use information technology to build personalized and collaborative learning environment for students, which involves the support of teaching platform.

#### D. Teachers' Professional Ability

Teachers play an important role in the efficient application of a new teaching model in teaching. In the flipped classroom, the quality of teaching videos, the communication between students, the arrangement of learning time and the organization of classroom activities all have an important impact on the teaching effect.

With the help of video recording technicians, teachers record emotional and lively teaching video to avoid rigid and monotonous narration. And teachers should guide students to communicate actively in the network teaching platform. Through question-based, project-based inquiry learning, students' enthusiasm and inquiry can be mobilized. The organization of classroom activities also needs teachers to design according to the characteristics of the subject.

#### E. Requirements for Students' Autonomous Learning Ability

After watching teaching videos after class, students complete their own exercises and search for information on the Internet, summarize the problems, and then discuss with teachers and students in class. All these are based on students' good autonomous learning ability. Only students with autonomous learning ability can learn the course through teaching video, find out their problems in the pre-class exercise, and reasonably arrange their learning time, and communicate with teachers and classmates. Therefore, in the flipped classroom, we should pay attention to the cultivation of students' autonomous learning ability.

#### F. The Change of Evaluation Methods

The traditional paper test method test cannot test the learning effects of students in the flipped classroom, because the flipped classroom also involves students' cooperative ability, organizational ability, personal time management ability, expression ability and so on. Teachers must change their evaluation methods. In addition, the evaluation of students' emotion, attitude and values should be paid attention to, and the change of evaluation method needs the support of the school's policy system.

## VI. SUMMARY AND SUGGESTIONS

A. The flipped classroom is closely related to the knowledge internalization, and which is divided into three stages in the flipped classroom teaching mode. "Pre-class learning" is the enlightenment stage of knowledge internalization. Although the effect of knowledge internalization is not obvious, it is the most important part of the flipped classroom. "Organizing and expressing" is the consolidation stage of knowledge internalization, which can be achieved through the exchange of roles between teachers and students in the flipped classroom. "Optimizing" is the key stage of knowledge internalization, and teachers give students correct knowledge to achieve the re-internalization of knowledge.

B. In order to improve students' knowledge internalization and effectively carry out pre-class learning in the flipped classroom, teachers should fully understand students' knowledge structure before designing teaching. Students with solid foundation are put into each group to form a more balanced study group, who can help each other before class to solve the problems found in the study. Before organizing learning, teachers should determine the learning goals, key points and difficulties, set problems and exercises, and draw up learning plans.

C. Sharing teaching experience. Teachers should give priority to learning methods in their teaching, and the new teaching methods should not be based on traditional teaching methods. Teachers must have gone through a lot of explorations and discoveries in the preparation. Teachers should share their learning experience with students. Guiding students to actively explore is conducive to students to clarify their learning ideas, form independent thinking ability, and better internalize knowledge.

D. In the flipped classroom, the roles of teachers and students have been exchanged. While in teaching, teachers let students act as real teachers to prepare a complete class when conditions permit. In that case, students stand in the teacher's position to think, to better grasp their knowledge in class. Let the students achieve the effect of knowledge internalization in practice.

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# Usage-based Approaches to Second Language Acquisition: Cognitive and Social Aspects

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**Abstract**—Usage-based approaches focus on learning language through engaging in the interpersonal communicative and cognitive processes. They consider language as the best accomplishment of our social and cognitive competences which bridges society and cognition. Based on usage-based approaches, language can be learned from language use, by means of social skills and generalizations over usage events in interaction. These approaches actually explore how language learning occurs through language experience. Therefore, usage-based approaches are input-dependent and experience-driven and assume frequency of usage as an inseparable part of language learning which plays an important role in the language production, language comprehension, and also grammaticality of the patterns. While usage-based approaches have been successful in showing how first language is learnt from the input, it is still less clear how these approaches can be made use of in second language learning. The present study provides an overview of the usage-based approaches to second language acquisition and their cognitive and social underpinnings. Firstly, the notion, underlying tenets, and major constructs of usage-based approaches are summarized. Then usage-based linguistics is described in detail. Finally, cognitive and social aspects of usage-based approaches are taken into account.

**Index Terms**—usage, usage-based approach, usage-based linguistics, second language acquisition

## I. INTRODUCTION

“Language is learned in social interaction through shared experience and practice. This intuition has increasingly consolidated into a model of linguistic representation and language learning generally referred to as the usage-based theory” (Jing-Schmidt, 2018, p. 5). According to Wulff and Ellis (2018), ‘Usage-based’ is a label for various approaches to second language acquisition which minimally share two working hypotheses: first, the linguistic input language users receive is the main source for their second language learning; second, the cognitive mechanisms employed by language learners are not exclusive to only language learning, but are also associated with learning of any kind. Tan and Shojamanesh (2019) explain that the focus of usage-based approach is on cognitive linguistics which deals with the influence of input, experience, and frequency in language learning. In fact, usage-based approaches consider language as part of human cognition, and also as a meaning-making tool in a social context (Tomasello, 2003), which is essential for usage-based account of language learning. Usage-based approach of language learning which is an input-driven approach is in contrast to UG-based approach which claims that children have a prior language knowledge of grammar (Tan & Shojamanesh, 2019). The usage-based approach became so popular that UG-based approach was assumed an outdated theory. This approach seeks to ground language structure in the usage-event which is the actual instances of language (Kemmer & Barlow, 2000). In other words, “a usage-based model is one in which the speaker’s linguistic system is fundamentally grounded in ‘usage events’ instances of a speaker’s producing and understanding language” (Kemmer & Barlow, 2000, p. iix). Similarly, Tomasello (2000) states that:

In usage-based models of language...all things flow from the actual usage events in which people communicate linguistically with one another. The linguistic skills that a person possesses at any given moment in time...result from her accumulated experience with language across the totality of usage events in her life...this theoretical freedom to identify these units on the basis of actual language use, rather than adult-based linguistic theory, is truly liberating. (p.61)

Langacker (1988) refers to three characteristics of usage-based model: maximalist, non-reductive, and bottom-up which are in contrast to generative traditions that are minimalist, reductive, and top-down. The first two characteristics imply the massiveness and redundancy of the grammar, and the third characteristic implies that general patterns emerge from specific patterns and these specific patterns are considered as the result of experience (Tan & Shojamanesh, 2019). Vogt and Lieven (2010) argue that in usage-based approach, language is learnt through general pattern recognition mechanisms, which enable humans to construct their internal languages based on actual speech events. In fact, based on usage-based approaches of language acquisition, linguistic structures can be learned from language use and experience (Tomasello, 2003), by means of powerful generalization abilities (Behrens, 2009). According to Behrens (2009), learning grammar based on experience alone was long assumed to be impossible, but in recent years, advances in usage-

based theory, developmental psychology, and computational linguistics changed the view on this matter. Behrens maintain that in usage-based approaches language can be learned through language use itself, by means of social skills and powerful generalization mechanisms. In addition, Kemmer and Barlow (2000) assert that since usage-based approaches are experience-driven, frequency of items is assumed as an inseparable part of language learning, especially in understanding structures and operations. Similarly, Tan and Shojamanesh (2019) state that frequency of usage in usage-based models plays an important role in the language production, language comprehension, and also grammaticality of the linguistic patterns. Therefore, usage-based theory does not rely on innateness for explaining linguistic categories and this is experience with language which influences its cognitive representation (Bybee, 2008).

## II. THE NOTION AND UNDERLYING TENETS

According to Behrens (2009), the term ‘usage-based’ goes back to Langacker’s (1987) assumption that a linguistic system is grounded in usage events or utterances. This term provides a helpful prism through which to regard linguistic models that emphasize language use as a primary shaper of linguistic form and also as the foundation for language learning (Tyler, 2010). “Originally, the notion of ‘usage-based’ was used to highlight a methodological and theoretical contrast between cognitive and generative linguistics” (Mengden & Coussé 2014, p. 2). Langacker (1987) distinguishes the concept of ‘Cognitive Grammar’ from ‘Generative Grammar’ and draws on the term ‘usage-based’ to endorse his claim that “irregular and idiosyncratic phenomena need to be accommodated into a convincing theory of language” (Mengden & Coussé 2014, p. 2). He believes that mental representations are grounded in usage rather than in an innate language faculty. Kemmer and Barlow (2000, pp. viii–xxii; cited in Mengden & Coussé 2014) list some key features of usage-based models:

- an intimate relation between linguistic structures and instances of use of language
- the importance of frequency
- comprehension and production as integral, rather than peripheral, to the linguistic system
- focus on the role of learning and experience in language acquisition
- linguistic representations as emergent, rather than as fixed entities
- importance of usage data in theory construction and description
- the intimate relation between usage, synchronic variation and diachronic change
- the interconnectedness of the linguistic system with non-linguistic cognitive systems
- the crucial role of context in the operation of the linguistic system

According to Tyler (2010), all usage-based approaches consider five key tenets: (a) The main purpose of language is communication which shapes language itself. (b) We always have natural language in context, and the user’s utterances are influenced by contextual factors. (c) Language is learned and usage patterns including frequency information and collocational information are central to the learning of the system. (d) Grammatical patterns are assumed to be meaningful and meaning is not only related to lexical items. (e) Language can be fully and accurately accounted for and all syntactic patterns can be considered without assuming levels, such as deep or surface structure. Wulff and Ellis (2018) refer to another important tenet of usage-based approaches in the context of categorization, which is, there should not be any principled distinction between linguistic and other cognitive categories. This means that language users classify the world around them and the language that accompanies their experiences in the same way (Wulff & Ellis, 2018). They maintain that since children’s early competence is limited and no innate representations are regarded, language has to be learned through experience.

## III. MAJOR CONSTRUCTS OF USAGE-BASED APPROACHES TO SLA

### A. *Constructions*

The essential units of language representation are constructions which are pairings of form and meaning or function (Ellis & Wulff, 2015). These form–function pairings are not restricted to the level of words and are assumed to pervade all layers of language. Simple words, simple morphemes, idiomatic expressions, and even abstract syntactic frames are constructions (Ellis & Wulff, 2015). In other words, constructions differ in their degree of complexity and abstraction and range from simple morphemes to complex and abstract syntactic frames (Ellis & Wulff, 2015). Shin (2017) states that “constructions are contained in a language user’s lexicon and form structured inventories of the speaker’s (grammatical) knowledge; and they are symbolic in that they blend morphosyntactic and lexical forms with semantic, pragmatic, and discourse functions associated with them” (p. 11).

### B. *Associative Language Learning*

“Learning constructions means learning the association between form and meaning or function. The more reliable the association between a form and its meaning or function, the easier it is to learn” (Ellis & Wulff, 2015, p. 75). Moreover, frequent constructions in the input are processed more readily than infrequent constructions. This fact implies that language is learned from usage and in an associative manner (Ellis & Wulff, 2015). Experience makes a learner’s perceptual system highly tuned to expect constructions based on their likelihood of occurrence in the input (Ellis & Wulff, 2015).

### C. *Rational Cognitive Processing*

“Language learning is rational such that a learner’s knowledge of a given form–meaning pair at any point in their language development is a reflection of how often and in what specific contexts the learner has encountered that form–meaning pair” (Ellis & Wulff, 2015, p. 78). In fact, language users are assumed to be rational, because they have a mental model of their language which is custom-fit to their experience of language at any given time (Ellis, 2006; cited in Ellis & Wulff, 2015). Their unconscious language systems can predict the constructions which are relevant to the ongoing discourse context, preparing them for both comprehension and production (Ellis & Wulff, 2015).

### D. *Exemplar-based Learning*

“The learner’s brain engages simple learning mechanisms in distributional analyses of the exemplars of a given form–meaning pair that take various characteristics of the exemplar into consideration, including how frequent it is, what kind of words and phrases and larger contexts it occurs with, and so on” (Ellis & Wulff, 2015, p. 76). Usage-based theories study how the acquisition of generative schema, productive patterns, and other rule-like regularities is based on exemplars (Ellis & Wulff, 2015). Whenever the learner encounters an exemplar of a construction, the language system starts to compare this exemplar with previous encounters of the same or similar exemplar in order to retrieve the correct interpretation. Based on exemplar theory, constructions emerge over time as the learner’s language system, and this system processes exemplar after exemplar, identifies the existing regularities and then makes the corresponding abstractions (Ellis & Wulff, 2015).

### E. *Emergent Relations and Patterns*

Language learning is assumed as a gradual process in which language emerges as a complex system from the interaction of cognitive learning mechanisms with the input (Ellis & Wulff, 2015). Complex systems involve the interactions of different parts and share the key aspect that many of their systematicities are emergent, which means that they develop over time in complex, dynamic, and adaptive ways (Ellis & Wulff, 2015). Language is considered as a complex adaptive system and comprises the interactions of people who want to communicate and also a world to be talked about. In addition, language operates across various levels, different human conglomerations and different timescales (Ellis & Wulff, 2015).

## IV. USAGE-BASED LINGUISTICS

A usage-based linguistics is “a form of linguistic analysis, that is, that takes into account not just grammatical structure, but that sees this structure as arising from and interacting with actual language use (Geeraerts & Cuyckens, 2007, p. 17; cited in Tan & Shojamanesh, 2019). According to Diessel (2017), usage-based linguistics is in sharp contrast to the generative and structuralist approach in which the study of language system is considered to be separated from the study of language use. It rejects the innateness hypothesis of generative grammar and challenges the assumption that linguistic structures are built from a set of innate linguistic concepts (Diessel, 2017). Usage-based linguistics emphasizes language use as a main factor for shaping a language and assumes languages as dynamic systems that gradually emerge from learners’ experiences with linguistic or non-linguistic input (Bybee & McClelland, 2005; cited in Shin, 2017). Thus, Language acquisition becomes input-driven and sensitive to the experience of language use with other kinds of knowledge other than the language itself (Diessel, 2013, Ellis, 2006, Wulff, 2013; cited in Shin, 2017). The general purpose of usage-based linguistics is to develop a dynamic theory of language which accounts for the effects of cognitive and interactive processes on the emergence of meaning and structure (Diessel, 2017). Therefore, in usage-based linguistics, language is seen as a dynamic system of fluid constructions that are constantly restructured and reorganized under the influence of domain-general cognitive processes that are involved in language use (Diessel, 2017).

One important aspect of usage-based linguistics is frequency of occurrence (Diessel, 2017). According to Ellis (2002), the frequency of occurrence tunes acquisition and language processing because humans are born with a strong sense to recognize frequency distributions and their central tendencies. It is believed that frequency effects play an important role in language acquisition and help learners in acquiring lexical frames and extending those frames to generalized abstract representations in both L1 and L2 settings (Shin, 2017). In fact, frequency strengthens the representation of linguistic elements in memory and facilitates the processing and activation of words, categories, and constructions, which can have effects on the organization and development of linguistic system (Diessel, 2017). Another significant aspect of usage-based linguistics concerns the relationship between lexical and structural knowledge (Diessel, 2017). In usage-based linguistics, there is a close relationship between lexical and grammatical knowledge, because abstract representations of linguistic structure are derived from language users’ experience with concrete linguistic tokens (Diessel, 2017). In other words, in the usage-based approach, in contrast to structuralist approach, linguistics structures are not independent of particular lexical expressions (Diessel, 2017). Thus, the usage-based linguistics relies on insights from cognitive linguistics, which is a nonmodular theory that assumes linguistic structure is dependent on the semantics and pragmatics it encodes (Behrens, 2009).

Ellis (2020, p. 239) claims that usage-based linguistics explores how we learn language through experiencing it. He maintains that usage-based linguistics is founded upon findings from four complementary areas of empirical investigation:

1. Corpus linguistics demonstrates that language usage is pervaded by collocations and phraseological patterns, that every word has its own local grammar, and that particular language forms communicate particular functions: lexis, syntax, and semantics are inseparable.
2. Cognitive linguistics shows how language meaning is grounded in our experience and our physical embodiment which represents the world in particular ways. Language consists of many tens of thousands of constructions—form-meaning mappings, conventionalized in the speech community, and entrenched as language knowledge in the learner's mind. Schematic constructions emerge from the conspiracy of memories of particular exemplars that language users have experienced.
3. The psychology of learning shows that humans have a range of abilities for implicit associative and statistical learning, concept learning and categorization, and explicit declarative learning and analogy making. These are relevant to the learning of the symbols, sequences, and patterns of language that imbue our every waking moment.
4. Psycholinguistics shows that our language processing is sensitive to the statistical regularities of language experience at every level of structure.

#### V. COGNITIVE ASPECTS OF LEARNING A LANGUAGE THROUGH USAGE-BASED APPROACHES

Language is the best accomplishment of our social and cognitive competences and bridges society and cognition (Ellis, 2015; Ellis, R'omer, & O'Donnell, 2016). Usage-based approaches investigate how we learn language while we are engaging in the interpersonal communicative and cognitive processes that shape language (Ellis et al., 2016). "Usage-based researchers acknowledge that language development is situated in a social context, with a learner's cognitive processes influenced by and responding to the characteristics of a given usage event" (Roehr-Brackin, 2015, p. 182). Thus, the social and cognitive-psychological are assumed as closely intertwined (Eskildsen 2009, 2012; Verspoor & Behrens 2011; cited in Roehr-Brackin, 2015). According to Ellis (2015), language learning involves determining structures from usage and this involves the full scope of cognition: "the remembering of utterances and episodes, the categorization of experience, the determination of patterns among and between stimuli, the generalization of conceptual schema and prototypes from exemplars, and the use of cognitive models, metaphors, analogies, and images in thinking" (p. 49). Mengden and Coussé (2014) also claim that despite the prominence of 'usage' in usage-based approaches, these approaches essentially focus on cognition and present a cognition-centered perspective. Roehr-Brackin (2015) considers cognition as shared, embodied, and situated. She argues that cognitive functions occur in specific settings, which are viewed as a part of cognition. According to Bybee (2010, p. 2; cited in Ibbotson, 2013), usage-based approaches draw on several cognitive processes which have influence on the use and development of linguistic structures:

- (i) categorization; identifying tokens as an instances of a particular type
- (ii) chunking; the formation of sequential units through repetition or practice
- (iii) rich memory; the storage of detailed information from experience
- (iv) analogy; mapping of an existing structural pattern on to a novel instance, and
- (v) cross-modal association; the cognitive capacity to link form and meaning.

Roehr-Brackin (2015) explains that in the usage-based approach, the processing and representation of language is understood in terms of domain-general cognitive mechanisms like categorization and entrenchment. Categorization refers to an individual's differential responses to events or objects in separate classes (Ashby & O'Brien, 2005; cited in Roehr-Brackin, 2015). Entrenchment means to strengthen memory traces through repeated activation. Entrenched constructions are known as conventional linguistic units, which are considered as inherently symbolic, so constructions at different levels of abstraction are assumed as pairings of form and meaning (Goldberg 2003; cited in Roehr-Brackin, 2015).

Ellis (2015) describes some of the main cognitive linguistic tenets of construction grammar and usage-based approaches: a) "Language is intrinsically symbolic, constituted by a structured inventory of constructions as conventionalized form-meaning pairings used for communicative purposes" (Ellis, 2015, p. 50). b) Language is intrinsically linked to human cognition and also to processes of attention, perception, memory, learning, schematization, and categorization. c) Adult language knowledge includes a continuum of linguistic constructions of various levels of abstraction and complexity. "Constructions can comprise concrete and particular items, more abstract classes of items, or complex combinations of concrete and abstract pieces of language. It is believed that there is no rigid separation between grammar and lexis" (Ellis, 2015, p. 50). d) Constructions may be simultaneously stored and represented in multiple forms and at different levels of abstraction. e) Constructions can be meaningful linguistic symbols that exist independent from particular lexical items. Nevertheless, constructions and the particular lexical tokens are inseparable. f) Language structure emerges from usage in particular contexts which its development moves slowly and gradually from an initial reliance on concrete items to abstract linguistic schemata (Ellis, 2015).

To sum up, Mengden and Coussé (2014) assert that usage-based approaches make a cognitivist position plausible, in that they take into account the input and the circumstances of the speaker-hearer interaction in analyzing linguistic structures. Moreover, these approaches reveal the context-dependence of individual utterances and the conventional



character of the system behind them as well (Mengden & Coussé 2014). Mengden and Coussé (2014) maintain that there must be something beyond the cognitive activity, which is vital for the nature of the linguistic systems, and these aspects are based on communication, or, more broadly, on the society.

