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Non-native EFL Teachers' Perception of English Accent in Teaching and Learning: Any Preference?

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Abstract—This study studied the accent perception of a group of non-native pre-service EFL teachers in Hong Kong in order to see whether native English norm is of their preference for teaching and learning. Results found that participants all preferred traditional native English as learning model and seemed to have overlooked the principle of intelligibility, even there had been calls for using lingua franca core as learning model. Results show that participants all preferred using native English to be the model of teaching and learning. Among all the native English varieties, participants preferred the accent from the United Kingdom though not all could identify the accent they preferred. The study showed there was a mismatch between what the participants preferred and their ability of identifying accents of different kinds.

Index Terms—accent, immersion, EFL

I. INTRODUCTION

The well-known sociolinguistic profile of English is proposed by Kachru (1985). He categorized English within three concentric circles—the inner circle, the outer circle and the expanding circle. The inner circle refers to the traditional native English speaking countries like USA, UK and Canada. The outer circle includes countries where English is spoken as a second language like India and the Philippines. Expanding circle comprises countries where English is spoken as a foreign language by non-native speakers of English (e.g. China and Japan). The model proposed by Kachru is not static and among these circles, the expanding circle is the fastest growing circle.

With the increase number of non-native English speakers in the outer circle, English in the world has led to the emergence of many different varieties of English and the concept of whether native pronunciation should be followed by EFL learners has been greatly discussed and challenged (e.g. Erling, 2005). Research to date has found native English is preferred by most learners and they would like to adhere to the native English models like either General American (GA) or Received Pronunciation (RP) (e.g. Bayard, Gallois, Ray, Weatherall, & Sullivan, 2002; Chiba, Matsuura, & Yamamoto, 1995; Dalton-Puffer, Kaltenboeck, & Smit, 1997; Timmis, 2002) and only very few studies found that learners of English would not like to speak like a native speaker (Widdowson, 1997; Yano, 2001).

Preferred accent and perception

EFL learners preferred learning English within the norm of GA or RP for different reasons. Bayard, Gallois, Weatherall, & Sullivan (2002) found learners from Europe and Southeast Asia preferred GA because of the popularity of American media worldwide. Dalton-Puffer, Kaltenboeck & Smit (1997:122) found that Austrian learners would rate a native English accent higher which was of their own familiarity, i.e. Austrian-British one. Austrian learners described the speakers with the RP accent as “the most educated, organized, and courteous”. Danish learners also found RP “to be the unsurpassed prestige variety” and it is the correct model of pronunciation in Danish EFL classrooms (Ladegarard, 1998).

Meanwhile in Asia, Hu (2004) found that 100% of the respondents at a Chinese university regarded British and American accents to be the only English standards and he believed that this deeply rooted belief was inculcated in the minds of the teachers. In Japan, Japanese undergraduate students also rated the UK and the GA accents higher than those of the expanding circle like Sri Lanka, Malaysia and Hong Kong (Chiba, Matsuura, & Yamamoto, 1995). In Li's (2009) study, 80% of the educated Chinese bilingual users also preferred native English accent. A much larger scale of study was conducted by Timmis (2002), he sampled 400 learners in more than 45 countries and found them prefer native speaking norms in speaking and grammar.

The above studies have proved what Scales, Wennerstrom, Richard and Wu (2006) said about learners of expanding circles tended to set native English standards for their own speech and the above studies have also echoed how Kramersch (1993:9) put it, “Nonnative teachers and students alike are intimidated by the native speaker norm”. Both students and teachers are being led by the norms and standard of native English. For EFL students, achieving native standard of English seems “unattainable” because EFL learners are not L1 speakers and they can never be native speakers, and will never be. For non native English speaking EFL teachers, they are also intimidated by their own past learning experience, classroom language standard of native English teachers, and very often, the available teaching and learning materials

are of native English standard and the materials “teach them what English is, what is not” hence cause EFL learners to identify native English as the “norm”. Even Levis (2005) pointed out that there are two main principles of pronunciation teaching—nativeness principle and intelligibility principle—in EFL teaching and learning context, the emphasis on nativeness principle is still yet lopsided and the principle of intelligibility is often neglected. As Cook (1999) and Hutchinson & Hutchinson (1994) described most teaching and learning materials are mainly inclined to the “nativeness” model. All these have in turn led teachers to think and believe their English is not the standard but that of the native speakers.