## VI. SOCIAL ASPECTS OF LEARNING A LANGUAGE THROUGH USAGE-BASED APPROACHES

Language is considered as a social action and linguistic constructions would not work without social actions and vice versa (Eskildsen & Cadierno, 2015). According to Eskildsen and Cadierno (2015, p. 10), “development of second language interactional competence also concerns a growing ability to control procedures or methods, including use of linguistic resources, for accomplishing social actions”. For many second language learners, the target is not only to speak another language, but also to become part of the cultural and social environment in which this language is used. Ellis (2015) believes that the nature of language follows from the role it plays in social interaction. Social interactions are characterized by shared cooperative activity (Bratman 1992; cited in Ellis, 2015) or joint actions (Clark, 1996; cited in Ellis, 2015). Joint actions are dependent on shared cognition, which is a human being’s recognition of being able to share intentions and beliefs with other human beings (Ellis, 2015; Ellis et al., 2016). Therefore, usage-based approaches put emphasis on how language is learned through participatory experience of language processing during embodied interaction in cultural and social contexts where individually desired outcomes are considered as goals to be achieved by communicating concepts, intentions, and meaning with others (Ellis, 2015; Ellis et al., 2016). Frith and Frith, (2010; cited in Ellis, 2015) state that in both neural activity and social world, the dynamics of language learning are linked to the dynamics of consciousness. Thus, consciousness is assumed to be co-constructed in social interaction (Ellis 2005) and the input to associative learning is considered to be socially gated (Kuhl 2007). According to Quine (1960; cited in Ellis, 2015), the robustness of language lies in the commonalities of its usage; this means that we learn language from other people, through the observable mouthing of words under obviously inter-subjective circumstances. “The uniformity that unites us in communication and belief is a uniformity of resultant patterns overlying a collective subjective diversity of connections between word and experience. Uniformity comes where it matters socially” (Quine, 1960, p. 8; cited in Ellis, 2015).

Therefore, shared cognition, shared cooperative activity, and shared attention are key to meaningful language usage (Ellis, 2015; Ellis et al., 2016). For second language acquisition, speakers, identity, speech and social relationships are inseparable. Lantolf and Thorne (2006; cited in Ellis, 2015) argue that socio-cultural approaches emphasize how language is learnt in social usage which involves action, reaction, intersubjectivity, collaborative interaction, and mutually assisted performance. Social-interactional approaches analyze how interaction provides reactive feedback and comprehensible, negotiated input (Gass 1997, 2002, 2003; Gass & Mackey 2007; Long 1982; Mackey 2012; cited in Ellis, 2015). The kind of interaction that focuses participants’ attention on resolving a communication problem and also the consequent negotiation of form and meaning can connect internal learner capacities, input, output, and selective attention in productive ways (Long 1996; cited in Ellis, 2015). Second language acquisition can be free from the limits of L1-induced selective attention by some means of form-focus which is socially given and socially determined and that recruits the learner’s explicit processing (Ellis 2005). Bybee and Beckner (2010) state that usage-based approaches assume language as changing, dynamic and fluid through the interaction of social usage events with the cognitive processes’ characteristics of the human brain. Cadierno and Eskildsen (2015), Atkinson (2016), and Hulstijn, Young, Ortega, Bigelow, DeKeyser, Ellis and Talmy (2014) marry the social aspect of usage-based approaches with the cognitive, in that so much of usage and attention in usage are socially driven (Wulff & Ellis, 2018).

## VII. CONCLUSION

Usage-based approaches assume that all linguistic knowledge is constructed based on the input and the major part of language learning takes place implicitly and incidentally during meaning-focused input processing. These approaches are input-dependent and experience-driven and consider language learning as a complex adaptive system which involves multidimensional social and cognitive processes that interact in time and space. According to Ellis et al., (2016), work on usage-based approaches brings together people from different but complementary empirical and theoretical approaches, such as “cognitive linguistics, construction grammar, functional linguistics, cognitive psychology, learning theory, psycholinguistics, statistical learning theory, child language acquisition, neuroscience, corpus linguistics, computational science, natural language processing, emergentism, complex systems theory, conversational analysis, dynamic systems theory, sociolinguistics, and social learning theory” (p. 24). Thus, usage-based approaches to second language acquisition are gaining more currency in neighboring disciplines and the increasing integration of appropriate approaches and methodologies promises many interesting new perspectives for future research on the cognitive instantiation of language.

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# The Study and Application of Corpus Linguistics to Create Content-based Materials for Pedagogical Purposes

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**Abstract**—It has long been proved that content-based instruction affects the overall academic progress of ESL students. With the development of research and application of corpus linguistics, such materials can be better collected and sorted for pedagogical purposes. In this project, a creation of a corpus of business language was used for developing materials for the ESL class. After a process of piloting, experimenting and revising, the materials were developed based on the collected corpus. As a result, the course turned out to be effective and well received by both the instructor and the students. We believe this project could be replicated for other academic disciplines as well.

**Index Terms**—corpus linguistics, content-based material, ESL

## I. INTRODUCTION

Every year, large numbers of international students take part in language training programs in the university in the U.S. to prepare them for their graduate studies. Even though the program focuses on English for academic purposes (EAP), the transition to discipline-specific coursework can prove to be problematic when students are confronted with the English for specific purposes (ESP) of the various disciplines. Many of the international students who come to the U.S. or other major English-speaking countries to pursue academic careers choose Business Administration as a major. These students are required to take and pass the introductory course in the School of Business Administration in order to continue with business classes. In the university I did research at, there is a high failure rate of about 30% every year for the international students who enroll, which constitute a major concern for both the teachers at the language training program and those at the business administration. As a collaborative attempt to solve the problem, I participated in a project to create new teaching materials and methods at the university in the U.S. The suggestion was to utilize a corpus as a useful resource for developing classroom materials. Such a computer-based, principled collection of the actual language encountered in the class could provide insight into the language that the students would need to master.

## II. LITERATURE REVIEW

### A. Content-based Classes

Content-based classes refer to those that teach language skills through the lens of the particular academic course or discipline with which they are paired. Kasper (1994) sums up the situation commonly faced by ESL students:

Given the sophistication and complexity of the ideas and material presented in...academic courses, and the fact that many of them are taught lecture style, a great number of ESL students find themselves overwhelmed and frustrated in these classes. They are expected to perform at the level of native speakers even though their proficiency in English is often inadequate to this task.

To increase their chances for academic success, they need a situation that will provide them with additional practice with the ideas presented in their content classes while helping them to improve their English language skills. Pairing the ESL class with the academic content class offers just such a situation. (p. 376)

Kasper has made numerous investigations into the relationship between content-based ESL classes and student performance. The 1994 research found that students in these paired classes did well in the academic class with which their ESL class was paired: 78% received a B or better, and none failed. Additionally, students enrolled in ESL classes paired with regular academic courses scored significantly higher in their English language reading skills than did students in non-paired ESL classes. Similar results would be welcomed by both the ESL programs and the School of Business Administration

In further research, Kasper (1997) investigated how content-based instruction affected the overall academic progress of ESL students in order to confirm student feedback suggesting that those who had taken content-based ESL classes had not only graduated at a higher rate but also done so with better grades. This multi-term study followed the performance of students enrolled in content-based ESL classes until they graduated and compared them with ESL students who had not been in content-based classes. In the four terms of the study, students in the content-based group scored higher on several

measures: they were found to have done significantly better in the ESL class, they scored significantly higher on a reading assessment examination, and they graduated at a higher rate than those in the control group who weren't in content-based classes.

*B. Corpora in Content-based Language Study*

If content-based instruction is indeed successful in improving the performance of ESL students, the question naturally arises as to how the content is to be selected for a given paired course. With the development of research and application of corpus linguistics, a new answer has been given: Biber and Barbieri (2007) argue that the language that students need to control is that which they will encounter in their studies. Conrad (1996) and Sznajder (2010), too, advise that the language taught be that which is found in authentic texts from the disciplines.

Several instances of using corpora of business English for pedagogical purposes have been described in the literature. Fuentes (2002) utilized a business corpus of more than a million words to inform his creation of course materials based on the frequencies and collocates of content words he found, after which he evaluated the materials in order to revise and improve what he had done. His conclusion was that “texts recommended or required at the university should...serve as reference...” for the creation of materials (p. 28), a conclusion similar to that of Conrad and Sznajder.

In a case study of adult learners in Germany, Walker (2011) found that having students work directly with corpora informed the teaching of word choice in business settings, specifically for showing shades of meanings of collocates of business-related words used in specific situations anticipated by the students themselves. Liu (2010) searched the Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA) for near-synonyms of words before describing a behavioral profile for each one while Diani (2008) searched for a specific word and then analyzed its use, focusing on its collocates. Although these latter studies were not all limited to business language, they did suggest additional ways of using corpora to inform pedagogy.

When multiple corpora are used in research, or when large corpora are divided into subcorpora, it is possible to investigate differences in the language among the various corpora or subcorpora. One of the most extensive investigations of this type was done by Coxhead (2000), in developing an Academic Word List (AWL) of 570 word families by comparing word frequencies in an academic corpus built by the researcher to those in a general service list. The AWL that was created represented 10% of the words in the academic corpora but only 1.4% in a more general corpus, indicating their increased salience in academic English. While Coxhead herself didn't report using her results for pedagogical purposes, Schmitt and Schmitt (2005) employed this AWL to create a workbook for mastering academic vocabulary.

Thus far we have seen that research on content-based classes supports the formulation of a class specifically for the ESL students who enroll in the introductory business class and that corpus research suggests ways of identifying language for the creation of materials drawn from authentic materials. Identifying vocabulary used in the introductory business class could well inform the development of materials for the ESL class. Comparing the language of the textbook with that of online business blogs or with other genres could provide valuable input for additional pedagogical materials. Familiarizing ESL students with multi-word strings that are used frequently in business could improve their writing.

III. DATA COLLECTION

The design of the corpus was undertaken in the spring, which underwent both peer and instructor review and subsequent revision. Several of the graduate students who had worked on the design of the corpus committed to building it. The group decided to concentrate on entering the textbook as it was used in all of the sections of the course, was the basis of tests and quizzes, and most of the reading in each section was assigned in it.

During the spring and summer of the same year samples from the textbook, newspaper articles and blogs were entered into the corpus. Most of the data were in the electronic form, which only need to be cleaned and stored in a logical order. The result was a creation of a corpus of business language to be used for developing materials for the class. The corpus as it stands has samples from three genres: the textbook, business articles from the online version of some major newspapers, and business blogs. Samples of approximately five hundred words were taken from each section of each chapter of the textbook and included any titles for these sections. Since sentences were not cut off at 500 words and some sections were shorter than the planned size, samples varied in actual size. Chapter summaries were entered in their entirety, and graphics and charts were not included. The newspaper articles and blogs were collected whole. The components and size of the corpus are summarized in Table I.

TABLE I.  
CONTENTS OF THE CORPUS AS OF AUGUST 2019

Text Type	Number of Samples	Number of Words
Textbook	442	107,979
Business Articles	48	31,181
Business Blogs	157	56,888
Total	625	196,048

IV. METHODS

The project had two phases: in the first phase, target vocabulary was identified in the corpus and in the second phase materials were created using this target vocabulary. The goal was to help bridge the gap between the academic vocabulary the ESL students knew and the discipline specific vocabulary of the course.

#### A. Phase I. Identifying Target Words and Deciding When to Introduce Them

The first phase of the project was divided into two parts: the first was selecting the word families to be introduced as target vocabulary, and the second was determining when to introduce them. During the first part, we searched the textbook subcorpus as a whole for word frequencies using the MonoConc Pro concordancer (Barlow, 2003). The initial reports run were simple frequencies. However, the reports showed 980 tokens (individual occurrences) of the word *firms*, making it the 12th most frequent word in the corpus, and 854 tokens of *firm*, making it the 15th most frequent word. In general, the most frequent words in corpora are function words; it is unusual to find content words this common in a corpus. (See Table II below)

TABLE II  
RESULTS OF SEARCH FOR SIMPLE FREQUENCIES SHOWING THE 15 MOST COMMON WORDS IN THE CORPUS

Number of Tokens	Percentage in corpus	Word
6417	5.9428%	the
3596	3.3303%	to
3214	2.9765%	of
2946	2.7283%	a
1938	1.7948%	and
1744	1.6151%	in
1586	1.4688%	that
1385	1.2827%	or
1315	1.2178%	is
1181	1.0937%	are
1035	0.9585%	be
982	0.9094%	<b>firms</b>
922	0.8539%	may
856	0.7927%	as
860	0.7965%	<b>firm</b>

This changed the focus of the searches from individual words to word families. Function words were not considered for inclusion in the vocabulary list. We identified approximately 80 high frequency word families as candidates for inclusion in the vocabulary list then took them to the instructors for their comments. In our meeting, several of the families in the initial list were eliminated because the instructors felt that the students would already be familiar with them. Considering the duration of the course for the quarter and the acceptance of the students, the list was reviewed again and culled down to fit the constraints of the class. As a result, about 60 word families were included in the list.

The second part was to determine when to introduce each word family, that is, to assign the target vocabulary to the six lessons. The main difficulty encountered with this was that most of the target vocabulary appeared throughout the entire textbook, beginning with the first chapter. Introducing words the first time they appeared was, therefore, not a reasonable option: it would mean that the first lesson would have most of the vocabulary in it, exceeding our limit on the number of word families in a single lesson. To solve this problem of when to introduce the families, we had a pilot study and discussion with the instructors, and finally decided to group the target vocabulary based on its frequencies in the six parts into which the textbook was divided: Business Environment, Starting a New Business, Management, Managing Employees, Marketing, and Financial Management. This would align the presentation of the word families with the order of the material in the textbook. We developed a spreadsheet that showed their distribution throughout the textbook. This approach provided a workable solution to the distribution problem.

The spreadsheet listed the total tokens (occurrences) of the word families in the corpus and the percentages of the tokens found in each of the six parts of the textbook. Table III below shows the first six families (represented by a single family member) as an example. This section of the spreadsheet shows that 66% of the 96 tokens of the word family of "corporate" are in Part II of the textbook. This word family was, therefore, placed in Part II. Assignments of words like "corporate" were simple as were those of words like decentralize and franchise which appeared in only one part of the textbook, but other families were more widely disbursed. In general, those widespread families were placed in the part where their cumulative frequencies reached approximately 50%.

TABLE III.  
SPREADSHEET SHOWING A SAMPLE OF THE DISTRIBUTION OF VOCABULARY WORDS THROUGHOUT THE TEXTBOOK ( SHADED BACKGROUND INDICATES WHERE FAMILY IS INTRODUCED )

	consume	corporate	credit	customer	decentralize	distribute
<b>Total tokens</b>	<b>254</b>	<b>96</b>	<b>166</b>	<b>409</b>	<b>35</b>	<b>178</b>
<b>Tokens / 100,000</b>	<b>235</b>	<b>89</b>	<b>154</b>	<b>379</b>	<b>32</b>	<b>164</b>
% in						
<b>Part I</b>	<b>38</b>	<b>14</b>	<b>23</b>	<b>26</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>6</b>
<b>Part II</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>66</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>14</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>7</b>
<b>Part III</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>2</b>
<b>Part IV</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>0</b>
<b>Part V</b>	<b>59</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>20</b>	<b>37</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>77</b>
<b>Part VI</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>43</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>8</b>

*B. Phase II. Developing and Revising Materials*

After identification and assignment of the target words, we came to the second phase: developing and revising materials. Several principles were followed for the presentation of the target vocabulary:

1. authentic materials from corpora would be used throughout
2. target vocabulary would be presented multiple times
3. materials would appear in consistent formats for each lesson

The goal in following these principles was to flood the students with the vocabulary that they would be expected to learn in the course. Using a consistent format for each lesson would allow the students to focus on the content of what was being presented rather than its format. This approach was consistent with that taken in the two books used as models for the materials: Robbins’ (2006) *Collins COBUILD Business Vocabulary in Practice* and Schmitt & Schmitt’s (2005) *Focus on Vocabulary: Mastering the Academic Word List*, both of which are corpus based.

The overall process for developing and assessing the materials lasted over three quarters. The first step was to try out a number of different formats for exercises in the spring quarter, getting feedback from the instructor on what worked best. Based on the feedback, a more complete set of materials was prepared and piloted in the class fall quarter, when feedback from the students would be solicited. Revisions of materials were done and a final set prepared for the winter quarter.

The two examples of usage of each word given were taken from the Corpus whenever possible. When the Corpus did not offer an example, one was found in the Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA), which is a free, online corpus of over 450 million words. Examples drawn from COCA were limited to those which showed non-business-specific meanings of words. The definitions given were not limited to business uses of the target vocabulary as both of the instructors and I were committed to introducing the students to meanings outside of a strict business context so students would have some understanding of broader uses of these words. An example of this is the use of *firm* meaning “strong” as in “He offered the most annoying form of handshake – dismissive, minus the *firm* grip or eye contact”. Here the student needs to understand that a “firm grip” is not some secretive way of shaking hands prescribed by a company.

All of the exercises were constructed using only sentences from the Corpus. Again, the reason for this was to repeat information from the textbook and to display target words in context. Sentences chosen for the exercises were always different from those in the examples of vocabulary usage.

V. RESULTS

Graduate students in the MA TESOL program have been working actively on the Corpus project. After three quarters of piloting, experimenting and revising, the percentages of the students passing the exam, either the subjective or objective tests, were both increased. (From 72% and 76% to 77% and 80% respectively) When the students did the matching exercise of the vocabulary review for the final the results showed that they knew most of the vocabulary well. We also interviewed some of the students at the end of the different quarters for their feedback, and most of them said the new materials help them memorize the vocabulary better. The content-based materials turned out to be effective and well received by both the instructor and the students.

VI. DISCUSSIONS

Too often we are assigned materials to use that are more prescriptive than descriptive and are not based on actual usage, when it is often the later our students need to understand. Too many sample sentences and dialogs appear to be manufactured rather than authentic and don’t prepare students for what they will actually hear. I have come to appreciate and embrace the necessity of having students understand how people really speak and write, and this is what is found in corpora.

Generally, the time spent with this Corpus project has been incredibly valuable beginning with designing what would

be included in the corpus; through countless hours of scanning the textbook for inclusion in the corpus, counting words, looking up words, and finding examples of word use; and puzzling about how to distribute the vocabulary. We are pleased that the results of this project are, indeed, useful for the students for whom they were written and we sincerely hope that the materials will benefit those who will take this course in the coming years and the instructors and students taking similar ESL courses in similar contexts.

My personal assessment of this project is that it has two major strengths. The first is that a solid foundation has been established upon which other materials can be built for business language for the program, whether for another iteration of the paired class, the elective business class that is currently offered, or in other classes when business is the topic being discussed. There now exists a large amount of readily accessible information to which instructors can go to create business-related materials.

On a grander scale, the project also established a process for developing vocabulary materials for other similar classes in the future. Business language course is not the only one that other international students have difficulty with when they take regular academic classes. Given the opportunity to do the materials again, I think I would repeat what was done, but would include more work on collocations, information on common multi-word strings, and additional lessons teaching students how to use corpora. While the information and materials that were created could prove useful for business related classes, corpus skills can be used by students on their own in order to answer a broad range of questions about language.

On a larger scale, this project could be replicated for other academic disciplines such as psychology, medicine, engineering, or sociology. If international students have difficulties in the introductory business course, it would not be surprising to find that they have difficulty in other introductory courses as well.

## VII. LIMITATIONS

The corpus itself would become even more useful were it to be expanded to include other subcorpora as outlined in the original design. These might include articles from other business publications, transcripts of lectures, etc., many of which are readily available online and could be collected with a minimum of time spent. Comparing the language in these additional subcorpora to that of the textbook likely uncover differences between the genres.

A broad research project that could be done with paired content-based classes that uses corpus-based materials would be to follow ESL students from the class throughout their university careers to see how they perform compared to ESL students who have not had such classes. This would essentially replicate the work done by Kasper. If there is evidence that the ESL students who have this type of class perform better than those who don't, it would argue for the inclusion of more classes like this in our program.

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# C-E Translation of Jiang Zilong's Short Story *Mr. Big* on the Basis of Functional Equivalence Theory

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**Abstract**—In recent years, an increasing amount of excellent foreign novels and short stories are translated and introduced into China while limited Chinese short stories are presented overseas. This paper, on the basis of Nida's functional equivalence theory, analyzes and reviews the translated version of the short story "Mr. Big" written by Jiang Zilong through the application of functional equivalence theory from lexical and syntactic level. The translator, with the target language reader at the core, fully comprehends the original text, emotions, style, and mood of the short story, and appropriately uses various translation methods, such as transliteration with annotation and literal translation for translating culture-loaded words; literal translation, liberal translation, supplementary translation, divided translation, adapted translation, conversed translation, etc. to faithfully reproduce the original content and artistic style of the original work, and achieve functional equivalence. This paper is supposed to enhance the foreign understanding of Jiang Zilong's short story and to provide reference and inspirations for Chinese-English translation of novels and short stories.