World Englishes

With the reality that most EFL learners prefer setting native English as the norm of learning, the issue of intelligibility in communication seems to be neglected. A recent study conducted by Li (2009) found that only 20% of the Chinese bilingual users preferred a localized English accent because of their concerns over the issue of intelligibility. Many scholars like Cook (1999) are critical of the hegemony of using native English as the teaching and learning model. Scholars emphasized the importance on global intelligibility in world Englishes, rather than on a particular native variety of English (e.g. Crystal 1997; Jenkins, 2005, 2006, 2007; Kachru, 1997, Kirkpatrick, 2006, 2007; McKay, 2002; Seidlhofer, 2004, 2006).

Jenkins (2005) raised a “lingua-franca core” as the model for pronunciation teaching so as to preserve the particular variety of English as part of their culture and identity because native proficiency is an unrealistic standard for non-native speakers. As Modiano (2001: 340) pointed out, “Pressure to attain near-native proficiency may result in establishing then [the students] as auxiliary members of the culture which is represented by the prescriptive educational standard. Something not in harmony with their own self-image.” Li (2006) further commented that using a native English-based pedagogical model to measure non-native English speakers’ competency is inappropriate. Matsuda (2003) also suggested that there should be an integration of World Englishes into ELT curriculum. He proposed an ELT curriculum model in which students are exposed to English speakers of World Englishes from various language and cultural backgrounds and believed that English should be perceived as a pluralistic language rather than a monolithic one. Matsuda suggested that this ELT curriculum model should aim to increase students’ awareness of World Englishes.

Using English as a lingua franca is a legitimate call if one looks at the present English worlds. 80% of verbal exchanges in which English is used as a foreign or second language are between non-native English users but not native speakers as estimated by Gnutzman (2000). The total of EFL/ESL learners was 1100 millions as at Year 2000 according to the statistics from the British Council. This figure had already outnumbered, by almost four times, the present total population of native English speakers (328 million) in the world (Levis, 2009). With the use of English as an international language for work, study or pleasure, the number of English learners can only be expected to grow continuously in such a globalised world. Li (2006) reckoned that English is meant for intranational communication in the outer circle in terms of functions, native speakers of the inner circle are often not present. As estimated by Gnutzmann (2000), 80% of verbal exchanges in which English is used and involve no native speakers but non-native speakers. One may then ask whether native English should be set as the norm for the rest of the English worlds.

As discussed previously, scholars have been advocating the concept of world Englishes while research found learners to date still prefer native English as the standard for teaching and learning. It is the learners’ past experiences, both from the classroom and the society, combine to affect their attitudes to native English. Looking at the EFL examinations around the globe (e.g. Cambridge ESOL exams, TOEFL, IELTS, etc.) and the local university entrance tests, almost all listening components were read aloud by native speakers of the inner circle which inevitably set native English as the norm and model of teaching and learning.

If we are to turn this situation around, the most fundamental group of people who might be able to facilitate this are the in-service teachers as well as the pre-service teachers. The reason is simple: learners as a matter of fact have no choice over what materials they would be exposed to in the classroom or how they are assessed, but the teachers. Teachers are the gatekeepers of what materials should be used in the classroom, what should not. Teachers should hence take the lead and revisit the definition of “standards and norms” in their own teaching and learning context and understand the social and pedagogical implications of multilingualism and its relations to the Englishes in the world. They should first consider whether to use localized English materials, non-native English models and materials in their classrooms and expose students to different varieties of English in order to broaden students’ knowledge and enhance the awareness and recognition of World Englishes.

In response to the responsibility of EFL teachers mentioned above, this paper will focus on investigating a group of *pre-service teachers* because of the distinct dual identities they possess—learners today and teachers-to-be. It will be meaningful to see how this group of participants perceives native English and non-native English from a hybrid perspective. The focus of this paper is to see if pre-service teachers, at the time as EFL learners, have a preference to native English accent like what the precious studies had found; and whether they can distinguish their preferred accent from the many different others. If they cannot, what are the implications to EFL teaching and learning? What can teacher trainers do to rectify the situation?

II. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The aim of this paper is to examine pre-service teachers' preference to different English accent in order to draw implications to EFL teaching and learning. This general objective can be broken into three constituents:

1. Do pre-service EFL teachers prefer native English to be the model of teaching and learning?
2. Which country/countries' English accent do the pre-service EFL teachers prefer?
3. Can the pre-service EFL teachers identify their preferred accent?

III. METHOD

Design

Three instruments were used to gauge participants' perception of accent in teaching and learning: a listening task, a survey questionnaire and focus group interview.

Participants

Twenty one third year students from a teacher training institute in Hong Kong took part in this project. They were all English education major students who had just finished 6 weeks of block teaching practice. Given that there were more female students studying language education than males, there were 15 female participants and 6 male participants. One participant was born in China and the rest were born in Hong Kong. 16 of them had been learning English for more than 15 years; 4 had been learning English for 11-14 years; one had been learning English for less than 10 years. Their age ranged between 21-23 years old.

Questionnaire

To investigate a larger group of participants' opinion towards different English accents used in different contexts, a questionnaire was administered. Before participants were invited to take part in the project, the project investigators gave a general briefing to the students, of which general objectives, the details of the focus group interviews were outlined. One week after the briefing, the two investigators invited those students who were voluntarily willing to take part in the project to fill in a questionnaire.

The questionnaire had been piloted and several wordings of the questionnaire items were amended based on the respondents of the pilot study. The face-to-face questionnaire survey was carried out on 29 October 2009. It was successfully administered to 21 students; 21 valid questionnaires were collected. There were 28 items in the questionnaire and 6-point Likert scale was employed (6: strongly agree, 1: strongly disagree). Participants were also given a choice of choosing "don't know" as their answer. The aim of the questionnaire was to investigate whether they preferred using local variety of English (i.e. Hong Kong or Mainland Chinese) as the teaching and learning model, and how they perceived the issue of intelligibility. The questionnaire was in English and respondents were not given a time limit but allowed to take their time to finish the questionnaire. A reliability test on the revised questionnaire items was run to determine their internal consistency. The reliability coefficient (Cronbach alphas) was high, with an alpha value of 0.852, meaning the internal consistency of the questionnaire items was high.

Listening task

To elicit participants' most preferred English accent and whether students can identify different varieties of accent, video clips featuring some TV drama series from four major native English speaking countries were shown to facilitate their choices. 16 adjectives of traits were provided for the participants to rate whether the accents they listened from the clips corresponded to them. Examples of traits were: educated, arrogant, powerful, and friendly. The four English speaking countries were: Australia, Canada, New Zealand, and the UK. Each TV drama series clip lasted for approximately 2 minutes. Apart from rating how the adjectives of traits corresponded to the speakers they listened to in the clips, participants were also asked to identify the accent of the speakers. They would be asked five comprehension questions which were related to the content of the conversations in order to examine whether participants understood the dialogues.

Focus group interview

The aim of the focus group interview was to further allow participants to explain their preference on different accents. In order to achieve this, the focus group interview consisted two parts: 1) a simple questionnaire which interviewees were asked to fill in before the start of the interview and the questionnaire items would be used as prompts in the focus group interview; and 2) face-to-face in-depth focus group interviews.

Five participants volunteered to join the focus group and were interviewed in this study. The focus group interview took place on 14 November 2009 and was moderated by two moderators (two investigators, or one investigator plus the research assistant). At the beginning of the focus group interview, participants were given 6-8 minutes to complete the questionnaire specifically for the focus group interview. Respondents were reminded to provide a brief justification of their preferences. To further tap into the participants' choice of the most preferred accent(s), sound clips featuring two politicians of local English accents (local Hong Kong variety of English and local mainland Chinese variety of English) were used as prompts. Participants were encouraged to speak their mind using the language they felt the most comfortable with. After discussing their preferences of accent, the investigator then proceeded to discussion of each of questionnaire items. Participants took turns to respond and give reasons for their choices. The focus group interview took an open-ended format to allow participants to provide support or views on a topic whenever they wished to. The focus groups were both audio- and video-recorded with the participants' consent; the audio-visual data were transcribed and analyzed.

IV. DATA ANALYSIS

Data collected from the questionnaire were analysed using SPSS. Descriptive analyses (means and standard deviations) were mainly used to project a larger group of participants' general preference to different accents. The focus group interviews data were first transcribed by a research assistant, whereupon the researcher analyzed the data qualitatively and thematically. All analyses followed the thematic approach in order to discover overarching themes that might emerge from the data, both data from individual participant teachers and across all participant teachers (Daly, Kellehear, & Gliksman, 1997). The process involved the identification of themes through "careful reading and re-reading of the data" as Rice & Ezzy stated (1999: 258). It is a form of pattern recognition within the data, where emerging themes can be categorized for analysis.

V. RESULTS

RQ1: Do the pre-service EFL teachers prefer native English to be the model of teaching and learning?

Based on the results found from the questionnaire, pre-service EFL teachers tended to prefer using native English as the teaching and learning model in general (M: 4.09, S: 1.22). The results echoed the results of the previous studies (Bayard et al, 2002; Timmis, 2002). For learning, from an English learner's point of view, most of the participants ($n=4$) preferred speak English like a native speaker because speaking English like a native speaker may lead to "effective communication" or "career advancement" as described by two of the participants in this study. A respondent stated,

"I prefer sounding like a native speaker from BBC (British Broadcast Corporation) too, because I think it's the origin of English and others learned BBC before they developed their own accents. ..There is no point I would like to sound like a Chinese English speaker... I know I live in Hong Kong, but I would like to go for the best." (52—57)

Respondents also explained that textbooks and assessment also imposed an impact on her perception to accent.

When I was in school, the teachers told me that many examiners regarded British English as the standard accent. So I think if I do not correct, then it may be a disadvantage during examination. (340—342)

In terms of teaching, participants agreed in the focus-group interview that if features of the local/localized English accent occurred in the classroom, they would correct their students' pronunciation errors by giving out the correct ones because they believed teachers should teach "standard English and the right pronunciation" and native English was the "standard English". Also, they believed Hong Kong English "may confuse the foreigners". In other words, participants held negative opinions and attitude towards using local variety of English as the norm for teaching and learning.

As one of the respondents mentioned,

Yes. Of course, you're teaching the students the native English accent because when you are teaching the students, I think you should consider the intelligibility of the foreigners (native speakers)...I think the matter of choosing what accent is...you should give them the native speakers' way of...English speaking so that they know what is outside the world. (364—378)

In this study, only one respondent in the focus group interview expressed her preference over using Hong Kong English as the learning and teaching model because she believed Hong Kong English accent symbolised her cultural identity and intelligibility was the ultimate purpose of communication. A previous study by Li (2009) had similar result that only 20% of Chinese EFL users concerned the issue of intelligibility. This study reinforced what Levis (2005) commented on how the issue of intelligibility had been often overlooked.

RQ2: Which country/countries' English accent do the pre-service EFL teachers prefer?

According to the questionnaire, UK accent was found to be the most preferred accent among the participants and in the focus group interview, pre-service EFL teachers also preferred the UK accent as the teaching and learning model because Hong Kong was a British colony and they perceived British accent "high class, elegant, professional" and "the best standard" while American English was considered as "non-standard", "low class".

This result echoed what Dalton-Puffer et al. (1997) found in Austria. In their study, EFL students was asked to listen to unidentified speech samples of both native and nonnative speakers of RP and GA then rate the speakers on a series of positive descriptors. The RP accent was ranked the highest on most descriptors and Austrian-British was ranked the lowest—the one which was similar to the participants' own accent. This result has shown a tendency of accent stereotypes. In other studies like Dalton-Puffer et al's (1997:122), participants also rated the speaker with the RP accent as "being the most educated, organized, and courteous, among other positive descriptors" —similar to that of the present study found.

All respondent also indicated that they chose British English as their preferred accent because Hong Kong was once a British colony. Due to historical reason, choosing British accent seemed to be a natural choice as one of the respondents gave a representative view in the focus group interview,

"Hong Kong was a British colony...So we prefer British accent...Because in my childhood time, I often listened to the British English, and I think it's comfortable to get this accent ... I think they sound like more professional and more elegant than American English. I think American English is a bit rude. (388—423)

RQ3: Can the pre-service EFL teachers identify the preferred accent?

Even the UK accent was mostly preferred by the pre-service teachers according to the result of RQ2, results of RQ3 showed that they were not able to identify the UK accent in the listening tasks. There were only 3 students (14%, $N=21$)

who could identify the UK accents perfectly in the listening tasks even most students thought that they could easily identify the UK accent (M: 4.14, S: 1.12).