**Index Terms**—short story, functional equivalence, translation methods

## I. INTRODUCTION

The translation of short stories can be categorized into literature translation. It requires that the target text should deliver the meaning as well as style of the original text to the maximum; thus, target readers can obtain similar reading and aesthetic experience as the original-text readers, which is consistent with Eugene Nida's functional equivalence theory. Wang Jiayang (2017) holds that "the main characteristics of the short story are: concentrated characters, vivid plots, logical rigor, concise narratives and representativeness. Readers can see how things will develop from the first small beginnings and see the whole picture by one spot. Not only short story can shape typical characters, but also reveal the reality quickly.(p. 4)" This paper, through analysis of the short story and target language, discusses translation methods applied in the translation for reference and to improve the accuracy and promote the communications in different cultures.

## II. BRIEF INTRODUCTION OF THE AUTHOR AND THE SHORT STORY

Jiang Zilong, the former vice president of Chinese Writers' Association and President of Tianjin Writers' Association. His work started to appear in print since 1962. His works, the Story of Director Qiao's Taking Post published in 1979, the Diary of a Factory's Secretary in 1980, Wishing Happy New Year in 1982 won the National Award for Excellent Short Story; his works, the Trailblazers published in 1980, Rainbow in 1981, Sad Melody of Yan-Zhao Area in 1984 won National Award for Excellent Medium-length Novel. His full-length novels include Snake Deity, the Theory of Zi Wu Liu Zhu, Renqi, Cavity, The Empire of Farmers and he writes hundreds of medium-length novels and essays. In 2010, his collected works including 14 volumes were published by people's Literature Publishing House.

Mr. Big, one of the short stories written by Jiang Zilong, portrays an old and stubborn Tianjin calligrapher Mr. Big, who feels free and confident and has his own way to make himself the center of good Feng Shui in the nineteen eighties. From Mr. Big, readers can have a glimpse of a common old craftsman's life in Tianjin, China in the nineteen eighties.

## III. THEORETICAL GUIDANCE

Eugene A. Nida (1964) assumes that "there are fundamentally two different types of equivalence: one which may be called formal and another which is primarily dynamic. (p. 164)" Later Nida (1993) prefers to use the expression "functional equivalence" and he believes that "the readers of a translated text should be able to comprehend it to the point that they can conceive of how the original readers of the text must have understood and appreciated it. (p. 127)". Nida and Taber (1969) define that "translating consists in reproducing in the receptor language the closest natural equivalent of the source-language message, firstly in terms of meaning and secondly in terms of style" (p. 12). Nida's "functional equivalence" stands for communicating effectively the source language message, namely, reproducing "the closest natural equivalent" to the source language message in the receptor language. Generally speaking, translation is not always a perfect art and meaning must have priority over style. Nida's functional equivalence theory provides new

standard for translation, and has significant impact on translation circles.

#### IV. APPLICATION OF FUNCTIONAL EQUIVALENCE THEORY IN TRANSLATION

##### Functional Equivalence at the Lexical Level

###### a. Translation of culture-loaded words

According to Nida's theory, the translator should use three aspects of equivalence as the principle of translation and accurately reproduce the cultural connotation of the source language in the target language through three methods. The first one is lexical equivalence; the second one is syntactical equivalence; the third one is discourse equivalence (p. 231). In these three aspects, Nida thinks meaning is the most important and form comes the second.

Newmark (2001, p. 94) defines culture as "the way of life and its manifestations that are peculiar to a community that uses a particular languages as its means of expression". Bassnett (2010) points out that language is the "heart" within the body of culture (p. 22). Wang Dechun (1990) defines culture-loaded words as "words which are related to China's politics, economics, history, culture and social customs and thus possess national culture characteristics." (p. 6-8).

From a macro perspective, there are two translation strategies: domestication and foreignization for translating culture-loaded words. Based on the above two strategies, the specific translation methods are transliteration with annotation and literal translation.

###### Transliteration with annotation

Example 1: 风水

Translation: Feng Shui (the location of a person's house supposed to have an influence on the fortune of a family and his / her offspring)

Example 2: 太极

Translation: Tai Chi (great ultimate)

Example 3: 磕头

Translation: kowtowing

For culture-loaded words, related cultural connotations ought to be translated. The translator must strive to promote the spread of Chinese culture and enhance and demonstrate the soft power of Chinese culture. With increasing international cultural exchanges, more and more Chinese culture-loaded words have been transliterated overseas and accepted and understood by readers in English-speaking countries, for the translation of these vocabularies, annotation can be omitted. For some of words not that popular among foreigners, they require explanation in bracket just like Feng Shui and Tai Chi.

###### Literal translation

Example 4: 单布裤褂

Translation: old-fashioned blouse and trousers

Example 5: 牌匾

Translation: plaque

Example 6: 灵位

Translation: tablet

Example 7: 一千刀

Translation: 100,000 pieces of Xuan paper

Example 8: 卖字

Translation: sell the calligraphy

Example 9: 太师椅

Translation: an old-fashioned Chinese wooden armchair;

In Chinese, "单布裤褂" is a kind of typical traditional Chinese clothing while "太师椅" a kind of traditional Chinese furniture, and the addition of "old-fashioned" will help foreign readers to understand. The translation of "牌匾" "灵位" is alienated as "plaque" and "tablet" respectively. "一千刀" means "100,000 pieces of Xuan paper" in the context not "100,000 US dollars" and "卖字" refers to "sell the calligraphy".

###### b. Functional equivalence at the syntactical level

In discussing translation process, Nida (1964) puts forward four necessary translating processes: analyze, transfer, restructuring and testing (p. 179). The first translation step is to analyze the referential and conceptual meaning of words, study the grammar and syntax and the textual structure of the source text and divide the sentence structure by finding the "kernel sentence" and other "branch sentences". The second step is to transfer information from the source language to target language, which mainly proceeds in a translator's brain. The third step "restructuring" indicates order change of information such as modifiers and modified terms. And the final step "testing" is mainly about how the potential readers reflect to the translation. Nida (2004) opines that the "testing" should basically include accuracy and readability of the translation and the equivalence of style. The key of "testing" is dynamic equivalence of the source text rather than the word-to-word equivalence (p. 163).

###### Liberal translation

Example 10: 不错，家里的钱的确都是他挣的，可挣大钱的男人有的是，没有像他这么毒的。

Translation: It is true that he is the moneymaker of the family, yet unlike other breadwinners, he controls money in a quite mean way.

Example 11: 整个上午，他睡觉，家也死了。

Translation: He sleeps for a whole morning and so does the house.

Liberal translation is also called free translation, which means the source text is not translated word for word but more flexible on the basis of comprehending the source text. Nida (1978) opines that if a translation is to meet the four basic requirements: making sense; conveying the spirit and manner of the original; having a natural and easy form of expression; and producing a similar response, it is inevitable that at one point the controversy between content and form will be severe so that one or the other must give away. Sometimes, the formal equivalence has to give way for equivalence of information and style. Literally this sentence means “it is true that he earns all the money for the family, and quite a lot of men earn a lot of money, but unlike them, he is very “poisonous”. In translating, this wordy translation is not adopted. The translator uses “moneymaker” to describe Mr. Big and compares him with other “breadwinners” and omits information of “making a lot of money” as “breadwinner” can be a better reference for comparison. The accurate understanding of “毒” is “mean” or “cruel” instead of “poisonous”, the translator chooses “mean” to describe Mr. Big’s attitude towards money and adds the phrase “control money” to picture a vivid portray of an old man who is mean with money to convey a natural and easy form of expression and produce a similar response for target readers (p. 121). The second sentence literally means for the whole morning to noon, Mr. Big has been sleeping and the house is “dead”. However, readers may be stunned and confused by the expression “dead” and a house can never die as it never lives. This sentence depicts that after Mr. Big falls asleep, the house is as quiet as being “dead”. To maintain the rhetoric personification in a natural and relaxing way, the translator keeps the rhetoric expression by describing that the house also falls asleep and to avoid repetition, “so does the house” is applied.

Literal translation

Example 12: 墨香腾溢，他深吸两口。眼神突然清炯，注视着展开的宣纸，耳闻清簌，渐渐进入他所热爱所需要的那种境界。

Translation: He breathes in the sweet smelling of the ink deep in his lungs. Glaring at the open Xuan paper (a high quality rice paper made for traditional Chinese painting and calligraphy) with sudden piercing eyes, winds whispering in his ears, he is gradually lost in his own beloved world while the outside voices seem to fade away.

Example 13: 大先生活得轻松、自信。别人比不了也学不了。他有办法让好风水老围着自己转。

Translation: Mr. Big feels free and confident. No one rivals him nor can be him. He has his own way to make himself the center of good Feng Shui.

Literal translation is also called direct translation which implies a source text is literally translated into target text without changing structure, word sequence or grammatical units of the source text. These two examples are equivalent to the original text in terms of word sequence, sentence structure and meaning as well as rhetoric devices which are translated into Chinese word for word. It is natural that all translations keep the original content and form to achieve functional equivalence and similar reader response.

Supplementary translation

Example 14: 在他写字台对面的墙上把恩师何匡人的灵位摆在正中间，左边挂着盖有市长大印的特聘他为一级书法家的证书，右边是他父母的灵位。这就是他在这个世界上最尊敬的四个人。

Translation: Across the wall of his writing desk sets a shrine including three memorial tablets and one certificate: right in the middle stands his teacher HE’s tablet; on the left stands his first-class calligraphy certificate with seals of mayor of Tianjin; on the right stand his parents’ tablets. These are the four most respected “persons” for him.

While proposing the concept of “dynamic equivalence”, Nida (2013) also advocated a simplified “three-step” translation process: firstly analyze the source sentence and deverbilize its surface structure and find the kernel structure. Secondly transform the kernel structure into its equivalent target language. Thirdly reorganize and restructure the syntactic information. To summarize, it is a process from analysis to reorganization (p.131). In these two sentences, the last sentence is “这就是他在这个世界上最尊敬的四个人” which literally means “these are the four most respected people for him in this world”, but in fact the context tells us one of them is a certificate not a “person”. In the eyes of Mr. Big, the certificate with seals of mayor of Tianjin, as recognition of his calligraphy, is also the most important part of his life, which is why the translator adds quotation marks to “person”. The original text directly describes the four locations between Mr. Big’s teacher HE, the certificate and his parents. The translator adds a kernel sentence “across the wall of his writing desk sets a shrine including three memorial tablets and one certificate” to govern the whole sentence and then introduce locations of different objects in details. The compact and well-layered structure is in line with English expression habits, and makes the information clarified.

Divided translation

Example 15: 这是一间少说也有百年历史的旧平房，与其配套的家具大多也是老式的：一张高大的旧床，一把油漆剥落的太师椅，旧桌子，旧凳子，唯色彩生硬的写字台好像是解放后的产物，上面铺着沾有墨迹的毡子。

Translation: The house in which they live is a bungalow with at least a-hundred-year history, with old-fashioned furniture in it: a huge and high bed, an armchair with flaking paintings, old tables and chairs. Only a bright-colored

writing desk covered by an ink-stained felt, is a rather new product after China's Liberation (in 1949).

The author emphasizes the bright-colored writing desk to exhibit its difference from other old furniture. In translating, the translator mainly applies literal translation for the first half of the sentence, and splits “唯色彩生硬的写字台好像是解放后的产物，上面铺着沾有墨迹的毡子” which literally means “only a bright-colored writing desk covered by an ink-stained felt, is a rather new product after China's Liberation” into another sentence. The translator adapts the information order: put the description of the writing desk to the front and adds the age of the writing desk “in 1949” to help foreign readers be more aware of Mr. Big's living environment and time of furniture to better understand the figure in that era.

Example 16: 不以万变应万变，不以不变应万变，人生三大法则是知变、应变、适变，守住自己的太极，一动一静俱浑然。

Translation: He never fights changes with changes, nor changelessness with changes. There are three principles for life: being aware of, reacting to and adapting to changes. A person should guard his or her own Tai Chi (great ultimate) with changes and changelessness.

Sometimes the components of a long sentence are not closely linked in meaning or not closely related, the translator may divide the long sentence into several independent short sentences which are connected by logic rather than grammar marks for syntactic equivalence. With deconstructing, the source and target text may be more equivalent in terms of content and readers' reactions can be further equalized. Though this Chinese sentence focuses on discussing changes and changelessness, it can be divided into three independent sentences on the basis of coherence. In the first short non-subject sentence, the translator adds “he” as a subject, illustrating Mr. Big's attitude toward fighting changes. The second short sentence talks about three principles related to changes. The translator adds “a person” as its subject and translate “一动一静” into “changes and changelessness” through analyzing the referential and conceptual meaning of “动” “静” within the context for lexical equivalence.

Adapted translation

Example 17: 电视台最后一个频道一声“再见”，就像军营吹响了熄灯号，院子里立刻静了下来。人们不论活得有滋有味还是没滋没味，都开始进入睡眠状态。

Translation: “Goodbye” from programs of the late night TV channel is a military horn for people living in the yards. On hearing it, they, no matter what kind of life they have, soon quiet down and go to bed.

Nida (1986) holds the view on “functional equivalence” as “in translation functional equivalence should be achieved between two languages rather than rigid correspondence of words” (p. 124). The main purpose of adapting is to make the translation more natural and consistent with the target language expression habits. Through reordering, the author abandons the translation of “formal equivalence” to some degree, but gives priority to the equivalence of “content” and “reader response.” This is a concession of “formal equivalence” for “content equivalence” mentioned by Nida. Thus, necessary adaptation of information is required in translating, which makes the target sentence more logical and coherent. Literally, “就像军营吹响了熄灯号，院子里立刻静了下来” means “the military horn sounds as a signal and the yard becomes quiet at once”, but to combine the second sentence, the translator adapts the information into “people's reactions on hearing the horn rather than it sounds.” Besides, the translator moves the information of “院子里立刻静了下来” which literally means “the yard soon becomes quiet” to the end of the sentence to combine it to “都开始进入睡眠状态” which literally means “people start to fall asleep” and translates it into “soon quiet down and go to bed” for clarification. In the second sentence, “they” as a pronoun, refers to people who live in the yards. This sentence, instead of duplicating the original order, achieves content equivalence in syntactic level via adapting and reconstructing

Conversed translation

Example 18: 正像现代人一看到“望海楼”三个大字，就会想到他老师何匡人并肃然起敬。

Translation: Just like one sight of the most outstanding calligraphy work written by his teacher, the figure HE Kuangren will occur to people in Tianjin to whom they show high respect.

Conversion is a translation strategy applied for better readability and coherence in the target text. Since English and Chinese have different language features, the part of speech of words or phrases in Chinese may have to be converted into a different one in English for natural and closest translation effect. In the source text, the Chinese verb expression “一看到” which means “seeing” is conversed into a preposition expression “on the sight of”.

## V. CONCLUSION

Functional equivalence theory emphasizes the “closeness” of the source and target text, not the exact and ultimate equivalence. Thus, the “equivalence” is just a category. The functional equivalence is further divided into the minimal level and maximal level. Perfect translation may never exist, but for the purpose of readers' comprehension and appreciation, the translator should cultivate aesthetic consciousness, acquire more translation strategies and theoretical guidance for translating.

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# Causative in Sasak: A Mechanism of Valency Increase

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**Abstract**—This study discusses the formation of causatives based on the criteria proposed by Dixon (2012). Pertain to the mechanism of valency increasing, it is found that causative construction in Sasak Kuto-Kute dialect covers two forms: morphological and lexical. Morphological causative involves the process of adding confix *N -ang/in* and affix *-in* to the non-causative base verb, whilst, the lexical causative uses the causative verb *mate* 'died/killed'. Furthermore, it was found that the formation of causative from intransitive verbs can be done by moving the original S to O position in the causative construction, which is morphologically marked on the verb, and also using different verbs with the same meaning to form the causative construction which is followed by the transfer of the original S to O position. For transitive verbs, the formation can be done through the use of affixes with the original A and original O both becoming O1 and O2. Last, the causative construction in the dialect semantically involves five semantic parameters, namely transparency, naturalness, intention, involvement, and control.

**Index Terms**—Sasak, causative, valency increase

## I. Introduction

Causative is known as a way that can be used to add an argument on sentence structures (Dixon and Aikhenvald, 2000, p. 20). The addition of an argument in a causative is employed in A function in the syntactic structure (Haspelmath and Müller-Bardey, 2001, p. 11). According to Bybee (1985, p. 29), causative is the most common valence-changing category in her world-wide sample of 50 languages. The syntax and semantics of causatives have been studied extensively, cf. Shibatani (ed.) 1976b, Comrie 1985, Baker 1988, Song 1996, Dixon 2000 and many more. Many languages can only construct causative from intransitive verbs such as in Lezgian (Haspelmath, 1993a), however, some languages have causatives derived from transitive verbs (Haspelmath and Müller-Bardey, 2001, p. 12)

Causative construction sometimes described as a construction involving 'two events'. According to Goddard (1998, p. 226), causative can be defined as an expression in which an event (a caused event) is described as occurring because someone caused something or because something happened. Shibatani (1976b, p. 1) specifies causative as something related to 'events that cause' and 'caused events'. Meanwhile, Frawley (1992, p. 159) identifies causative as 'events that trigger' and 'results'. Slightly different from definitions proposed the linguists, Dixon (2012, p. 241) explains the idea of 'secondary concepts' which involve semantic modifications of lexical verbs. The secondary concept can be realized through affixation, other morphological processes or separate words. Examples of this concept can be found in the secondary-C type verbs, namely, make and help. When using both verbs in a basic clause, an argument in the form of causer/helper can be added as A. The addition of the argument is the formation of a causative which involves the specification of additional arguments of causer in the basic clause. The causer is someone or something (which can be an event or a state) that starts or controls an activity, which is a property of the syntactic-semantic A function (transitive subject) (Dixon, 2012, p. 241). To this, the main purpose of this article is to discuss the process of constructing causatives in Kuto-Kute dialect using the linguistic typology approach proposed by Dixon (2012). Through the 70 verbs meaning questionnaire, the obtained data is then identified, grouped and analyzed descriptively.

## II. Methodology

This research is limited to the causatives in Sasak Kuto-Kute dialect using the list of 70 meanings proposed by Malchukov and Comrie (2010) and applying the theory of linguistic typology from Dixon (2012) to the intransitive and

transitive of AV (actor voice) sentences. The verb list is a direct adoption of the 70 verbs listed in the 'Leipzig Valency Classes Project'. The reason for the direct adoption of these particular verbs is because the meanings of the 70 verbs have been universally tested in various languages. The verbs are provided with their semantic meanings and examples of sentences in English. The words and sentences are then translated into Indonesian and Kuto-Kute dialect, in which the results have been double-checked by Indonesian translators and several linguists of the dialect related to their compatibility with English as the source language. Out of 70 English verbs, the translation only resulted in 66 verbs in Kuto-Kute dialect. This is due to 8 English verbs are translated into 4 verbs ('sit' and 'sit down' = tokol; 'fear' and 'frighten' = takut; 'beat' and 'hit' = padeq; 'fill' and 'load' = isin). In its implementation, the verb list is used to gain the data in the form of sentences from the native speakers of Kuto-Kute dialect, which was carried out by looking for examples of the Indonesian sentences in that dialect along with their alternative forms. Among the forms, the verbs with causatives are analyzed on the movements of the arguments and suffixes attached to the verbs. The data are glossed per morpheme and followed by free translations.

### III. Discussion

Every language has its way of expressing causative. Several alternatives can be used to provide a formal marking in causative construction. The most common method is the morphological process applied to the core verb. Another way is combining two verbs in one predicate, either as a serial verb construction or in a form of other construction. Dixon (2012, p. 242-280) classifies the methods into three main groups namely formal mechanism, syntactic and semantic mechanisms.

#### A. Formal Mechanism

According to Dixon (2012, p. 242) formal mechanism describes a variety of causative forms. Starting from the morphological process applied to the verbs of the basic clause, causative involving two verbs forming a single predicate/serial verb construction, periphrastic causatives, causatives that see lexical pairs existing in causal relationships and in ambitransitive verbs of type S = O (lexical causatives), to causatives in the form of a causative effect occurred through the exchange of auxiliaries that follows a lexical verb (exchanging auxiliaries). Within the data, the formation of causative as a valency increase mechanism through formal mechanism only includes 2 forms namely morphological causative and lexical causative.

##### 1. Morphological Causative

Morphological process or causative morphology is a causative structure in which its predicate is filled with verbs that are formed from morphological processes in such a way to produce causative verbs that have morphological characteristics. The morphological process may include internal changes such as consonant repetition, reduplication, vocal extension and the like, or various affixations. In some languages, the same affix used in causative verbs can also be attached to the bases of adjective or noun categories (Dixon, 2012, p. 242). From the given definition, it can be inferred that causative formed through the morphological process involves the process of affixation to the non-causative bases. In Kuto-Kute, there are several examples of sentences in the data that fall into this category.

(1a) *Susi n-elep-ang kapal nelayan*

Susi ACT-sink-CAUS boat fisherman

'Susi **sank** the fisherman's boat'

(2a) *Ku ng-iroq-ang ia*

1SG ACT-sedih-CAUS 3SG

'I **made** him sad'

(3a) *Ia m-aula-ng jaran leq baranya*

3SG ACT-run-CAUS horse PREP stall-POSS

'Dia **made** the horse ran from his stall'

(4a) *Azkar ny-akit-in manug nu*

Azkar ACT-hurt-CAUS chicken DEF

'Azkar **hurt** the chicken'

(5a) *Ku nyet-in ager-ager nu*

1SG Øcold-CAUS jelly DEF

'I **made** the jelly cold'

Sentences (1a) - (5a) are causative that use transitive verbs. These sentences come from the intransitive clauses below with the addition of A argument thereby increasing the valence of the initial predicate. The valency increase is marked by CAUS markers on its verbs. The original clauses are as follow:

(1b) *Kapal nelayan nu telep*

Boat fisherman DEF sink

'The fisherman's boat **sank**'

(2b) *Ia iroq*

3SG Øsad

'S/he **is sad**'



(3b) *Jaran nu m-aulaq*

Horse DEF ACT-run

'The horse **ran**'

(4b) *Manuq nu sakit*

Chick DEF sick

'The chicken **is sick**'

(5b) *Ager-ager nu mulai nyet*

Jelly DEF start cold

'The jelly started to get **cold**'

From the examples above it is to be seen that the affixes that can be used to form causative verbs are the affixes *N-ang/in* and *-in*. These affixes can be attached to non-causative bases either to verbs (*telep* 'drowned' and *paulaq* 'run'), or other word classes such as adjectives (*iroq* 'sad', *sakit* 'sick' and *nyet* 'cold'). By adding these two affixes, transitive causative derivations are formed functioning as predicates.

In sentence (1a) the verb *nelepang* 'drown' is formed by adding prefix *n-* as an active marker (ACT) with suffix *-ang* as a causative marker (CAUS) attached to the base *telep* 'sink'. Similar to sentence (1a), sentences (2a) and (3a) also use suffix *-ang* (with *-ng* as an allomorph) attached to *iroq* 'sad' and *paulaq* 'go' to form transitive causative verbs. Differ to the two sentences, sentences (4a) and (5a) take suffix *-in* as the causative marker with prefix *N-* attached to the word *sakit*, functioning as a predicate. Meanwhile, the word *nyet* takes the form  $\emptyset$  (affixless). These affixes can add A argument to intransitive clauses. For example, when the verb *telep* 'sink', which is an intransitive with only one single argument (S), gets an *N-ang* affix and forms *nelepang* 'drown', the verb transforms into a transitive verb that requires two core arguments; namely A that precedes the verb and makes the grammatical subject (S) as O that follows the verb.

## 2. Lexical Causative

Other causative constructions found in the data are lexical causative. Lexical causative is a form of causative that does not involve morphological processes or separate causative verbs (Dixon, 2012, p. 247). In the causative clause, the predicate takes a causative verb. Pertain to the increase of verb valence, in Kuto-Kute there are only two examples of clauses that fall into this category.

(6a) *Ular nu mate*

Snake DEF die

'The snake **died**'

(7a) *Musuhnya mate*

Enemy-POSS die

'His enemy **died/killed**'

Data (6a) and (7a) are examples of intransitive lexical causative clauses with one single argument occupying a position as a S. Looking closely, all the nouns (*ular* and *musuh*) functioning as S have specific roles, namely as P (patient). Adding core arguments to the clauses above to increase the verbs' valence can be done by adding A arguments, positioned before the verbs. Through the addition of A arguments as the doers, the S, which initially precede the verbs, move into the position after the verb and act as O. The following constructions are derived from the two previous clauses:

(6b) *Amaq mate-ang ular nu*

Father  $\emptyset$ kill-TRAN snake DEF

'Father **killed** the snake'

(7b) *Ku m-binoq musuhnya kadu pemolong*

1SG ACT-kill enemy-POSS using stick

'I **killed** his enemy with a stick'

The process of adding A argument (*Amaq* 'father' and *ku* 'I') as in (6b) and (7b), takes place as the initiator of the action that causes final states as in (6a) and (7a). The addition of these arguments has changed the intransitive verbs into transitive or in other words, increased the valency of the verb, which initially only has one single argument (S) into verbs with two core arguments (A and O). When the object is an animal, the verb *mate* 'die/kill' can be used in a transitive derivation form. However, when the object is a human, the transitive form must be taken from the base *binoq* 'kill'. In Indonesian, the intransitive form of the word *bunuh* 'kill' is *terbunuh* 'killed', but the form 'killed' in this dialect does not exist, which means the dialect does not have the lexical 'killed'. To express the same meaning semantically, the dialect uses the lexical *mate* 'die/dead'.

## B. Syntactic

Syntactic causative, in this case, refers to the various possible ways of marking that can be employed in various forms of causatives (Dixon, 2012, p. 250). Syntactic causative focuses on how certain type of verbs form causative structures. In English, the intransitive clause of *John tripped* can form a causative clause of *Marry tripped John*. Unfortunately, this does not apply to transitive clauses. However, according to Dixon (2012), there is a situation in English where transitive causatives can be formed only by changing the position of the constituents. For example, the use of secondary A-verbs of *start* in the clause *The maid started to clean the bathroom at 10 o'clock* can form a causative clause by adding a new A (cause) and placing it before the verb. The original A is then being placed between

the verb *start* and the next verb (*clean*) so that it becomes *Mother started the maid cleaning the bathroom at 10 o'clock*. The addition of the new A to the transitive clause and making it into a transitive causative clause does not add to the semantic role of the clause, it is only a semantic modification. The following will explain the causative formation syntactically in Kuto-Kute by looking at the verb specifications.

Almost all causative mechanisms apply to intransitive verbs. In almost all languages it is found that when intransitive clauses form causative clauses the original S becomes O from the causative construction. However, there are other languages (for example, Japanese and Hungarian) that use other markings for the original S so that it gives a different semantic meaning. Let's look at the data found in Kuto-Kute.

(8a) *Bannya te-goloq*

Wheel-POSS ACT-roll

'His wheel **is rolling**'

(8b) *Rahmat ne-goloq-ang ban kon rorong*

Rahmat ACT-roll-CAUS wheel on road

'Rahmat **rolled** the wheel on the road'

(9a) *Jaminya gar*

Rice straw-POSS Øburn

'His rice straw **is burnt**'

(9b) *Abet ny-edut jaminya*

Abet ACT-burn rice straw-POSS

'Abet **burnt** his rice straw'

Data (8a) and (9a) are intransitive clauses with their pairs (8b) and (9b) as their causatives. It can be seen that the original S in the intransitive clauses are demoted into O in the causatives. The two original S (*ban* and *jami*) semantically act as patients. The verb *goloq* 'roll' in (8a) is an ambitransitive verb type with S = O. Differ to (8), in (9) there is a change on the use of verbs in the causative. Although both verbs (*gar* and *sedut*) have the same meaning as 'burn', as seen in the example above, the verb *gar* is a purely intransitive verb while *sedut* is a purely transitive verb. Semantically, the two verbs have different meanings where *gar* is accidental while *sedut* is done consciously/intentionally. Based on the above examples, it was found that the formation of causative from intransitive verbs can be formed by moving the original S to O position in the causative, which is morphologically marked on the verb, and also using different verbs with the same meaning to form the causative which is followed by the demotion of the original S to O position.

Differ to intransitive verbs, according to Dixon (2012, p. 256) there are 5 types of transitive causatives namely: (i) Specific markers for the causer, (ii) The causer maintains the marking for A, (iii) The original A uses the O marker while the original O retains the markers, (iv) The original A becomes the new O and the original O exits the core, and (v) The original O remains O while the original A leaves the core. The five types can be summarized in the following table:

TABLE 1  
TRANSITIVE CAUSATIVE

Type	Causer	Original A (causee)	Original O
(i)	A	Special marking	O
(ii)	A	Retains A marking	O
(iii)	A	has O-marking	has O-marking
(iv)	A	O	non-core
(v)	A	non-core	O

In type (i), there are special markings used only for the causee in the causative construction. In type (ii), both the causer and the original A get A-marking. In type (iii), original A and original O both receive O-marking. In type (iv), the original A becomes O while the original O receives a non-core marker, and in type (v), the original O remains as it is while the original A receives a non-core marker. Type (i) and (ii) are generally relatively rare in various languages, but the type (iii) is the type most frequently used. The use of types (iv) and (v) fall into moderate frequency.

The five types are techniques for forming causative using transitive verbs. Concerning the matter, within the data, only one was found deriving from transitive verb. See the following example:

(10a) *Bai nu ng-unut bawang*

Baby DEF ACT-smell onion

'The baby **smelled** the onion'

(10b) *Inaq ng-unut-in bainya bawang*

Mother ACT-smell-CAUS grandchild-POSS onion

'Mother **made** the grandchild smelled the onion'

Causative formation using transitive verbs can be done in through the morphological process as seen in (10). (10a) is the underlying clause, while (10b) is the derived causative. Through the examples above, it can be seen that the formation of the causative in (10b) is composed using type iii, where the original A and the original O both become O.

In (10a), the position of the original A is filled with *bai* 'grandchild', while the original O is occupied by *bawang* 'onion'. The addition of a new A as a causee for the underlying clause, which is filled by *Inaq* 'mother', has changed

the position of the original A and the original O. In (10), the original A that preceded the verb is now following the verb, and the original O positioned after the verb is now occurring after the original A. The original A and the original O both play the role of O, but in this case, it can be said that the original A plays the role of O1 while the original O plays the role of O2. The causative form in (10b) is marked by affix *-in*.

### C. Semantic

Some languages may have two or more causatives that involve a variety of different formal mechanisms or markings on different causee. However, there will always be semantic differences involving one or several of the nine semantic parameters. The lesser the causative formation mechanism a language has, the greater the semantic range is (Dixon, 2012, p. 269).

Semantic causative is the formation of causative by referring to 9 semantic parameters. The nine parameters are:

1. State/Action: whether a causative mechanism only applies to state verbs or also to action verbs.
2. Transitivity: does a causative mechanism only apply to intransitive verbs, or both; intransitive and transitive, or to all verbs; intransitive, transitive and extended transitive (ditransitive).
3. Control: whether the causee has complete control of the activity or not.
4. Volition: whether the causee does it willingly or unwillingly.
5. Affectedness: whether the causee is only partially or fully affected by the activity.
6. Directness: whether the causer acts directly or indirectly.
7. Intention: whether the causer achieves the result intentionally or accidentally.
8. Naturalness: whether the activity occurs naturally (causer only initiates a natural process) or is the result only achieved with effort (possibly with violence).
9. Involvement: whether the causer is involved or not in the activity.

The semantic-related discussion in this sub-section will involve examples in the previous sub-sections. In Kuto-Kute, it was found that the formal mechanism employed in the formation of causatives involves several semantic parameters.

For morphological mechanisms, from the examples of sentences in (1) - (5), (8) dan (10) in terms of their transitivity it is proven that morphological mechanism can only be used for intransitive and transitive verbs only. Not only that, in terms of intention the results of Kuto-Kute causatives are generally achieved intentionally. This is because in terms of its general nature, the meaning of the causatives indicates that the activity occurs unnaturally or it is done intentionally. For the example in (10b), the activity is performed by the mother for her grandchild not to be disturbed by evil spirits. Related to involvement, the semantic meaning of (2), (3), (4), (5), (8), dan (9) all refer to the involvement of the causee in all activities, but specifically for data (1) with the verb *nelepang* 'drowning', the sentence can be interpreted as Susi was involved in the action but it can also mean that Susi ordered her men to take the action (not involved in the action). From this analysis, it can be concluded that the formation of the Kuto-Kute causatives through morphological mechanism involves at least four semantic parameters, namely transitivity, intention, naturalness, and involvement.

For lexical causative, it was found that its formation involved at least four semantic parameters. The four parameters are transitivity, intention, naturalness, and control. From data in (6) and (7) it can be seen that Kuto-Kute lexical causatives only use intransitive causative verbs to provide purposefully achieved results. Also, the naturalness indicates that the activities of the clauses ((6) and (7)) occur unnaturally (intentionally) and in this case, the causee has full control because as it has been said that the action shown is done intentionally. Based on the overall data analysis by applying 9 semantic parameters proposed by Dixon (2012) as a reference, it is known that the formation of causatives in Kuto-Kute involves five semantic parameters namely transitivity, naturalness, intention, involvement and control.

## IV. Conclusion

Through the analysis carried out on the causatives, it was found that the formation of Kuto-Kute causatives as a mechanism of valency increase can be based on three main groups, namely formal, syntactic and semantic mechanisms. The formation of causative through formal mechanism only includes 2 forms: morphological causative and lexical causative. Causatives formed through morphological processes involve the process of affixation to the non-causative bases. The affixes are affixes *N--ang/in* and *-in* which can be attached to non-causative bases of verbs, adjectives or nouns. For lexical causative, its formation uses only verbs with causative meanings. The verb found in the data is the *mate* "died/killed".

Syntactic causative focuses on how certain type of verbs form causative constructions. From the data analysis, it was found that the formation of causative from intransitive verbs can be formed by moving the original S to O position in the causative, which is morphologically marked on the verb, and also using different verbs with the same meaning to form the causative which is followed by the demotion of the original S to O position. For causatives using transitive verbs, in Kuto-Kute, the formation can be done through the morphological process. Based on the criteria proposed by Dixon (2012), the formation of causatives with transitive verbs in Kuto-Kute is performed with type iii; the original A and the original O both become O.

Meanwhile, semantic causative sees the formation of causatives by referring to 9 semantic parameters proposed by Dixon (2012) for the three forms of causatives found in the formal mechanism. From the observation, it was found that the formation of Kuto-Kute causatives through morphological mechanism involved at least four semantic parameters,

namely transitivity, intention, naturalness, and involvement. Furthermore, for lexical causatives the four parameters include transitivity, intention, naturalness, and control. Based on the overall data analysis, it is known that the formation of causatives in Kuto-Kute semantically involves five semantic parameters, namely transitivity, naturalness, intention, involvement, and control.

#### APPENDIX. ABBREVIATION

1SG	first person singular	3SG	third person singular	A	Agent
ACT	active	APPL	applicative	AV	Actor Voice
CAUS	causative	DEF	definite	O	Object
POSS	possessive	S	Subject		

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# Research on the Employment-oriented College English Teaching Reform in Medical Colleges\*

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**Abstract**—In order to meet the increasing demand of our society for inter-disciplinary talents (people who have got training in more than one professional field and do excellent in them), English teaching activities of medical schools in China should be employment-oriented, and the new teaching method should be found out to achieve the goal of talent training. Guided by the concept of employment-oriented education and after analyzing the problems existing in present college English teaching, this essay did a research on the reform of the employment-oriented college English teaching in medical colleges and universities.

**Index Terms**—employment-oriented, college English, teaching reform

## I. INTRODUCTION

There has been the problem that teaching and practice in most colleges and universities of our country can't meet the social demand for inter-disciplinary talents. As a result, in recent years millions of college students graduated from colleges or universities, but seldom can find the job that matches his or her own specialized field. Consequently, many graduates are between jobs or losing their jobs, which definitely results into the waste of education resources in colleges and universities and made a great difference to social stability and development.

Due to the increasing international communication and cooperation, there are more and more transnational medical activities, so the demand of our society for medical talents is stronger. English is not only a subject among humanities but also an instrumental discipline, which makes English be one of the most important conditions to judge whether a medical talent qualified or not according to his or her English level (Luo Huan, 2013).

The talent training goal of colleges and universities should keep in pace with our society in order to meet its demand for inter-disciplinary talents. The so-called "inter-disciplinary talents", also well known as well-rounded talents, refers to people who not only own professional competence but also master English knowledge very well. Due to their stronger competence, higher caliber and profounder knowledge, this kind of people can be competent in many fields

## II. THE ANALYSIS OF THE CURRENT SITUATION OF GRADUATES' EMPLOYMENT AND ITS REASONS

The employment of graduates has been a hot issue, a pressing issue. According to the data of the rate of employment released online, despite a rally in 2010, the employment of graduates has been trending down over the past decade, and there are serious contradictions between the supply and demand of qualified graduates. While the need for applied talents has strongly changed, the setup of college curriculums and the goal of talent training remain the same. High-skilled individuals are sought after in job market, but graduates usually can't meet the demand of our society, which end up with an increasing employment pressure year by year. There are many factors causing this phenomenon, which can be summarized mainly into three aspects: the setup of college courses, the socioeconomic structure, and the self-awareness and the career planning of graduates.

1. The same arrangement of college courses doesn't accord with social industrial structure, so college education can hardly reach the expected effect. Only when the structure of college courses is highly consistent with that of industry, can a higher employment rate be achieved. College courses feature basic courses which are really important in education, but there is always a disconnection between theory and practice. Only when they are arranged to learn courses needed by our society and given more opportunities to practice what they've learned, can graduates adjust to the society as soon as possible.

2. As to the socioeconomic structure, social demands have changed with the changes of industrial structure, and these changes definitely will cause people to change their original jobs who will become competitors of graduates, which makes job hunting become more difficult. Our society is hungry for people with high skills, which in part comes from experiences, so graduates with few practical experiences besides few-month internship seems to be inferior to people with more experiences in job market.

3. The self-awareness of graduates is important, too. After graduating from colleges, with a bachelor or master degree, many graduates are always deeply disappointed due to their too high expectation of jobs. Universities and colleges should guide students evaluate themselves correctly, help them make a proper career plan, and offer necessary

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psychological counseling when they suffer psychological trauma. Only with the correct self-evaluation and excellent psychological quality as well as a proper career plan, can graduates correctly analyze their pros and cons in job market and find a proper job.

### III. INVESTIGATION INTO COLLEGE ENGLISH REFORM IN MEDICAL SCHOOLS AND THE PRESENT LEARNING STATUS QUO OF MEDICAL MAJORS

College English is anything but a core curriculum in medical college, not so important as medical curriculums, so English teaching has not been given enough attention to in terms of distributing periods and introducing qualified personnel. As a result, there is always a lack of English teachers, and a small number of English teachers have to finish all the teaching tasks. In order to finish the tough teaching tasks in the limited periods, teachers have to adopt the so-called “forced-feeding methods of teaching”. Though teachers work hard in class, most teaching jobs are low effective or even ineffective due to the dull teaching method.

With busy medical learning tasks and dull English learning, students’ enthusiasm for English is fading away. The only motivation to learn English is to pass CET4 and get the diploma, which can help them graduate smoothly. Though most students can pass CET4, even with high marks, and though they can make complicated sentences with a big vocabulary of words in the exam, they can not write correct medical records when working in the hospital, neither can they communicate with people in English properly, which are all due to the fact that what they have learned in schools has nothing to do with their career. So it’s necessary and urgent to carry on the employment-oriented college English teaching reform.

### IV. THE EMPIRICAL RESEARCH ON THE EMPLOYMENT-ORIENTED COLLEGE ENGLISH REFORM IN MEDICAL SCHOOL

The so-called “employment-orientation” thought refers to the educational opinion that education should eventually meet the professional demand, aiming at provide talents with sustainable development for society (Shu Na, 2016). Simply speaking, one of the goals of college teaching and practice should be to develop students’ professional competence by adding career awareness, ambitions, values, ethics, code, and quality to professional teaching system, so that graduates can find proper jobs in job markets and can make greater social contribution.

#### 1. Research Objective

This research aims at expounding and proving the feasibility and effectiveness of college English teaching method oriented to employment in medical college.

#### 2. Research Objects

This teaching experiment carried on by selecting randomly four classes of Nursing majors of Grade 2017 in Jining Medical University as the research objects. Then they were divided into two groups: control group (about 97 students of Class One and Class Two) and experimental group (about 98 students of Class three and Class Four) .