This study has revealed a mismatch between these learners' own accent goals and their ability to perceive accents. The result is also on par with what Chiba et al. (1995) found. They found that despite the high ratings given to American accents, less than one third of the participants were able to identify them.

In sum, the results of this present study presented a picture that EFL learners tended to set native English for teaching and learning model and preferred UK accent most, although not all could actually identify their preferred accent when listening to speech samples. Evidence also showed there is a tendency of accent stereotyping and idealization of native English speech.

VI. DISCUSSION & IMPLICATIONS

The present study proved that pre-service teachers, who are considered to be more receptive to new concepts, were also found to be in favour of native English accent for teaching and learning. Participants of this study preferring native English speaking norms to local varieties in English can be explained by several reasons:

1) *Assessments and teaching materials used in EFL classrooms.*

The teaching and learning materials used in EFL classrooms in the expanding and outer circles have been predominantly written by native English writers whom have defined what English is and what is not. As Jenkins (2005) commented the hegemony of native English EFL materials used in the outer and expanding circles of which standards and norms were an unattainable goal for non-native speakers, even EFL teachers. Kramch (1998: 28) also claimed, "Traditional methodologies based on the native speaker usually define language learners in terms of what they are *not*, or at least *not yet*." It is therefore inevitable for learners to view native English an ideal model for learning and teaching.

2) Status of native English teachers

The introduction of Native English Teachers (NET) Scheme also implied and reflected an unequal status between local English teachers and native teachers in Hong Kong while native English teachers were given higher salary, assigned with different job duties unlike that of the local English teachers. Most native teachers were assigned to teach classes with higher ability for different practical reasons which inevitably projected an adverse effect to EFL learners that native English teachers were for students with higher abilities and native English teachers were the ideal language learning models but not other varieties of English. Michael Tien, former chairman of Standing Committee on Language Education and Research (SCOLAR) in Hong Kong also reiterated in public media that native English teachers were of high standard of teaching effectiveness and served better language models for language learning (ATV, 2009). One may ask whether native speakers are necessarily good language models. Sociolinguists had the same answer (e.g. Kirkpatrick, 2007; Li, 2009) while Vivian Cook (1999:186) had the representative answer: "Native speakers are not necessarily aware of their knowledge in a formal sense, nor could they explain how they ride a bicycle" and she counter-argued what Stern (1983) put forward: native English teachers have (a) a subconscious knowledge of rules, (b) an intuitive grasp of meanings, (c) the ability to communicate within social settings, (d) a range of language skills, and (e) creativity of language use. Cook believed all the above were debatable.

3) Historical reason that Hong Kong was a British colony.

Participants mentioned that they preferred learning British English because they were brought up in a British colony. To them, learning British English seemed to be a natural model and norms for language learning and teaching. With the 100 years of colonial impact from the British government, education system, textbooks, teaching pedagogy, school setting and school administrative setting were all "borrowed" from the British model unfortunately without considering much of the local characteristics hence the British framework of teaching and learning had been deeply rooted in the minds of both teachers and students.

Considering this, pre-service teachers should be made to know that native English norms should not be imposed on EFL learners and the issue of intelligibility should also be emphasized and addressed. When assessing non-native English speaking students, they should be aware of the fact that no one should see L2 component of multicompetence to be identical to the monolingual's L1 because multicompetence is intrinsically more complex than monolingualism. Teacher educators should make pre-service English teachers understand the prominence of the native speaker in language teaching would create an unattainable goal for students. Teachers should therefore view students as multi-competent language users rather than deficient native speakers as coined by Cook (1991). As Stern (1992) explained L2 speakers developed L2 based on L1. Therefore, language teaching should concern with developing an L2 in a mind that already contains an L1. L2 difference from L1 should not be seen as language deficit from the native English standard. As Cook (1996:194-195) said, "People cannot be expected to conform to the norm of a group to which they do not belong...however, teachers...and people in general have often taken for granted that L2 learners represent a special case that can be properly judged by the standards of another group...L2 users have to be looked at in their own right as genuine L2 users, not as imitation native speakers."