#### 3. Research Instruments

The research instruments included questionnaire, classroom observation, two sets of College Test Papers and follow-up survey. The content of questionnaire is about the motivation of students for English learning, which is composed of three parts with 12 questions: future development tool, internal interest, and external environment. Before released, the questionnaire had been tested, the result of which showed that it was of high reliability and high degree. A total of 195 questionnaires were distributed among nursing majors of two groups, and 193 questionnaires were taken back on the spot: 190 valid questionnaires and 3 invalid. The data was statistically analyzed with the software SPSS11.0 (Liao Youguo, 2011).

#### 4. The Result and Analysis of the Questionnaire

According to statistics online, there is a serious disproportion of doctors and nurses, as a result of which talents majoring in nursing are urgently needed. So in medical colleges and universities, compared with clinical majors, nursing majors is much easier to find a job after graduation, which results into the phenomenon that most of the students learn English only for the purpose of employment after graduation.

From table I, it can be easily seen that the motivations for learning college English of nursing majors, who have been chosen to take part in the questionnaire, have been listed in descending order of importance as follows: an useful tool to look for jobs, external factors, personal interests. All in all, being a useful tool to look for jobs is the first reason for most of the students to learn college English, while few students learn English just for internal interest. So to the students majoring in nursing of Jining Medical University, instrumental motivation sits at the top. Students also pay more attention to objective factors, such as network environment, the competence of their English teacher, the quality of textbook, etc, which reflects that the motivations of students for learning English will be greatly affected by these objective factors. In a sense, personal motivations for learning are decided by the socio-cultural factors, which reflect the demands of our society (Cai Hong, 2019). Consequently, the reform of college English teaching mode should be launched based on the practical demand of our society for talents with excellent English.

TABLE I  
THE MOTIVATIONS AFFECTING MEDICAL MAJORS' ENGLISH LEARNING

Dimensions	Contents	No	PCT
An Useful Tool	Great strength in job-hunting	121	63.7 %
	Sense of fulfillment given by mastering English	6	3.2%
	Demand for going abroad	10	5.3 %
	Demand for pursuing a further study	6	3.2 %
	Ability of communicating with foreigners	7	3.7 %
Personal interests	Interest in foreign culture	1	0.5 %
	Interest in English language	1	0.5 %
	Love for English songs and movies	7	3.7 %
External factors	High learning efficiency due to the Internet	8	4.2 %
	Orders from parents	1	0.5 %
	A good English teacher	12	6.3 %
	The interesting class activities	10	5.2 %

V. EMPLOYMENT-ORIENTED REFORMS ON COLLEGE ENGLISH TEACHING

A. *The Rudimental Circumstances*

As an in-service English teacher with 15years' teaching experience, the author has done the employment-oriented teaching reform in two experimental classes, while going on the traditional teaching mode in the other two control classes. The author has tested two groups before and after reform respectively with the same test paper and the same length of time. The results of these tests can be seen from Table II and Table III. Moreover, the author did some follow-up investigations into college English learning engagement in the subsequent two semesters, the result of which can be seen in Table IV.

B. *The Implementation of Employment-oriented Teaching Reform*

1. To update English curriculum

College English used to focus on basic English with less professional English. It seems that the reason students pay little attention to college English is that it has little to do with their future career. Students learn it only to pass the exam. Thus, English curriculums should be set up according to students' learning abilities and their demands for jobs, that's, on the one hand, set up a reasonable curriculum, especially hours of practical courses, which can enable students to have enough time to practice what they have learned. On the other hand, add more contents relevant to their future career, such as translation, resume writing, interview, etc, to enhance their competition in job hunting.

2. At the beginning of the first semester, teachers of college should organize an English test for freshmen to know about the specific English level of them, and according to the result, students will be divided into different classes with different teaching methods, students with the same or familiar level in the same class, and teachers ranked will finish the relevant teaching tasks. The arrangements of teaching plan, preparation, teaching process, teaching pace, and even the form of evaluation differ between different classes with different levels, which enables teachers can teach students in accordance with their aptitude, so-called "the layered teaching method". There is no need to worry about the negative effect on their psychological well-being, because as undergraduates, their main concern is to find an ideal job after graduation. What's more, the layered teaching method can arouse their interest of learning English and motivate them to update their level by achieving their learning target in the present class.

3. To innovate teaching method and improve teaching efficiency. Setting up proper teaching mode primarily oriented towards employment is key to improve teaching efficiency and effectiveness. One the one hand, teachers should treat college English as the main tool to improve students' professional demeanor so as to narrow the gap between students' professional qualities in English and the demand of society; On the other hand, apart from basic English teaching, teachers are supposed to pay more attention to improving students' competence in solving problems. So teachers are expected to adopt situational language teaching method to construct the atmosphere of English teaching and learning circumstance. Situational Language Teaching Method is a way to activate the teaching of language knowledge through the design of authentic and concrete situation (Juan Du, 2017). Through the simulated employment situation, students can be aware of their abilities in solving problems, and then they can make themselves more competent in the future study. Teachers should optimize English learning objectives for students according to their job orientation to enhance their internal motivation for English learning. When it comes to medical majors, teachers should pay more attention to the interaction and integration of multi subjects, guide students to learn English from the standpoint of career planning.

4. To create more opportunities for students' internship. As for the nursing majors, they should be given more chances to go on a field trip to a hospital. Through the internship, not only should they learn how to cooperate with coworkers, but also they have to practice communicating with patients properly in English. In that case, they will have a good command of English language skill.

5. To build up the ranks of teachers and raise their professional ethics and competence. The construction of teaching staff is a critical factor in improving college English teaching efficiency.

First, colleges should find out more ways to attract more talents to join their team to improve the all-round quality of

the teaching staff and optimize teaching structure. Constructing “double quality” teaching structure is crucial: through social practice, teachers can know well of the real demand for graduates in job market. Colleges should get teaching staff trained professionally, and pay more attention to professionals with high quality and high professional qualification, who with practical work experience know better the practical demand of employer for graduates and can offer better guidance in both curriculum design and practice before graduation as well as the skills of job hunting.

Second, we must constantly improve teacher training system and mechanism to enhance their professional abilities, and deepen their understanding of employment-oriented English teaching. Teachers should update teaching ideas to keep the same pace with social changes. Colleges should help teachers to improve themselves by encouraging them to take part in vocational training, lecture and meetings. At the same time, according to the real need of practical teaching, colleges should adopt more ways to strengthen the construction of faculty, for example, outsourcing the employment guidance by hiring talents familiar with outsourcing industry, which can cover the shortage of instructors.

6. To formulate dynamic occupational evaluation system. The employability of students will be regarded as one of main factors to evaluate the professional competence of teachers, and different training measures will be taken according to the employment rate of students, which can greatly help teachers improve the motivation for setting up the new employment-oriented college English teaching mode and for helping students make a better career planning.

### C. The Results

#### 1. Date processing

The data of this research has been statistically analyzed by applying One-Way ANOVA to analyzing the characters of data (such as mean difference, standard deviations, and the distribution of the test score), and the two-two comparison has been conducted among means by SNK-q . The significance test was 0.05.

#### 2. The results of the theoretical tests

Students were theoretically tested with test papers in Jining Medical University. The numbers of students in the tables are that of students who took part in the test each time. From Table II and Table III, we can see that there is no obvious difference between two theoretical tests in the case of the reliability, difficulty and discrimination of the test; From the tables, we can see a remarkable improvement in terms of the over pass rate and excellent rate, but the differences in theoretical test results among two groups are significant ( $P=0.0000<0.01$ ). From Table II and Table III, it can be easily seen that at the beginning of the first term when they didn't start their college English learning there is hardly a difference before two groups: Nearly one fifth people failed the exam, few with high marks, with negative skewers distribution and low level in whole. However, when the author changed the traditional teaching mode into the employment-oriented teaching mode in the experimental group, The improvement of the finals results of students in experimental group is marvelous with a significant different( $P=0.0000<0.01$ ). While in the control group which is educated in the traditional teaching mode, more students failed exams, fewer students with high marks because they just lost the enthusiasm for English learning when it is not oriented to their employment. The details can be seen from Table II and Table III.

TABLE II.

CONTRAST BETWEEN THE ENGLISH TEST RESULTS OF THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP AND THE CONTROL GROUP AT THE BEGINNING OF THE FIRST TERM

group	n	<60		60~69		70~79		80~89		90~100		Z	P
		n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%		
实验组	17	17		39	40	29	30	11	11	2	2	0.400	0.689
对照组	15	15		38	39	30	31	13	13	1	1		
合计	32	16		77	40	59	30	24	12	3	2		

TABLE III.

CONTRAST BETWEEN THE ENGLISH TEST RESULTS OF THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP AND THE CONTROL GROUP AT THE END OF THE FOURTH TERM

group	n	<60		60~69		70~79		80~89		90~100		Z	P
		n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%		
实验组	6	6		21	21	33	34	29	30	9	9	7.149	0.000
对照组	21	22		54	56	18	18	3	3	1	1		
合计	27	14		75	39	51	26	32	16	10	5		

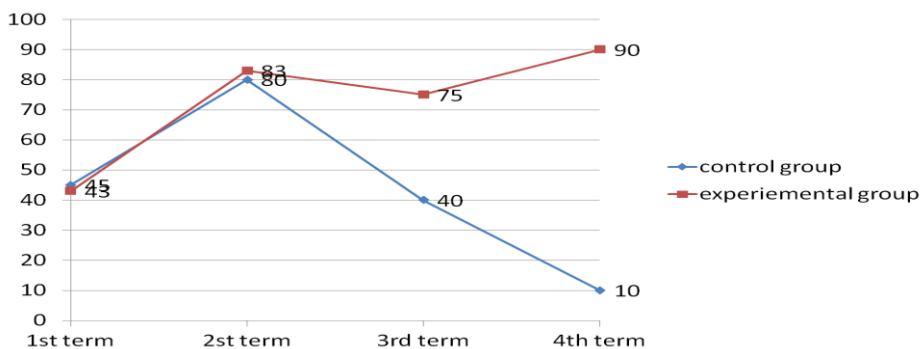
#### 3. The analysis of the follow-up survey

The author of this essay has accumulated some data about the learning input through the observation in class and the interviews after class. The learning input consists of time engagement and emotional engagement (LV You, 2019). The results have been illustrated in Table IV. From the line chart, we can see that there was growing enthusiasm for English learning and almost peaked at the end of the second semester, because there is a nationwide English test, CET 4 (College English Test Band Four), which every undergraduate has to pass to get a bachelor degree. So the first two semesters, most students learn English mainly due to the task of passing CET 4. But we can see a big difference after that: There is an obvious sharp downturn in the passion of students for English learning in control group, the reason of which is that the traditional teaching method focusing the basic knowledge can't help students having passed CET4 in job hunting, so they considered English learning to be useless and the passion for English learning disappear promptly after they passed CET4; while there is a little decline in enthusiasm for English learning in experimental group which is



still higher than that in control group, mainly because students wanted a break after two semesters' hard working for CET 4, and we can see that from the end of the third semester students' enthusiasm for learning keep growing, even higher than that of the end of the second semester, which is mainly due to the fact that the employment-oriented teaching method can help students make a better career plan and become competitive in job hunting. It's easily concluded that there is hardly a difference in test-oriented education between the tradition teaching mode and the employment-oriented teaching mode; while when it comes to the capability to meet the social demand, the employ-oriented teaching mode is significantly superior to the traditional one.

TABLE IV  
CONTRAST BETWEEN THE CONTROL GROUP AND THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP IN LEARNING INPUT



VI. DISCUSSION

From the final results of theoretical tests and the analysis of the follow-up survey, it can be easily seen that employment-oriented teaching mode is the one that can meet the social demand for inter-disciplinary talents to the greatest extent. The teaching goal can be achieved due to the characteristics of the employment-oriented college English teaching mode

1. It's more flexible to set up professional curriculums. As a result of the rapid economic development, there is a growing demand for compound qualified talents, so when setting up professional curriculums, not only do universities and colleges need to help students master the basic knowledge from book, but also make the curriculums diverse and promote interdisciplinary study to help students broaden their horizons and improve students' comprehensive application of their knowledge. Thus, in college English teaching, teachers should offer different curriculums and different teaching plans according to the professional demand for English of different majors, so that students can practically improve their English proficiency.

It pays much attention to improve students' job competence. To students, their job competence will be illustrated not only through their expertise and their practical abilities but also through their abilities of communicating and cooperating in team work as well as their individual psychological diathesis. Therefore, only when college English teaching mode is employment-oriented and only when teachers attach more importance to the improvement of students' comprehensive abilities, can students be more competent in job hunting (OU Ying and Jiang Mei, 2014).

2. The Significance of the Employment-Oriented College English Teaching Mode

In teaching practice, the employment-oriented college English teaching mode has shown its significance in promoting the development of students and universities, and in maintaining social stability.

a. The employment-oriented teaching mode can help students to gain their self-value. Being employed after graduation is the first step for students to prove and gain their self-value while the employment-oriented teaching mode makes it possible.

b. The employment-oriented teaching mode can help universities gain sustainable development. As more and more graduates have poured into job market, it's become harder for them to be employed. Under this circumstance, the employment rate has become an important factor to foresee a university's prospect. So the employment-oriented teaching mode can help students improve their professional quality and make them more competitive in job hunting, which can help universities survive the competition and gain themselves a bright future.

c. The employment-oriented teaching mode is good for social stability. The employment of graduates is a big issue now, so it will attach a great importance to market optimization and social stability if we can help undergraduates make a clear career plan to maximize their possibility of getting employed.

VII. CONCLUSION

The main social function of universities and colleges is to train qualified graduates to meet social demands for applied talents based on the present social development. When it comes to undergraduate education, educational courses should be carried out to improve pertinence and effectiveness of talents cultivation, and aim at training all-round talents for all walks of life. Oriented to employment, universities should combine students' majors with job skills. The

increasingly demand of our society for high level and practical talents urge people to put employment-oriented teaching mode on the agenda. Practically, applicative undergraduate education is the education oriented to employment, thus, the so-called “order cultivation pattern” is exactly the one with employment orientation. This kind of new teaching mode has virtually narrowed the gap between teaching and employment, kind of industry-university cooperation. By combining theoretical learning and practical operating together, featuring its flexibility and practicality, the employment-oriented teaching mode will make the goals of education closer to the demands of jobs.

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# Teaching Design and Practice of Intensive Reading Course Based on BOPPPS

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**Abstract**—BOPPPS, based on constructivism and communicative approach, is famous for effective teaching. It is a closed-loop teaching activity model that emphasizes students' participation and feedback in the process of classroom teaching organization. Taking the course of Intensive English as an example, the paper designs teaching plan based on BOPPPS, formulates teaching tasks and implementation approaches in line with BOPPPS, implements the teaching plan, and reflects the teaching effect through teaching practice. Taking features of Intensive Reading course into consideration, the paper claims that BOPPPS is an effective teaching model, which not only stimulates students' self-directed learning, but also save teachers and students' energy to solve puzzles within the limited credit periods. Hopefully, BOPPPS might be gradually and widely applied to the English teaching.

**Index Terms**—BOPPPS, intensive reading, teaching plan

## I. INTRODUCTION

From MOOCs, Khan Academy, TED to NetEase Open Course, Icourse launched by the ministry of education as well as endlessly emerging online learning systems and Apps, it is easily seen that the combination of modern scientific and technological means and education mode is unstoppable. Teachers and students' role in teaching and learning, teaching contents and the means to achieve teaching objectives are all undergoing revolutionary changes. However, no matter what mode is adopted, there is only one criterion to test the success of teaching, namely, teaching effect. Effective classroom teaching design is the basis of effective teaching and the premise of effective classroom teaching. Abundant teaching resources and diversified learning methods are both promotion and threat to education.

While making use of network resources, frontline teachers find it more and more difficult to organize and manage classroom teaching. With the rapid development of smart phones, pads and other mobile terminals, smart electronic devices have been indispensable in students' life and learning. With the support of Internet companies for schools, the network signal and speed have been greatly improved. Students are often seen playing with mobile phones, even in class. The phenomenon is resulted from several factors. Firstly, traditional teaching is confined to the limited teaching periods, causing so called "duck-stuffing" type of teaching; Secondly, teacher-oriented class ignores students' participation in study and leaves no space for students' internalization, thus unable to form effective learning; lastly, the update speed of supporting textbooks is slow, which is not conducive to students to grasp the latest knowledge.

The quality of classroom teaching design directly affects the efficiency, effect and benefit of teaching activities. Faced with the opportunities and challenges, teachers are bound to explore and practice feasible teaching modes. BOPPPS prioritizes the effectiveness of classroom teaching, improves the effectiveness of classroom teaching and takes effective teaching design as the premise to guarantee effective teaching (Yan, 2019). Although the construction of "flipped classroom", "micro-class" and other resources is booming in China, few frontline teachers insist on applying these teaching resources into daily works, let alone keep track of new teaching mode's influence on the teaching effect on the practical basis. Therefore, the design and application of BOPPPS model in Intensive English course is worthy of exploration.

## II. BOPPPS

BOPPPS is a teaching framework based on David Kolb's experiential learning mode. Kolb (2015) proposed the experiential learning mode in 1984. According to him, learning is not the acquisition and transmission but the process of creating knowledge through the transformation of experience. He interpreted learning as a cyclic process starting and ending with concrete experience: concrete experience-reflection & observation-abstract generalization-action and practice-concrete experience. Through such a continuous cycle, a coherent learning experience is formed, in which learners automatically complete feedback and adjustment.

Based on constructivism and communicative approach, BOPPPS is famous for effective teaching. According to the mode, a complete teaching process is mainly composed of six elements, namely Bridge-in, Objective, Pre-assessment, Participatory, Post-assessment and Summary. It is a closed-loop teaching activity model that emphasizes students' participative interaction and feedback in the process of classroom teaching organization. It follows the principle of initiative and goal orientation, adopts a variety of interactive teaching strategies like flipped classroom, and pays

attention to students' participation, thus is regarded as a model of effective classroom teaching mode.

In North America, the teaching skills training institution Instructional Skills Workshop (ISW) believes that BOPPPS model is an effective mode of curriculum design which can improve teachers' pedagogical skills and students' learning efficiency. The BOPPPS model emphasizes students' participation, interaction and internalization, sticks to the educational concept of "student-centered and teacher-led", and provides a feasible implementation method for carrying out research-oriented teaching reform. At present, BOPPPS model has been introduced and adopted in more than 33 countries around the world, and recommended by more than 100 universities and industrial training institutions around the world.

In the article "A Review on Development of BOPPPS Teaching Model in Domestic Colleges and Universities", Li Shuang and Fu Li (2020) divided the development of BOPPPS teaching model in China into three stages: introduction stage (2011-2014), developmental stage (2015-2016) and mature stage (2017-now).

The earliest domestic articles exploring and studying the teaching mode of BOPPPS were published in 2011. Four articles were published in the following two years, and five related papers were published in the three years of the introduction period. There are five colleges and universities trying to apply BOPPPS teaching mode in the computer professional courses, college English courses, ecology, etc. These articles' study fields were of higher education, and the teaching object involved the graduate and undergraduate students and vocational and technical college students. According to these articles, BOPPPS teaching mode optimized classroom teaching to a certain extent, solved some problems existing in the college classroom teaching and learning, and improved the degree of students' participation in classroom learning. Theoretically, all articles explored the newly introduced teaching mode but provided little detailed description and analysis of the teaching process, not to mention the sorting and mining of the contrast data.

During the development period of BOPPPS teaching mode, 55 related papers were published, 11 times the number of papers in the introduction period. By the end of 2016, BOPPPS teaching mode has been introduced and learned by more than 30 universities and vocational and technical colleges in China, involving education, architectural design, medicine, chemistry, computer network and other fields, covering a wide range of specialties. By the end of 2016, the BOPPPS teaching model has had a profound impact on the teaching in Chinese universities. The research topics of this stage covered many aspects of teaching, among which the key themes are participatory learning, teaching design, knowledge and teaching reform.

BOPPPS teaching mode integrates the latest educational concepts, modes and technologies, indicating that the development of this teaching mode in China has entered a mature stage. From 2014 to the February of 2020, altogether 613 articles are about BOPPPS, covering almost all the subjects at different education stages, especially in the colleges and universities. BOPPPS are endowed with more rich contents and forms of teaching mode, turning the classroom into varieties of participatory learning modules. Moocs, Mosoink, and other teaching methods are researched on the basis of BOPPPS. At the same time, frontline teachers begin to use experimental group and control group to quantify the teaching effect, to dig deeper into the data produced and to speed up the teaching reform on the practical basis.

### III. THE NECESSITY OF APPLYING BOPPPS IN INTENSIVE READING COURSE

Intensive Reading Course is one of the required professional basic courses for English majors. The paper will take Teachers' College of Beijing Union University as an example to illustrate the necessity of applying BOPPPS in Intensive Reading.