Another important result found in this study was that this group of pre-service teachers unfortunately were not able to identify the UK accent from the rest of the native English accents—the accent they preferred most. In the study of Scales et al. (2006), English learners in America were not able to identify the accent of American speakers—the accent they listened to daily. When participants indicated that the UK accent was the most "educated" & "elegant" and

American accent was considered as “low class”, obviously there was evidence that learners tended to make stereotyping and have idealization to certain native speakers. To avoid such stereotyping and idealization of accent which may adversely affect students’ learning hence communication development, teacher educators should ensure pre-service English teachers understand non-native speakers as speakers in their own right, not as “approximations of native English speakers” as termed by Cook (1999) because the differences between monolingual speakers’ language standard is of great difference from that of multilingual speakers of which is intrinsically more complicated.

VII. CONCLUSIONS

Whether native English should be used as the norm in the context of EFL teaching and learning has been a debate for nearly two decades and there has not been any conclusion reached so far. However, it is not difficult to realize that the English Language has been changing and evolving for the past 1500 years and it will keep changing in the future, intelligibility will for sure serve as the very fundamental principle in the world of Englishes and native English standard will not stand as the “only” standard serving the globalised world, no matter we like it or not. Mutual intelligibility among different varieties of English will be inevitably required for intranational communication and interpersonal communication of different countries. Teacher trainers are therefore suggested to train EFL teachers in a way that matches the ongoing demands of the English worlds.

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An Evaluation of the Cultural Aspects in the University English Textbook, *Well Read 1*

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Abstract—This descriptive study, first, seeks to identify the extent to which the different cultures (source culture, target culture, and international target culture) are represented in the textbook, *Well Read 1*. This textbook is written by Laurie Blass, Mindy Pasternak, and Elisaveta Wrangell and published by Oxford University Press (2007). Second, it aims to recognize the way these cultural aspects are presented. Third, it ascertains the most dominant and portrayed culture(s) in the prescribed textbook. The content analysis method was employed to meet the abovementioned objectives, and Cortazzi and Jin's (1999) model was followed. The purposive sampling was applied to elicit the data from this textbook through selecting representative texts and passages. The findings clarified that the three cultures (source culture, target culture, and international target culture) are generally represented to varying degrees throughout this culturally-based textbook. Besides, the cultural aspects were explicitly and implicitly embedded in different cultural areas in the form of online, magazine, academic and timeline articles. Moreover, it is evident that the target and the international target cultures predominate with little reference to the learners' source culture, i.e. Islamic and Arabic culture (Turkey, Mediterranean, and Morocco). Being aware of the different cultural aspects and the inseparability of language and culture is crucial for an efficient use of English in diverse contexts.

Index Terms—cultural aspects, textbook evaluation, language and culture, content analysis, EFL learning, Saudi Arabia

I. INTRODUCTION

Language is culturally loaded in which one is unable to think of it without its culture. It indicates that learning a language goes beyond its boundaries; it is culture-bound. The textbook is a primary teaching aid and supporter for language teaching/learning in an academic context. It is a significant source of linguistic knowledge and many loaded cultural aspects. Ahmad and Shah (2014) confirmed that learners "feel influenced by the textbooks they exercise for learning English language and in the process they come across social, religious, cultural, and linguistic diversities" (p. 12). It is also known that culture is not about something consisting of facts to be learned or memorized, but it is about styles and behaviors that can be practiced and appreciated.

Regarding the context of this study, Alshammari (2015) pointed out that the in-use materials and methods of English language teaching in Saudi Arabia reflect Anglo-American cultural and linguistic norms and values, and therefore lack the diverse nature of English today and conflict with the Islamic discourses and values. He discussed the inadequacy of the English materials used in Saudi schools and universities and argued that English an International Language (EIL) framework should be implemented in English curricula at all levels. This study accounts for the analysis and evaluation of the representation of the different cultures, the inclusion of cultural aspects, and the dominant culture(s) in the textbook, *Well Read 1*. It takes into consideration Cortazzi and Jin's (1999) model of the classification of cultures (source culture, target culture, and international target culture).

II. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Textbooks play a pivotal role in the realm of language teaching/learning. They are a source of not only linguistic knowledge but of different cultural aspects as well. As noted by Cortazzi and Jin (1999), textbooks serve many roles in an EFL classroom, namely teacher, map, resource, trainer, authority, and ideology. They can be a map in the sense that it gives an overview of a structured program of linguistic and cultural elements, showing teachers and learners the grounds to be covered and summarizing the route taken in previous lessons.

A. *The Inseparability of Language and Culture*

Nowadays, culture has become a much-discussed topic in the field of English language and interculturality. McDaniel and Samovar (2014) stated that culture "is an extremely popular and increasingly overused term in contemporary society" (p. 9). Language and culture has received a considerable attention as they are strongly interrelated (Al-Hajailan, 1999; Brown, 1994, 2000; Byram, 1989; Fageeh, 2011; Han & Bae, 2005; Ho, 2009; Jamalvandi, 2013; Jiang, 2000; Kramsch, 1993; Mitchell & Myles, 2004; Peterson & Coltrane, 2003; Scarcella & Oxford, 1992; Seelye, 1976; Singhal, 1998). Seelye (1976) regarded that knowledge of linguistic structure alone does not carry with it any special insight into the political, social, religious, or economic system. According to Brown (2000),

"A language is a part of a culture, and a culture is a part of a language; the two are intricately interwoven so that one cannot separate the two without losing the significance of either language or culture" (p. 177). Likewise, Byram (1988) asserted that language always refers to something beyond itself: the cultural context. These eminent scholars believe in the strong and dynamic relationship between language and culture in which they are bound together and cannot be separated. It signifies that being aware of the target language culture is not an option, but a crucial necessity for learning that language. Otherwise, the learner will be considered as a "fluent fool" "who speaks a foreign language well but does not understand the social or philosophical content of that language" (Bennett, 1993, p. 9).

Another renewed interest of the closely related terms of language and culture has led to their combination as one such as *linguaculture* (Fantini, 1997; Friedrich, 1989; Kramersch, 1993), *languaculture* (Agar, 1994; Risager, 2005) *language-and-culture* (Byram, 1997; Liddicoat, Papademetre, Scarino, & Kohler, 2003) or *culturelanguage* (Papademetre & Scarino, 2006). These intermingled terms have a common ground and are tied together. They should be looked at and acquired jointly to ensure efficient use of the language.

B. Culture: The Fifth Language Skill

Based on its importance and in addition to the receptive and productive skills, culture is fast becoming an essential element in language teaching and learning. It is an object of research as a fifth language skill (Hong, 2008; Jourdini, 2007; Kramersch, 1993; Tomalin, 2008; Vernier, Barbuzza, Giusti, & Moral, 2008). Kramersch (1993) considered culture an "expandable" fifth skill tacked on to the teaching of speaking, listening, reading and writing. If language is regarded as a social practice, then culture should become the core of language teaching to the extent that cultural awareness should be viewed as enabling language proficiency. In the same vein, Vernier et al. (2008) viewed the teaching of culture as a fifth skill for language learners that "enhances students' overall learning experience" (p. 268). More important, Kramersch (1993) argued that the role of culture in language teaching is even more central, calling it not just a fifth skill, but rather something that is "always in the background, right from day one" (p. 1). Valdes (1986) stated that teaching a foreign language without its cultural content is practically impossible. These researchers hold the view that culture is a crucial part of language learning, and that language learning goes beyond acquiring language skills. Based on this, it can be confirmed that learner's awareness of the importance of culture as a fifth skill enables him/her to recognize, appreciate and accept cultural differences, and hence communicate successfully in different contexts.

C. The Representation of Different Cultural Aspects in the Textbooks

McKay (2000, 2002) emphasized that language teaching materials should include a variety of cultural elements, including local cultural, to help learners develop an interest in language learning and to foster learner motivation and should not be limited to native English-speaking countries. Similarly, Han and Bae (2005) claimed that "it is impossible to teach the target language without teaching its cultural content" (p. 52). It is not a call to separate the teaching of culture from language, but rather to furnish students with cultural awareness and experiences.

In line with McKay (2000), Cortazzi and Jin (1999) and Cortazzi (2000) viewed culture learning through textbooks as a process of a three-party dialogue between teacher, students, and textbook contents. As it is shown in Figure 1, Cortazzi and Jin (1999) distinguish between three types of cultural aspects that should be presented in culturally-oriented textbooks:

- Source culture materials refer to the learners' native culture;
- Target culture materials relate to the culture of the country where the target language (English) is practiced as a first language, e.g., American or British culture;
- International target culture materials refer to various cultures where the target language (English) is used as a global language, namely lingua franca. They thought that the ideal is some combination of C1, C2, and C3. Therefore, this classification helps in analyzing the representation of cultural aspects in the textbook under investigation.