Intensive Reading is said to be the most important course for English majors. Students attend the course for four semesters. The credits add up to 24 and there are altogether 384 credit hours. Among all the courses, it is safe to say that Intensive Reading is the course with the most credits and the longest class periods for English majors.

According to the Outline of College English Teaching for English Majors (2000), Intensive English is to cultivate and enhance students' comprehensive ability to use English, mainly through language training and the interpretation of discourse analysis, to gradually increase students' reading comprehension ability, to help students understand English expressions and characteristics of various genres, to enlarge vocabulary, English idioms the commonly used sentence patterns, to cultivate and improve the basic oral and written expression ability, and to expose students to foreign cultures and enhance students' critical thinking.

Combined with the actual situation of Teachers' College of Beijing Union University, syllabus of Intensive Reading course set six teaching objectives: knowledge, application, integration, emotion, value and learning. Take Intensive Reading IV for as example:

**Knowledge:** students should recognize 5,000-6,000 words (including 2,000 learned in middle school) and be able to correctly and skillfully use the 2,000-2,500 words and the most basic collocation; students understand basic word-formation, translation, discourse structure and some basic cohesive devices; students should master basic reading comprehension skills, verbal and written expression skills and English-Chinese translation skills.

**Application:** students get trained in listening, speaking, writing and translating driven by intensive reading; students listen to the text recording, read, recite the text; students master new words, phrases and sentence patterns; use basic grammar knowledge and word-formation knowledge to read the text and find, organize and summarize the contents, ideas and themes of the text.

**Integration:** through the study of this course, students can integrate the existing knowledge with the English context,

accurately understand and grasp the content and viewpoints of the reading articles, accumulate more cultural information and improve the comprehensive English level.

Emotion: students can participate in group study and have the sense of teamwork; Ability to communicate and communicate effectively on English learning and teaching experience and to display results.

Value: lay a solid foundation for professional learning through reading, explanation and appreciation of classic texts; To cultivate critical thinking ability and humanistic quality in English intensive reading; get familiar with the historical, cultural, social and religious background related to the article through intensive reading; compared with the ancient and modern times, students care about Chinese and western, cultures, understand society through literature, and dig deep philosophy from reading.

Learning: students can use various media, mobile apps, Moocs, micro-lectures and other online learning resources to learn independently and improve self-directed learning ability; students are able to use modern educational technology to make courseware independently and complete lectures related to the topic.

All the objectives aim to cultivate the excellent future primary school English teacher in Beijing. According to the syllabus, graduates are expected to have the quality of humanities and science, the core quality of English, the systematic and solid English pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary and other language knowledge, and the proficiency in English listening, speaking, reading, writing, translation and other language skills. Graduates should understand and teach the basic knowledge, principles and skills of the subject, have basic knowledge of other subjects and have a certain understanding of science related knowledge. Graduates are supposed to understand values of discipline integration in primary education, to understand the relationship between English and other disciplines, as well as with social practice and life practice of primary school students. Moreover, to keep pace with the modern technology, besides English teaching knowledge and ability, graduates are able to master the application of modern education information technology in English teaching. In the educational practice, students can design, implement and evaluate the teaching according to the curriculum standards of English subject. In accordance with the physical and mental development of primary school students and the cognitive characteristics of the subject, graduates are capable of using teaching knowledge and information technology to obtain teaching experience. They have basic teaching skills, preliminary teaching ability and certain teaching and research ability.

It is clear that Intensive Reading takes responsibility for student's language skills and cultural literacy. However, the wide selection of materials, the complicated language points, the uneven level of students, and the limited class periods have brought great challenges to both teachers and students. For a long time, in order to complete the heavy teaching tasks within limited class hours, traditional teaching method is still based on teachers' input and supplemented by students' notes. The long-term passive teaching mode exhausts teachers' passion, weakens students' interests and prevents practical English application, which will naturally affect students' learning efficiency. Thus, curriculum reform is urgently required.

In recent years, China has been exploring and constructing online teaching. "Flipped classroom", Moocs, Spocs and micro-class become hot issues among teacher all over the country. Platforms and Apps like Icourse, NetEase Open Course, Mosoink, etc. are popular with teachers and students, which provides curriculum reform with technological and theoretical support.

Compared with traditional classroom teaching, BOPPPS teaching model highlights participatory learning and emphasizes active role of learners in the classroom, which is the fundamental difference between BOPPPS and traditional classroom teaching design. There are three obvious advantages of BOPPPS model: firstly, the mode emphasizes clear and attainable learning objectives; secondly, the mode highlights student-centered teaching and the active participation of students; thirdly, the mode pays attention to the reflection of teaching process. According to the transformative learning theory, it is these key elements that constitute the basic points necessary for students to deeply participate in and complete the learning process.

#### IV. SAMPLE OF TEACHING PLAN BASED ON BOPPPS

According to Bloom's classification of objectives, the teaching objectives are divided into six categories: memory, comprehension, application, analysis, evaluation and creation, among which the lower levels of learning such as memory and comprehension are much valued in the traditional class while the high levels of learning like application, analysis, evaluation and creation are often ignored. Worst of all, it's even impossible to finish lower levels of learning at school, let alone achieve all the objectives. For the limited periods at school, "duck-stuffing" teaching style burdens both teachers and students. However, BOPPPS splits teaching objectives into six modules: bridge-in, objective, pre-assessment, participatory, post-assessment and summary. BOPPPS refines the goals, expands the learning space, most important of all, involves students in learning and stimulates their initiative to the utmost. Thanks to the modern technological devices, BOPPPS combines in-class learning and beyond-class learning, thus improving the self-directed study and realizing the most efficient learning style. According BOPPPS, the first three modules, bridge-in, objective, pre-assessment, focus on memory and comprehension, which are not necessarily carried out in class. Instead, teachers can flexibly make use of network class to complete the parts ahead of the classroom teaching. In this way, not only students are free to utilize learning materials at their own pace in their spare time, but teachers are allowed to focus on the advanced learning procedures concerning analysis, evaluation and creation, thus an effective learning is secured

within the limited credit hours. A whole teaching procedure can be designed as follows:

Teaching Procedure	Purpose	Students' Tasks	Teachers' Tasks	Platform
Bridge-in	Arouse interests; provide background information	lead-in activities	Provide background information; design lead-in questions	Mosoink
Objective	Online self-directed learning;	Self-study tasks on words, phrases and sentence patterns	Provide teaching materials, including PPT, video tips, micro-lectures, etc.	Mosoink
Pre-assessment	Test preview effect	Complete quiz	Design quiz; offer answers and feedbacks	Mosoink
Participatory	Involve students in learning; trigger internalization in learning	Attend class with puzzles; Solve the problems through activities	Design activities such as presentation, group discussion, debate, etc.	Classroom Activity
Post-assessment	Test learning effect	Complete quiz	Design quiz; offer answers and feedback	Mosoink
Summary	Summarize key points, replay learning process	Summarize study effect; check the leakage	Announce the study effect ; solve the remained puzzles	Classroom Activity

#### V. TEACHING PRACTICE OF INTENSIVE READING COURSE BASED ON BOPPPS

The author has been trying BOPPPS mode in Intensive Reading course for a whole semester. The paper will list the concrete implementation procedures by taking "In My Day" in Intensive Reading (III) as an example. "In My Day" is one part of the story written by American columnist Russell Baker. The text is from his 1982 autobiography *Growing Up*, which tells the story between the busy and impatient son and the old mother with Alzheimer's disease. The teaching objectives includes mastering key words, phrases and complex sentences; analyze text structure and main idea by applying 5S reading skills (surveying; skimming; scanning; surmising; studying) ; explore main themes and spirit in terms of western and Chinese values. To apply BOPPPS teaching mode, the author launched I-cloud class on Mosoink App, in which all the students registered and were well acquainted with operation of I-cloud class. Ahead of the credit hours at school, the author informed students to log on the I-cloud class and complete Bridge-in, objective and pre-assessment part on APP. The Tasks should be finished no later than a deadline set in advance.

The author prepared the six modules based on BOPPPS and carried out the teaching plan correspondingly:

##### A. Bridge-in

To provide students with background information, the author made full use of online platform and uploaded materials including PowerPoint and videos concerning Russell Baker and his works, Alzheimer's disease, aging society problem, Thanksgiving, Guy Fawkes Day, Baltimore, Chesapeake Bay, etc. After finishing this module, students are likely to get to know the main topic of the unit and get ready for the coming tasks.

##### B. Objective

One Text recording and four micro-lectures are uploaded on APP. To get ready for the text study, students are suggested imitating text recording and reading text fluently. Three micro-lectures are about words and phrases, grammar analysis, structure analysis and reading skills. Actually, in the traditional class, these parts account for at least half of the credit hours with poor effect, for there are too many things to explain in short periods. Teachers are exhausted to stuff the students with language tips, while students are bored by taking pages and pages of notes without time and energy to internalize what they have taken down in class. However, when students watch micro-lectures prepared by teachers in advance, they are allowed to study at proper time and suitable pace repeatedly. Micro-lectures are particularly suitable for the students with comparatively weak language foundation in words and grammars, for they can refer to the lectures again and again at their pace. To ensure the self-study, students are required to make notes and submit their notebooks to be rated when they come to class.

##### C. Pre-assessment

To evaluate the preview effect, the author designs a quiz in form of multiple choices. 50 questions involve all the information provided before. The purpose is to check whether students have well prepared for the coming class at school as the teacher expects. Though teachers have to design the quiz, I-cloud class system grade automatically, which save teachers' time and energy.

##### D. Participatory

When students come to the class, they are assumed to bring their notebooks with puzzles they've found during the self-directed study on APP. The author designed group discussion on language tips and theme analysis. For the unit, the author helps students with key words, phrases and grammar tips. To further language study, the author selects TEM-4 language part as complementary materials. Moreover, the credit periods also focus on aging society problem and

analyze the theme and spirit reflected from the text. To implement the ideological principle, the author organizes presentation titled “Filial piety trumps all. Children choose to be filial while parents have gone”. The author videotapes students’ presentation and uploads onto I-cloud class for students to watch and go over their performances by which internalization and reflections are bound to happen.

#### E. Post-assessment

Two assessments are designed for the unit. One is similar to the pre-assessment, containing 50 multiple choices mainly about language skills. Students were asked to complete the quiz on APP; the other one is writing assignment about the theme analysis. They are informed to submit to the author before a deadline.

#### F. Summary

In one credit period, the author summarizes study effect by two quizzes and other assignments, points out the leakage and offers the ways to make up for it. The author announces the study effect and solves the remained puzzles. While at least 12 credit hours are needed to finish one unit in traditional class, the total unit is finished within 7 credit hours at school and 10.5 hours beyond class.

### VI. TEACHING EFFECT OF INTENSIVE READING COURSE BASED ON BOPPPS

According to the teaching plan based on BOPPPS, four out of six teaching parts are completed on Mosoink App, which not only stimulates students’ initiative in self-directed learning, but also save teachers and students’ energy in solving puzzle within the limited class periods.

In general, students preview language tips and finish pre-assessment and post-assessment outside class, which enable them to study at their own pace. Compared with the traditional class teaching, students can refer to the materials and watch the video tips or micro-lectures repeatedly, which allows students to fully understand and master language skills, especially keys words and grammar tips. While studying independently, students have enough time to look through materials and figure out difficult points for them, thus preparing them for the classroom activities. Moreover, online quizzes allow students to check study effect and give them direct feedback to stimulate their initiatives. Finally, online self-study shortens credit hours and guarantees the learning effect through face-to-face communication with teachers and group discussion with peers, which ensures the real learning happen.

Through the application of Intensive Reading, BOPPPS model, with the help of Mosoink I-cloud, conforms to the characteristics of English major students in Teachers’ college of Beijing Union University, and also conforms to the current trend of information development. In terms of teaching effect, the teaching model frees teachers from traditional classroom knowledge transfer, gives full play to students’ subjective initiative, and achieves effective extension of classroom teaching in time and space through online-offline blended teaching.

### VII. CONCLUSION

Applied to the traditional classroom with the help of I-cloud class, BOPPPS makes up for some defects of traditional classroom, breaks the limitations of the classroom time and space, and successfully changes “duck-stuffing” class into students-oriented mode (Yang, 2019). Moreover, assessments are more open and accurate, and classroom activities are free and unrestricted. BOPPPS provides a solid foundation for the effective implementation of classroom design. In a sense, the combination of BOPPPS and Mosoink deepens the all-around educational reform to form the student-oriented self-teaching learning system.

At the same time, opportunities coexist with challenges. It is necessary to make it clear that BOPPPS teaching model puts forward higher standards to meet for professional teachers. The model requests teachers to build a large number of rich teaching resources, such as traditional courseware, case, micro lectures, video, etc., to design and define scientific and reasonable teaching objectives suitable to be achieve online, to design test, assignments, and group activities for students to fulfill online, to pay more attention to organize and guide students in classroom teaching, to facilitate students’ in-depth participation in the discussion and practice, and to help students finally realize improve their learning ability and self-development.

Hopefully, BOPPPS might be gradually and widely applied to the English major teaching.

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# The Impact of Linguistic and Cultural Competence on Translation Quality: Pedagogical Insights into Translation Problems

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**Abstract**—The act of translation inside classroom undertakes a great deal of students' mistakes either grammatical or lexical (i.e. metaphoric, idiomatic, collocational) and some feedback as well. Many studies have concentrated on studying the reasons behind committing such mistakes on the level of undergraduates. However, this paper will start with shedding light on some samples of students' mistakes to reach instructor-perspective proposed solutions at the end. The study aims at assisting both instructors and institutions of translation to apply pedagogical solutions to their students or translation courses. Moreover, the study further attempts to explore the impact of students' cultural and linguistic competence on the quality of translation. Researchers adopted a selective analytical method, mainly quantitative, in studying students' mistakes in the course of *Translation 2* in the 1<sup>st</sup> semester during the academic year 2019-2020 at the English Department - Female Division - Faculty of Languages and Translation - King Khalid University, and then proposed solutions. The language pair discussed here is Arabic-English-Arabic.

**Index Terms**—translation problems, cultural competence, linguistic competence, translation quality, timed assessments, pedagogy

## I. INTRODUCTION

This study explores the extent to which students enrolled in translation courses at the faculty of languages and translation at King Khalid University are aware of the linguistic and cultural competence and the role such competence plays in producing high quality target texts. The present paper asserts that the ability to promote students' translation competence is the most important aspect in translation education. In the light of the previous research, the present study investigates the pedagogical implications of the linguistic and cultural competence on the quality of translation towards producing self-directed, autonomous and competent translators.

## II. LITERATURE REVIEW

This literature review explores the notions of linguistic and cultural competence in relation to translation towards training translation students to become professional translators. Many studies highlight the significance of translation competence and its role in producing translations of high quality. Madkour (2018) examines the impact of culture and intercultural competence on the performance of students in translation. Rafieyan (2016) explores the relationship between cultural intelligence and translation of culture-bound texts. This study asserts that cultural intelligence is supposed to be of great influence to the development of intercultural competence. The pedagogical implications of the findings of this study suggest incorporating cultural components of source language community into translation courses. Popescu (2011, p. 1183) addresses the issue of linguistic competence versus translation competence as a pedagogical approach. In (2013), Popescu conducted a research on the impact of language learning process on developing English linguistics of students' translation competence. Malyuga, Krouglov and Tomalin (2018) investigate the linguo-cultural competence as a cornerstone of translators' performance in the domain of intercultural business communication. Jibreel, Al-Abbasi and Al-Maqaleh (2017) investigate the relationship between translation strategies awareness and students' translation quality.

Other studies review errors commonly committed by translation students to look for appropriate solutions. Wongranu (2017) explores the types and causes of errors in translation made by English major students. The findings of this study suggest that students' anxiety and low self-confidence are primary causes of errors in translation. The students were found to employ "read-and-translate" procedure and showed carelessness during the process of translation. Rahmatillah (2013, p. 14) investigates translation errors in the process of translation where errors were found to be due to linguistic cultural competence deficiencies.

It follows that a gap in the literature that this paper is designed to fill is how to enhance translation students' linguistic and cultural competence in order to be capable of producing high-quality translations.

#### A. Translation

Newmark (1998) defines translation as the act of “rendering the meaning of a text into another language in the way that the author intended the text” (as cited in Hartono, 2017, p.10). Bassnet and Guire (1991) state that translation is the substitution of target language meaning from source language meaning through linguistic studies and the target language culture. They conclude that the essence of translation lies on meaning. Blum-Kulka (1986 as cited in Madkour, 2018, p. 94) defines translation as an act of communication, and that the process of translation cannot be restricted to two languages as it also involves two cultures. Nida and Taber (as cited in Nord, 1997, p. 7) state that translating consists of reproducing in the receptor language the closest natural equivalent of the source language message.

From the above investigation of translation as defined by various scholars, it appears that adhering to the contextual meaning as intended by the author as well as having cultural knowledge of the two languages are of vital role in the production of faithful translation.

#### B. Translation Competence

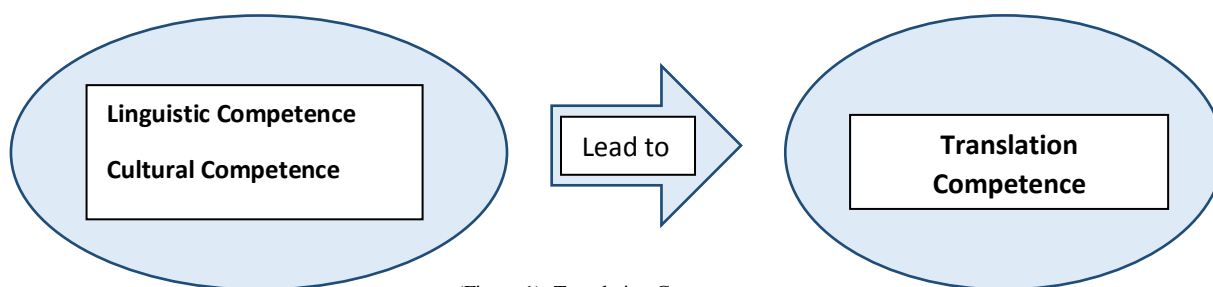
It was Chomsky (1965) who first made a distinction between competence and performance. For him, competence is the system of linguistic knowledge, while performance is the way the language system is used in communication. In linguistics, Chomsky (1965) explains competence in terms of the use of intrinsic abilities to learn a language. In translation, Baker (1992) argues that a competent translator must have knowledge about the semantics and lexical rules of the source language. Cultural competence, on the other hand, refers to the awareness that develops out of the experience of culture (Madkour, 2018, p. 99).

The relationship between translation competence and linguistic and cultural competence has been addressed by various researchers, however, with different implications. An important challenge in the translation process is to find an appropriate equivalent that conveys the meaning of the source language. Consequently, failure to employ the accurate equivalent is a failure to translate which leads to communication gap and inadequacy. Students are usually facing the challenge of choosing between two or more words, and they are in a dilemma to adhere to the adequate contextual meaning. Unless teachers work on improving their students' competence, the students will be facing many problems in translation.

According to Spolsky's (1972) research, linguistic competence “is not enough for practical or educational purposes; we are interested not just in the fact that someone knows a language but that he knows how to use it”. For this reason, students should be exposed to different language forms in real- life contexts and should develop a cultural background competence of the source and target language texts.

According to Pym (1992) translation competence is “the ability to generate a target text series of more than one viable term for a source text”. This ability to select only one target text from this series to propose as a replacement of the source text is a significant proof of the translator's competence.

The above review of previous studies on translation competence reveals that translation competence cannot be achieved unless a translator possesses a good linguistic as well as cultural knowledge of the SL and TL (fig. 1). For this reason, translation students should be able to figure out the impact of such competence on their translation quality. Students of translation should be introduced to the commandments of professional translators from the very beginning of their translation courses in order to have the necessary awareness to work on their translation competence.



(Figure 1): Translation Competence

#### C. Culture and Translation

The Skopos theory, puts forward in “Ground-work for a General Theory of Translation” by Reiss & Vermeer in 1984, emphasizes the functionality to achieve purpose of the target text in the target culture. According to the functional approaches to translation, there are three vital rules in the skopos theory, namely, the skopos rule, coherence rule and loyalty rule. Skopos rule is to translate in a way which helps the translation to function in an appropriate way for the people who will use it (Reiss & Vermeer, 1984). The translator is the one who will determine as for which particular skopos (i.e. purpose) should be the one to carry out in a translation process. The coherence rule implies that the translated text should make sense in the communicative situation in which it is delivered (Reiss & Vermeer, 1984, p.

113). The third principle of the skopos theory is loyalty principle. It refers to the responsibility the translator has toward the source text, target audience and other agents in the translational environment. This principle demands the translator to be loyal to the source text writer and the target readers, but this does not mean that the translator has always to follow (TL) receivers' expectations (Nord, 2001, p. 125). This also conforms to Venuti's (1995) notion of the invisibility of the translator. Since any translation generally involves various purposes, different strategies have to be taken in order to achieve each of them (as cited in Metwally, 2019, p. 385).

Many researches in the field of translation (Vermeer 1978, Hewson and Martin 1991) describe the translator as a "cultural operator", "bi-cultural" expert, and cross-cultural specialist". These studies reveal that cultural competence has a great impact on the quality of translation. Bassnett and Lefevere (2016) describe translation as a "cultural turn", while Venuti (2017) describes translation as a task of "transmitting culture". Additionally, many studies highlight the role of culture in translation. Madkour (2018) asserts that a shift in the purpose of translation necessitates training the students to acquire socio-cultural skills by engaging them in discussions about the culture of the original texts (p. 93). According to this study, understanding the cultural aspects of original texts is essential for "bridging the gaps between different cultures to grasp the core message of the text" and render the message of the text effectively. In this respect, Bhabha (1994) states that translation is "the nature of cultural communication" (p. 228).

#### D. Errors in Translation

Many research papers in the literature of translation studies have investigated the types and causes of translation errors. Baker (1992, p.20-21) maintains that translation errors are produced mainly by non-equivalence between the SL (source language) and TL (target language).

Translation errors are caused by a lack of comprehension of the source text, or misuse of words (Hatim, 2001). In this respect, Pym (1992) confirms that there are two types of translation errors. These are "binary and non-binary errors". "Binary errors" refer to any errors that are regarded as incorrect translation. On the contrary, "non-binary errors" refer to a translation that is not totally wrong, and could be improved. Binary errors imply that language competence needs to be improved, while non-binary errors reflect translation competence, which is defined by Pym as the ability to create a group of target texts, and then select the best one that suits purposes and readers (Wongranu, 2017, p. 118).

This review of how linguists classify and look at translation errors shows that there are many aspects involved in the translation process. In this study, the focus is on examining linguistic and cultural errors in students' translations towards promoting translation competence. Cultural errors could occur due to inadequate reproduction of culture-specific expressions, while linguistic translation errors are caused by inadequate production of language forms. As Nord (1997, p. 76) puts it linguistic errors are often due to deficiencies in the translator's source or target language competence.

### III. METHODOLOGY

This research paper aims at studying the reasons that led senior students of English department in to commit mistakes in their translations and discussing how such reasons could be connected to linguistic and cultural competence and translation quality. The paper adopts a selective analytical qualitative method. Data was collected from three timed-assessment scripts of 136 senior KKU students (level 7) during their actual assessment sessions of *Translation 2*. Therefore, we ended up with 136 samples of midterm and final scripts each plus 28 projects to study and analyze. Avoiding repetition as possible, samples of mistakes have been chosen selectively as for the most recurrent ones among others and the unusual mistakes, too.

### IV. DISCUSSION & FINDINGS

To fulfill the methodology shown above, three timed-assessments were given to the students and we can divide them into three categories: A midterm paper, a group project paper and a final paper.

The midterm paper is a kind of official assessment given to the students of *Translation 2* in the 1<sup>st</sup> examination period and to be completed in one-hour session individually, having access to paper dictionaries only. It was about a literary text which narrates a theft story to be translated from English into Arabic (Figure 2).

#### The Old-Clock Shop

Christmas Eve had arrived. As last-minute shoppers were going home, a thick white sheet of snow laid over *Lake City, USA*. Yet the lights were still burning in the old-clock shop, as Ray, its old, deaf owner, still working on a clock.

He saw two men. The younger man remained at the door. The older man approached the counter with no sign of friendliness in his eyes. Ray turned to meet the shopper, but his wise eyes told him that this was not a shopper. Ray was able to hide his growing fear as he slowly pushed a notepad and a pencil across the counter.

He wrote on the notepad, "May I help you?" They both understood why he was there and why his friend remained at the door. Ray calmly wrote another message. "Have you come to pick up a clock or watch?" Then the man quickly looked at the watch on his wrist. "How much will you give me for this?" the man wrote. Ray noticed a little shame in the grey eyes looking at him. Ray gave him fifty-dollars. They both knew the watch wasn't worth that much. The old man left saying: "Merry Christmas". The message of 'Peace on earth, goodwill towards all' was felt by the three men who stood in the old-clock shop.

(Figure 2): Midterm paper

On the other hand, the second assessment was a translation group project which is a kind of an official assessment given to the same patch of students to be completed in a week time. The week that the project was scheduled to be held in didn't include any other submissions or papers for other courses. It was chosen on purpose to hold the project in to ensure the students won't be distracted with other stuff which may affect the quality of their target texts or they take it as an excuse to ask for extending the submission deadline. Each group should comprise 4-5 students maximum where they chose to be together so it's not a random distribution from the instructor or a forced one. This has been done to ensure that each group of students are willing to work together and communicate to one another with no excuses for miscommunication matters. Each group chose a leader, translators and a proofreader. The project consists of 3 medium to long literary passages for different writers and, therefore, written with different styles (Figure 3). These passages meant to be rendered into English.

**قصص الوجوه**

الجمعة - 20 مارس | 2015 [عبدالله المغلوث](#) | نشر في: [إراء](#)

عاش المحاسب المالي، براندون ستانتون، مواليد 1984، أزمة شخصية ومالية بعد طرده من عمله في إحدى الشركات الخاصة. ظل فترة طويلة يبحث عن وظيفة تسد جوعه وتقيم أوده بلا نتيجة. اشترى له كاميرا شبه احترافية من نوع «كانون» وحاول أن يتعلم عليها التصوير؛ ليخفف من حدة الإحباط النفسية.

شرح فور أن اقتنى الكاميرا في تصوير المناظر الطبيعية والمباني المميزة. لكن بعد فترة استوفقه تعبير حزينة على وجه أسرة في قطار. التقط صورة لهم دون إنهم. وتأمل الصورة ووجد فيها قصصا لم يستطع التقاطها في المناظر الطبيعية أو المباني. قرر أن يبدأ خطوة جديدة تركز على التقاط الصور للبشر وليس الحجر. راقته له الفكرة جدا ولا سيما بعد أن انطلق في بلورتها إلى واقع. توهجت التجربة عندما زار نيويورك. لم يلتقط صوراً لتمثال الحرية أو بروداي أو معالم تايمز سكوير. التقط صوراً للعبّارين في نيويورك لكن بعد الحصول على إنهم هذه المرة. كان أصعب شيء هو أن يتحلى بالشجاعة ويتقدم نحوهم ويطلب أن يصورهم. ردود أفعال أصدقائه الإيجابية دفعته إلى تخصيص ملف لهذه الصور في «الفيس بوك» بعنوان (البشر في نيويورك). كان مقرراً أن يبقى أسبوعاً في المدينة الأمريكية المزدهرة، بيد أن القصص التي رآها والتعليقات التي تصفحها جعلته يمدد الإقامة في نيويورك حتى إشعار آخر.

تطورت الفكرة. أضاف إليها تعليقا. كان يسأل كل من يتوجه نحوه، ما أصعب شيء يواجهك في الحياة؟ كانت الإجابات مفاجئة ومهمة. أرفقها مع الصور فتفجرت الفكرة وأصبحت مشروعاً مشوقاً يتناقله الركبان، فحزم براندون عفشه وصوره إلى موقع تمبلر للتدوين ليستضيف صورته وتعليقاتها التي باتت هدفاً لملايين القراء. جمع الوجوه التي تصفحها في كتاب حقق أعلى المبيعات.

وقابل الرئيس أوباما في القصر الأبيض. وتحول من موظف مطرود إلى مصور مطارد. تبحث عنه كبريات الشركات والمؤسسات والأفراد ليصورها. فاستضافته «فيس بوك» في مقرها لتصوير فريقها بعدسته الإنسانية العفوية وغيرها الكثير.

أكبر نجاح حققه براندون هو عندما تحرر من الخوف وسأل المارة أن يصورهم وفاز بجاباتهم. دائماً الخوف يحدنا ويحدد طموحاتنا. الله وحده هو من يستحق أن نخشاه ونهابه وغيره لا. عزيزي لا تخف من شيء. خف فقط من خوفك.

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في ليلة عاصفة دخل زوجان عجوزان وقد أصابهما الإعياء الشديد من البرد والتعب إلى أحد الفنادق فاستقبلهما الموظف الشاب بكل رعاية واهتمام. ولما كان الفندق ممتلئاً بالزبائن، فإنه عرض عليهم سريريه الخاص وكان ذلك هو المكان الوحيد المتاح لهما. ورغم رفض الزوجين ذلك، فقد أصر الموظف الكريم على موقفه. وفي الصباح ودع الرجل العجوز وزوجته ذلك الشاب الطيب وقال له: " ينبغي أن تكون يوماً ما مديراً لأفضل فنادق أميركيا ". وضحكاً مقترنين. نسي الموظف الشاب ذلك الموقف، ولكن العجوز لم ينس. وبعد عامين، تم إنشاء فندق هائل في مدينة نيويورك وكان صاحبه ذلك الرجل العجوز، وقد دعي ذلك الشاب رحيم القلب لرؤية ذلك الفندق الكبير قائلاً له: « هذا هو الفندق الذي بنيت له لتديره أنت ». وكان ذلك هو فندق والدروف الشهيرة العالمية، حيث تم تعيين الموظف الشاب جورج بولدت أول مدير للفندق. وقد ظل على مدار ثلاثة وعشرين عاماً وحتى وفاته مخلصاً للفندق ولصاحبه وليام والدروف أستور. إن خدمة الآخرين بدون توقع عوضاً منهم، يخرجنا من طوق الحياة المادية، ويسنحنا شعوراً سامياً يفوق الوصف.

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أقبل على الحياة بلا توقعات حاملة من أن الحياة ستكون كلها وردية فلن تخلو أيامك من قصص محزنة وحقوق ضائعة أو خيبات أمل في الطريق. أنصف الناس بلا أن تتوقع الانصاف من أحد. إن الرغبة في الكمال تجلب الحزن، لأن تحقيق الكمال من المحال، فاسع لتحقيق أفضل ما يمكن عمله الآن، ثم اجر تحسيناً صغيراً في حياتك كل يوم. لا تستغرق وقتاً طويلاً في التفكير، ولا تغرق في التظير، واختصر وقت التخطيط وتقلب الأمور، وسارع في البدء بالعمل كي لا تصحوا وقد ذهب العمر سدى. عش حياتك كطائر يغادر عشه كل صباح ساعياً بحساس وراء رزقه بلا أن يتوقع أي شيء، ولكنه سيرضى بكل شيء. . . .

لا تحدد في المصاعب الكبيرة فيصعب عليك حلها، ولا في النواقص التي تفكر إليها، وتعافل عن كثير من الصغائر التي من حولك واعتبرها جزءاً من الحياة. لا تخض حروباً ضارية مع نفسك ولا تقض حياتك في الخصومات، ولا تدقق خلف كل جملة قيلت فيك، وتحاسب كل من أساء إليك، ولكن سارع بتذكر ما تملكه من نعم كثيرة..

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(Figure 3): Translation group project

The last type of assessment given was the final paper of the course. It is a kind of an official formal assessment given to the same patch of students to be completed in a two-hour session individually, having access to paper dictionaries only. The text is an informative description of *Diriyah Season* to be rendered into Arabic with some key words translated at the bottom (Figure 4).

Diriyah is the historical site of the establishment of the first Saudi state and is considered the Jewel of the Kingdom. It embodies the soul of the nation's history, and the promise of its future. For hundreds of years, its cool mud-brick buildings have been a refuge for those seeking relief from the heat of the desert and a hub where communities can gather, share and grow together.

Located just minutes from Riyadh, Diriyah was founded on the banks of the Wadi Hanifah, surrounded by lush agricultural lands. As communities grew in Wadi Hanifah, Diriyah developed into a central gathering point in Najd Region.

Today, Diriyah Season is an unmissable set of international sports and entertainment events, happening at a UNESCO heritage sight, Diriyah, the birth place of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. Sports fanatics, entertainment seekers, foodies and shoppers, don't miss out on a month of energy, excitement, elegance, and memorable moments as the world comes to Diriyah!

A giant open-air family entertainment district for all ages – the spectacular Diriyah Oasis – will be created as part of the thrilling Diriyah Season. As a cultural and entertainment district, Diriyah Oasis reflects the rich heritage, unique architecture and affluent resources of Saudi Arabia and the region. It will feature carnival games and stalls, plus dining options to suit all tastes.

refuge ملاذ      hub مركز      heritage تراث      cultural ثقافي      architecture فن معماري

(Figure 4): Final Paper

The same patch of students (136 seniors) taken the three assessments during semester 1 in the academic year 2019-2020, and their scripts were checked and marked then analyzed (all samples available in hard copies). This paper will not engage the marking criteria in the discussion as the main focus here is on the translation decisions taken by the students and how these could range from poor to acceptable -excellent choices and how this can be linked to linguistic and cultural competence. (Tables 1, 2, 3).

Starting with the midterm paper, the students were given a feedback session after checking their scripts to discuss their good as well as poor choices of decisions shedding light on the most repetitive and strange ones (Table 1). This session turned to be a hilarious one as the students were surprised by the poor, or sometimes funny, translation decisions they've taken to some parts of the text. The main reasons leading to such poor choices the students talked about to their instructor in the feedback session were time constraints and examination anxiety. They believed that if they would be given extra time and/or they were a bit relaxed, they may produce better pieces of target texts.

TABLE 1  
FEEDBACK ON MIDTERM PAPER

ST	Poor TTs	Acceptable/Excellent versions of TTs
1- <u>Christmas Eve had arrived</u>	وصل عشية عيد الميلاد/شارستمت عشية/كريمس إيف/وصول عشية رأس السنة/غادر شارسماز/عند وصول كريمس عشية/غادرت عشية الميلاد/عشية عيد الميلاد وصل/غادر شارستمتز/عاش عيد مولده في بصل/لقد وصلت مسباد المسيحية/لقد وصل عشية الكريسمس/وصل كريماس إيف/إنه عشية الكريسمس/في عشية الكريسمس وصلت/إنهاء عشية الكريسمس/قدوم عشية الميلاد/	اقتربت عشية الميلاد/حلت عشية عيد الميلاد/أتت عشية عيد رأس السنة/جاءت عشية عيد الميلاد/مع قدوم عشية عيد الميلاد/وصلت عشية العيد المجيد/ها قد أتت عشية الميلاد/عشية رأس السنة قد وصلت/إنها عشية عيد الميلاد/
2- <u>As last minute shoppers were going home, a thick white sheet of snow laid over Lake City, USA</u>	غطاء ثقيل من الثلج/تغطي نهر المدينة/ورقة بيضاء حتى بحيرة المدينة/يعشبه الثلج/المملكة المتحدة/كان يمتد الثلج الأبيض التام على بحيرة المدينة/ورقة عريضة من الثلج/الكثافة البيضاء للشارف/ثلج بحيرة المدينة/حتى آخر الدقائق بينما كثافة الثلج غطت مدينة لكي كالحاف/رفائق ثلجية ناعمة/قبل رحيل الشاري نزلت صفيحة نحيلة من الثلج/سقط شرف ثخين/مدينة البحيرة/	تساقطت طبقة كثيفة من الثلج على مدينة "ليك" في الولايات المتحدة الأمريكية/مدينة لاك كانت مغطاة بالثلج الأبيض/كان الثلج يكسو مدينة الليك سيتي/
3- <u>The lights were still burning in the old clock shop</u>	مازالت تضيء وهو يحرق سوق الساعة القديم/محل غطاء الحذاء القديم/كانت الأضواء محترقة/الأضواء لازالت تحترق/دكان ساعات المسنون/ساعة المتجر القديم/كانت الإضاءة جميعها محترقة/	الإضاءة لازالت مضاءة/المصابيح لازالت مضاءة/الأضواء لازالت منارة/ ما زالت الأضواء مشعلة
4- <u>As Ray, its old, deaf, owner, still working on a clock</u>	لازال يعمل على الساعات/كالشعاع القديم/لازال يعمل في الساعة/يعمل في هذه الساعة/كما كان رأي العجوز الأصم لا زال يعمل على مدار الساعة	المالك الأصم ما زال يعمل على ساعة/لا زال يعمل على إصلاح الساعة/ما زال يعمل في المتجر/
5- <u>The younger man remained at the door</u>	رجل شاب يتذكره عند الباب/يبقى الرجل الأصغر عند الباب/الرجل المتبقى كان خلف الباب/بقي الرجل الجائع عند الباب/	الرجل الشاب بقي عند الباب/الرجل الأصغر واقف/عند الباب/الرجل الأصغر سنا بقي على عتبة الباب/
6- <u>The older man approached the counter with no sign of friendliness in his eyes</u>	مع وجود علامة لطف في عينيه/مع عيناه التي لا يجد فيها علامة الصداقة/يأتي ويفيض على موضع الحساب بدون نظرة حنونة في عينيه/مع الإشارة بعينه لصديقه الأصغر/لا يوجد علامة لأصحابه في العين/اقترب من جهاز المحاسبة/	كان الرجل الأكبر قريبا من ركن المحاسبة وفي عينيه الكثير من البغض/مع عدم وجود أي علامة للطف في عينيه/اقترب إلى منضدة البائع بلا أي تغيير يوحى إلى الراحة في عينيه/
7- <u>Ray turned to meet the shopper</u>	انعطف راي لمقابلة المتسوق/راي عاد لمقابلة لباتاغ/راي يدير لمقابلة المتسوقين/راي يتلصص لمقابلة البائع/راي يدير اجتماع المشتري/راي يدور حول المتسوقين/	التفت راي لمقابلة المتسوق/ذهب راي لمقابلة المتسوق/التفت راي لمقابلة المشتري/استدار راي/
8- <u>"Have you come to pick up a clock or a watch?"</u>	هل أتى وأخذ الساعة؟/هل تريد تحديد الساعة؟/هل جئت لأخذ الغطاء أو الساعة؟/هل تأتي لتحسن الساعة أو الساعات/	هل جئت لاقتناء ساعة حائط أو ساعة يد؟/هل جئت لاختيار.../هل جئت لتأخذ.../لأشتري.../
9- <u>The old man left saying: "Merry Christmas"</u>	مازي كريماس/الرجل المسن قال للسيارة عيد ميلاد ماري/	عيد ميلاد مجيد/عيد ميلاد سعيد/عيد مجيد/عيد رأس سنة سعيد/
10- <u>The message of 'peace on earth, goodwill towards all' was felt by the three men who stood in the old clock shop</u>	السلام في الأرض شعر بواسطة جميع الرجال الثلاثة/المشاعر جيدة نحو الكل من قبل ثلاث رجال/سقطت من الرجال الثلاثة الأضحوكة في محل الحذاء القديم/جيد تجاههم جميعا/	حسن النية تجاه الجميع شعر من خلال ثلاثة رجال/السلام على الأرض وحسن النية للجميع كانت الرسالة المحسوسة/السلام في الأرض وحسن النية نحو الجميع شعروا بها الرجال الثلاثة/شعر الرجال الثلاثة الذين وقفوا في محل الساعة القديمة برسالة السلام في الأرض/

Certainly, time is a big factor in any translation task, simple or complicated. We can see deadlines in big translation companies working with professional translators, in schools of translation managing projects and assignments of their students and we can even find some *timed* assignments in certain translation programs. In the field of translation time is a factor. This leads to one end that time is really a significant aspect affecting professional translators before novice ones (in our case students of translation). Nevertheless, 25% of the students given excellent target texts were taking the test in the same atmosphere as others, though.

It's good to acknowledge that throughout the semester, the students were put under three types of training on how to manage their timing while having a translation task in hand. First, in the opening class of the course, they were given some tips in writing about how to achieve time management and started to apply them in every single class that followed. In classes, the students were given texts to translate while the instructor counting the time on the stop watch. The timing was divided in a certain criteria where 3-4 minutes allotted for reading and comprehending the text, and underlining new terms. Then students were stopped to determine the brief of the text: register, tense and genre in two minutes. This helped a lot in getting the right choices to translate the text. Then, five minutes counted for looking the new terms up in the dictionary or to guess their meanings from the context. Then, they started the actual translation by given them an average 3 minutes per line in the first 4 classes and then 2 minutes per line until they reached 30 seconds to complete a line in a text by the end of the semester.

The second strategy has actually started after the midterm paper since some students still complaining of time limitations. The instructor was given an interpretation-like class where the students orally translate line by line the ST after their instructor and given 5 minutes at the end to articulate the text all together. The students were very pleased about this strategy in particular and they showed that in writing to the instructor upon asking them to write their comments casually and anonymously on the course later at the end of the semester (copies available).

Nonetheless, the big question is: Can time constraints really push students to produce poor unusual mistakes such as the ones shown in (Table 1)? Is it really time limitations that make a student to translate “Marry Christmas” which is a very well-known phrase into “عيد ميلاد ماري” or “ماري كريسماس”? Is it timing or cultural incompetence? When a student used “ورقة عريضة من الثلج” or “الكثافة البيضاء للشراشف” as a translation to “a thick white sheet of snow laid over *Lake City, USA*”, is it because of timing or linguistic incompetence? What is more logical to you?

(Madkour, 2018, p. 99) has defined cultural competence as: “the awareness that develops out the experience of culture“. It has become clear that some unusual mistakes produced to a text which is in the same level of the students and, perhaps rated by most of them as easy to medium in difficulty, are not a consequence of time constraints since 25% of the students under the same conditions produced even *excellent* target texts and left the examination room in time! Rather, it’s a matter of lacking competence either culturally or linguistically as shown in (Table 1). Being ignorant with a famous cultural and religious phrase such as “Marry Christmas” which can be heard in movies, videos to name a few is showing that even if students were given longer time, they won’t produce the right version of translation and they will give the exact mistaken translation to that segment because simply they aren’t aware of the right meaning of the cultural segment in the first place.

TABLE 2  
FEEDBACK ON TRANSLATION GROUP PROJECT

ST	Poor TT	Acceptable/Excellent versions of TTs
1. ظل فترة طويلة يبحث عن وظيفة تسد جوعه وتقيم أوده بلا نتيجة	NIL	He was looking for a job that would fill his hunger and get him back on his feet, but it was a dead end/to fill his hunger and support his life/to fill his hunger and help him/he kept for long time looking for a job to make a living without a result/looking for a job which helps him with the difficulties of life/to help him to be independent again/to satisfy his hunger and mend himself/to support himself/keeps him barely alive/to make a living/looking for a job that can keep his soul and body together/to get over life difficulties/to earn his living/helps him in his life/to survive
2. ليخفف من حدة الامه النفسية	NIL	To ease his psychological pain/ to relieve/to alleviate/to intensify his emotional distress/to lessen/to reduce his psychological struggles/to diminish/to decrease
3. قرر أن يبدأ خطوة جديدة ترتكز على التقاط الصور للبشر وليس الحجر	Based on photographing people <u>not rocks</u>	Capturing pictures for humans <u>not for the inanimate/</u> taking pictures for humans <u>not non-living objects/</u> of humans <u>not non-humans</u>
4. رافت له الفكرة ولاسيما بعد ان انطلق في بلورتها إلى واقع	He liked the idea especially after he started to <u>crystalize it</u> into reality/	This idea impressed him a lot especially after he <u>turned its essence into</u> reality/ after he set out to practice it/he <u>started to convert it</u> into reality/after he applied it into reality/turned it into a real
5. التقط صوراً للمعابر في نيويورك	New York <u>passengers/</u>	He took pictures of <u>the passers-by</u> in New York/capturing pictures for <u>random people/</u> he took photos of the <u>New Yorkers/</u> of New York’s <u>pedestrians/</u> the <u>people walking there/</u> for the <u>transient</u>
6. أصبحت مشروعاً مشوقاً يتناقله الركبان	Exciting project between <u>passengers/commuting stirrups/</u> carried by <u>stirrups</u>	Became an interesting project that was <u>shared among people/an interesting project</u> narrated by people everywhere/most people have been <u>talking about/ spread among people/that everyone was talking about/</u> that <u>outspreads among people/ exchanged</u> by people/ <u>travels by</u> people/it became the topic that <u>people talk about/</u> became a <u>popular project/</u> the idea <u>became word of mouth/very famous/</u> spread among all
7. فحزم براندون عفشه وصوره إلى موقع تمبلر	Brandon <u>picked up his furniture</u> and photos to take them to Tumblr/ <u>he packed his baggage</u> and pictures/ <u>he backing his packs</u> for blogging Templar/ <u>packed his throne</u> and his image to the Templar	Brandon <u>gathered his ideas and pictures</u> to Tumblr/ <u>he collected all his tools and photos</u> to Tumblr blogging site/ <u>he packed his stuff and images</u> to Tumblr/ <u>he moved his stuff and pictures</u>

		to Tumblr/he <u>packed his pictures</u> /he started his project on the <u>blogging website</u> Tumblr/Brandon <u>created a blog</u> on Tumblr
8. تحول من موظف مطرود إلى مصور مطارد	... to a <u>stalker photographer</u> /into a <u>wanted photographer</u> /he was hinting by people instead of <u>hunting them</u>	He turned from a fired employee to a <u>desirable photographer</u> /he became a <u>famous photographer</u> after being a fired employee/after he was fired he became a famous photographer/ /he was turned from a fired employee into a <u>popular photographer</u> /turned from a fired employee to a <u>paparazzo</u> /transformed from being a dismissed employee to a <u>striving photographer</u> /to a <u>chased photographer</u> /he turned from a dismissed employee to a <u>required photographer</u>
9. أصير الموظف الكريم على موقفه	He <u>insisted them</u> to accept his offer/ insisted on his attitude/ <u>insisted on his stand</u> /he insisted <u>about his reaction</u> / insisted <u>about his kindness and behavior</u>	The generous clerk <u>insisted/insisted on his offer</u> /despite... , the employee <u>dug in his heels</u> / insisted on his <u>position</u>
10. أقبل على الحياة بلا توقعات حالمة	He came to life without any dreaming expectations	<u>Move forward to life</u> without dreamy expectations/ <u>accept life without</u> dreamy expectations/ <u>move towards life/come to life</u> without/ <u>live life</u> with no dreamy/ <u>proceed in life /face life</u> without/ <u>approach life</u> without
11. لا تخض حروباً ضارية مع نفسك ولا تقض حياتك في الخصومات	Do not spend your life in <u>discouts</u> /do not spend your life <u>for opponents</u> /in <u>the discounts</u>	Don't go through fierce wars with yourself, spend your life in <u>arguments</u> /don't fight fiercely with yourself and don't spend your life <u>with the opponents</u> /do not spend your life in <u>rivalries</u> /do not spend your life in <u>disputes</u> /don't spend your life in <u>quarrels</u> /in <u>fight</u> s/in <u>antagonisms</u> /in <u>conflicts</u> /in <u>adversaries</u>

The third assessment given was the final paper which demonstrates a well-known cultural district to any Saudi citizen, *Diriyah*. The text talked about the historical position of the place and the well-advertised Diriyah Season (Figure 4).

TABLE 3  
FEEDBACK ON THE FINAL PAPER

ST	Poor TTs	Acceptable/Excellent versions of TTs
1- <u>Diriyah</u> is the historical site of the establishment of <u>the first Saudi state</u>	تأسست في بداية المملكة العربية السعودية/تم تأسيسها في أول ذكرى السعودية/الدرعية أنشأت أول مجموعة تاريخية لها تصريح سعودي/يعتبر (ديريه) موقع تاريخي في السلطة الحاكمة في أول حدث سعودي/تم تأسيسه في السعودية/من التأسيس الأول للدولة السعودية/وهي أول حالة سعودية/نشأت الدرعية ويعتبر الحالة السعودية الأولى/اكتشفت في أوائل الدولة السعودية الأولى/الدرعية رؤية تاريخية تأسست من أول والي سعودي/درعه هي مجموعة تاريخية مشهورة/الدرعية هو/ الظاهرية هي الموقع التاريخي لتأسيس أول ولاية سعودية/الدرعية مبنى تاريخي وهو أول مبنى تأسس في السعودية/تأسس تاريخ الحريضة من أوائل نهضة السعودية/الدايريه هي موقع تاريخي في الحضارة/تأسس أول موقع سعودي/الدرعية هي أرض التاريخية التي أنشأت أول ولاية سعودية/الدرعية يمتد تاريخه إلى السعودية الأولى/دايرية هو الموقع التاريخي/مكان تاريخي لإنشاء أول دولة سعودية/منذ تأسيس أول مدن السعودية/ديرة انها جهة عالمية لأول سعودي/هي الموقع التاريخي لتأسيس أول طبقة سعودية/أول أرض تاريخية معدة للبناء/هي أول منشأة تراثية جوهرية/الديرة هي أول موضه تاريخي/دايرية هي أرض	الدرعية هي معلم تاريخي تأسست في الدولة السعودية الأولى/الدرعية هي مكان تاريخي/الدرعية هي مكان تاريخي منذ تأسست السعودية الأولى/الدرعية هي الموقع التاريخي لإمارة الدولة السعودية الأولى/الأولى



	تاريخية/دائرة أول مؤسسة تاريخية/هو المبنى التاريخي/هي منشأة تاريخية تستوطن الطبقة السعودية الأولى/تعد أول عاصمة للسعودية/أول سعودي فكر في تاريخ الأرض المعدة للبناء/هو سقف بناء الدولة السعودية الأولى/تعد الدرعية أول دولة سعودية أنشأت/الديرية أول موقع تاريخي/	
2- considered <u>the Jewel</u> of the Kingdom	وبراعي جوهرة المملكة/وحمية جوهرة المملكة/يتم التفكير بأنها قطعة مجوهرات في المملكة/وتعتبر الجويل من المملكة/وتحتوي على جواهر المملكة/وتجسد روح الولاية التاريخية/المجوهرات في المملكة/وهي فكرة جوهريّة للمملكة/تراعي جوهرة المملكة/ويعد جويل المملكة/تحتوي على جويل السعودية/	وهي تعتبر <u>جوهرة</u> المملكة/تعتبر الجوهرة للمملكة/و تعد قلب المملكة/تعد روح المملكة/
3- its <u>cool mud-brick buildings</u>	كانت بناية عادية/مباني منهيكة/مباني قديمة/مبانيها الشاهقة/المباني المحطمة/بنايتها هادئة ومن الطين/لها مباني تاريخية محطمة/مبانيها الرائعة المصنوعة من الطوب الأحمر/طرازها مبني من الطين المكسر/مبني مود بريك/	وهي مبنية من طوب طين بارد/كانت لهم مباني من طين بارد/مبانيها الطينية المبنية من الطوب/بيوتها الباردة المصنوعة من الطين/
4- on the <u>banks</u> of the Wadi Hanifah	حصلت في أرض وادي حنيفة/تجدد فيها البنوك/لواذي حنيفة/وجدت في بنوك في وادي حنيفة/كانت على ضفة عند وادي حنيفة/تعتمد على وادي حنيفة/وجدت الدرعية على مصرف وادي حنيفة/وجدت الدرعية على بحيرة وادي حنيفة/على المصارف من وادي حنيفة/على حافة وادي حنيفة/على جوانب بني حنيفة/أسست على البنوك/على ركاب وادي حنيفة/تم العثور على الدرعية على أطراف وادي حنيفة/في قاع وادي حنيفة/	تأسست في ضفة وادي حنيفة/مطلّة على وادي حنيفة/على ضفة وادي حنيفة/
5- happening at a <u>UNESCO heritage sight, Diriyah</u>	ويحدث يونسكو في تراث موسم الدرعية/تراث يونسكو/تحصل في يونسكو مشهد تراثي/التي حدثت في مشاهد التراث في يونسكو/برعاية منظمة اليونسكو للهيئة التراثية/كما في محطة يونسكو/الحدث في تراث يونسكو/تحصل في الولايات المتحدة للعلم والعلماء والثقافة والمنظمة/حصل في اليونسكو من الجانب التراثي/	وضع في منظمة اليونسكو/التي تحدث في القسم التاريخي لمنظمة التربية والعلوم والثقافة التابعة للأمم المتحدة/يقع في موقع اليونسكو التاريخي/مسجلة في تراث منظمة اليونسكو/وتقع أنظار اليونسكو على تراثها/التي تقام في موقع اليونسكو التراثي، الدرعية/وجدت في اليونسكو كمنظور تراثي/تحدث في موقع اليونسكو التراثي/
6- A <u>giant open-air family entertainment district</u> for all ages	هو بناء معماري مفتوح لكل الأعمار/مخصصة غير للعوائل/سوف يكون هناك حي لتسليّة العائلة/البوابة مفتوحة للعوائل بجميع الأعمار/فتحت البوابات للترفيه العائلي/هواء الدرعية هواء مفتوح وداخلي يناسب جميع الأعمار/تستمتع العائلات بالهواء الطلق/عائلة كبيرة جدا من الملاهي والتسليّة/	فعاليات خاصة بالعائلات لكل الأعمار/منطقة عائلية ترفيهية كبيرة في الهواء الطلق لكل الأعمار/مكان عملاق وضخم مفتوح ومناسب لكل العائلة/توجد منطقة مفتوحة ضخمة للترفيه العائلي لكل الأعمار/
7- affluent <u>resources</u> of Saudi Arabia and the region	مصادر غنية على السعودية العربية والديانة/مصدره السعودية العربية/مرجع غني للملكة/مصادر وحكام السعودية/لإعادة المصادر في السعودية ومناطقها/	غني بالموارد في المملكة/مصادر غني المملكة/المصادر الغنية للملكة والمنطقة/

At the time period of the test, the Diriyah Season was launched and, therefore, visited by many renowned people and got good coverage on TV and by most social media influencers in Saudi Arabia. We found it a good idea to give such a topic to the students so they would be definitely familiar with. Surprisingly, *Diriyah* has been rendered as *الحريضة*، *الديرية*، *الظاهرية*، *الدايرية*، *الديرية*، *درعه*، *دائرة*، *الديرية* in some of the scripts (please refer to example 1, Table 3). Such poor choices for the well-known cultural and historical place show the effect of cultural negligence and incompetence on the TTs of the students. The poor versions of translations given to this sentence foster the notion of the importance of cultural competence to produce translation quality as an output. Unlike linguistic incompetence, cultural incompetence is not forgivable and cannot be excused in most of the cases.

Another example of cultural incompetence produced here is the second part of the first example (**the first Saudi state**). This phrase is widely mentioned in school's curricula of Saudi students yet still be translated as quite unacceptable versions such as: *أول تصريح سعودي ، أول طبقة سعودية ، أول ولاية سعودية*.

Some sentences have undergone lexical and linguistic mistakes. Let's take the example of (**mud-brick buildings**) which is assumed to be known by most of the students because they can see them in Saudi and Gulf TV series, heard about them from the old members of families, find out about them in books and museums and some of these buildings still available in villages and outskirts. Most of the mistakes in translating this segment is that the student have described it in their own imagination and were very free in their translations such as: *هادنة ، منيكة ، عادية ، محطة ، شاهقة*. Examples 2 and 4 are also a huge demonstration of linguistic incompetence where *the jewel* has been rendered as *جويل ، جويل*. The students focused on the denotative meaning of the word only and ignored the context, and the word *the banks* was rendered as *بنوك ، مصرف ، بحيرة ، ركاب ، قاع*. Such mistakes affect the quality of the translation desperately.

On the other hand, the same examples of the text have been rendered in a smart way by other students whom we think are strong linguistically and therefore culturally (as you can see in Table 3). They comprise about 40% of the whole samples. Those students show high level of linguistic and cultural competence, their sentences flow smoothly, the meaning is clear and the text in general is coherent. They can get use of the context to provide closer meanings for what the texts they work on.

## V. PEDAGOGICAL INSIGHTS

It's worth saying that, yes classroom is not the only place to master translating but it is the first stage most of the time translators start with. In the classes of translation, students are given theoretical and practical sides of the discipline and see different types of texts. What we want to say here is that the classroom can be a more productive place if we become able to functionalize it well.

That is to say, first, institutions of English and Translation should put clear criteria for admitting students to their programs. Language and translation require having good knowledge of English and culture in the first place. Then when students enrolled in the program they can build on the good base they have. Institutions shouldn't tolerate this as it's the first brick in the whole learning process.

By the time those linguistically good students reach level 6, 7 and 8 where they are expected to study Translation courses, they can manage translating different genres more than others with low levels of competence. They can, presumably, get more of their instructors and/or have the tendency to read and practice more.

What is even better is when those students have to choose their path after they got the grounds of the language. So maybe after completing level 4 they can choose their major either translation studies, literature or linguistics, what so ever, and start studying intensively what they have chosen. That means they are passionate about the major and would like to take it forward. This would make huge difference to the students and the outputs of the programs in the market later on.

As instructors of translation, our aim is to teach a reasonable number of students in which we can check their progress gradually and give personal tutorials more often. We need to spot the translation problems for all of them individually right from the beginning so they can work on them and fix the gap. With packed-classes of students, it becomes impossible to achieve such a goal.

Good and fair admissions criteria, reasonable class size, passionate students of translation are three crucial factors that can elevate the quality of teaching and the outputs of translation programs and their alumni.

## VI. CONCLUSION

To sum up, we can say that linguistic and cultural incompetence is a state of having some problems in comprehending a text in its context which affect the quality of the TTs negatively. Incompetent students culturally or linguistically tend to provide peculiar translations that can be disastrous sometimes. As a matter of fact, in most of the scripts checked, if the students made recurrent linguistic mistakes in grammar or structure or word choice they tend to produce mistakes also in the cultural segments of the text. In other words, we as researchers believe that culture is beyond language as any language can be a part of a culture and in what we have seen the students who produced linguistic mistakes failed also in rendering the cultural parts correctly and it was impossible for most of them to understand the cultural aspects of some of the sentences because simply they couldn't get the easier linguistic parts correctly.

## VII. RECOMMENDATIONS

In the light of the aforementioned discussion of results, it is recommended to teach translation strategies comprehensively in translation courses and to pay more attention on students' perception of the power of culture in transferring meaning from the ST (source text) to the TT (target text) during classroom activities in order to build their translation competence.

From a pedagogical viewpoint, in order for students to promote their translation competence, their level of linguistic competence must be developed. One of the most important actions to be taken is to teach students dictionary skills and searching strategies. Students should be taught how to use different dictionaries (i.e. glossaries, thesaurus, etc.) which will be reflected on their translation competence. They should be encouraged to use collocations, idiomatic expressions and words chunks in order to enhance their translation competence.

More time should be allocated to translation classes and more challenging topics (i.e. linguistically, culturally, etc.) should be incorporated. In addition, more group discussions should take place in the classroom. Group work can increase motivation and reduce the affective filters (i.e. stress, anxiety, low self-esteem, etc.) (Krashen, 1981). Additionally, flipped classroom techniques of translation could be used to improve students' translation competence. For instance, translation examples can be given to students as home activity, and then students participate in group discussions working on texts similar to the examples they have been previously introduced to at home. Additionally, it is recommended to encourage peer review inside the classroom. Peer review could be one of the significant techniques that can boost linguistic and cultural competence and consequently translation competence. Wang and Han (2013) assert that peer review helps students overcome different translation problems.

Additionally, content-knowledge competence and monitoring competence should be highlighted for translation students. The exposure to various contexts is an affective procedure to improve content-knowledge competence while the ability to work on the translated texts for editing and improving the translation could help students in enhancing their monitoring competence. Teachers need to give comprehensive and task-based oriented feedback to students in time. They should, in addition, encourage the students to employ strategies selection exercises, comprehensive evaluation of the produced target texts, and reflection on the word choice.

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# Call for Papers and Special Issue Proposals

## Aims and Scope

Journal of Language Teaching and Research (JLTR) is a scholarly peer-reviewed international scientific journal published bimonthly, focusing on theories, methods, and materials in language teaching, study and research. It provides a high profile, leading edge forum for academics, professionals, consultants, educators, practitioners and students in the field to contribute and disseminate innovative new work on language teaching and research.

JLTR invites original, previously unpublished, research and survey articles, plus research-in-progress reports and short research notes, on both practical and theoretical aspects of language teaching, learning, and research. These areas include, but are not limited to, the following topics:

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## Special Issue Guidelines

Special issues feature specifically aimed and targeted topics of interest contributed by authors responding to a particular Call for Papers or by invitation, edited by guest editor(s). We encourage you to submit proposals for creating special issues in areas that are of interest to the Journal. Preference will be given to proposals that cover some unique aspect of the technology and ones that include subjects that are timely and useful to the readers of the Journal. A Special Issue is typically made of 15 to 30 papers, with each paper 8 to 12 pages of length.

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

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

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

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

- The name of the conference/workshop, and the URL of the event.
- A brief description of the technical issues that the conference/workshop addresses, highlighting the relevance for the journal.
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