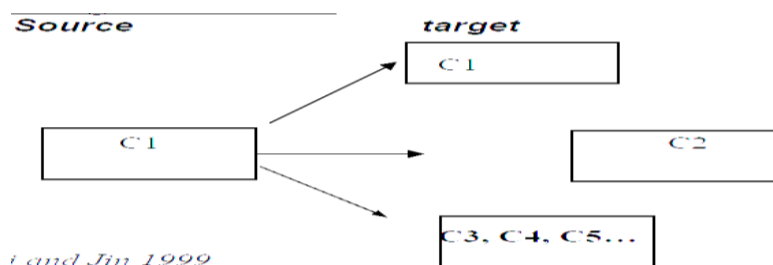


Figure 1: Representation of Culture in English Textbooks (adopted from Cortazzi & Jin, 1999).
 Keys: C1 = the learner's own culture (the source culture)
 C2 = the target culture where the target language is used as a first language
 C3, C4, C5 ... = the cultures that are neither the source nor the target culture (international).

In the Saudi context, Fageeh (2011) conducted a study and highlighted that "integrating culture in the language classroom practices can be understood as important, apposite and necessary" (p. 67). Likewise, Alshammari (2015) explained that "Saudis need to learn to appreciate and understand the myriad values reflected in both native and non-

native varieties of English, and also to express their own indigenous ideals through their English communications, rather than just 'foreign' ones" (p. 370).

What can be drawn from the literature reviewed so far supports the predominant view that learning a language has a vital cultural dimension, along with its linguistic one. The inclusion of such cultural aspects in the textbooks and referring to them while teaching the language help students to deepen their understanding, appreciate the cultural differences, and use the language efficiently. To put it simply, being aware of different cultural aspects is not challenging as long as we use the language successfully and maintain our identity and values. Likewise, understanding culture does not necessarily mean practicing it. Instead, as there are many universal cultural similarities, it can be said that there is common ground among cultures and what combines them is more than what makes them different.

This section refers to some of the previous studies dealt with the representation of culture in school and university textbooks in different contexts. Han and Bae (2005) used a cultural checklist to investigate the extent to which cultural content is integrated into Korean college English textbooks and whether there is a difference in cultural content written by native speaker writers and Korean ELT writers. The results indicated that it is difficult for textbook writers to include balanced information about the different cultural aspects in limited pages of textbooks. Moreover, there was not much difference in cultural content between materials written by native speaker writers and those written by Korean ELT writers. The study proposed that textbook writers should make more informed and appropriate cultural choices before designing the textbook.

Jamalvandi (2013) examined the representation of source, target and other cultures in the Chinese English school textbooks, *New Senior English for China*. He also investigated the way cultural elements are treated in the textbooks. The results revealed that the target culture (C2) is represented more than source culture (C1) and other cultures. Further, there was an imbalanced portrayal of the significant cultural aspects in which the most emphasis was given to the category of religion, arts, and humanities under which came subcategories including literature, arts, music, etc. Specifically, there were some areas of culture, like personal, which were underrepresented. Although some cultural dimensions emerged adequate, there was a biased representation of culture. Consequently, such textbook could not deepen and enrich students' cultural knowledge.

Chao (2011) studied cultural content and its hidden curriculum of the Taiwanese EFL textbook, *New American Inside Out* (elementary level/2008) by Macmillan. The results of the content analysis approach showed that this textbook promoted different cultural dimensions with a biased focus on the introduction of the elements of the target culture, with less portrayal of the source and international target cultures.

Bahrami (2015) evaluated teachers' perception of the cultural elements of *Total English* book series. A questionnaire was administered to a total of 50 male and female teachers working at Kish Language Institute in Esfahan. It was found that the textbook is biased in promoting the western culture and values much more than other cultures. Moreover, the cultural elements were mostly incompatible with the L1 (Iranian) culture.

Aliakbari (2004) employed the content analysis method to address the state of culture in the Iranian high school ELT textbooks. The results revealed that the representation of cultural elements is shallow and distract from culture or cultural points. The textbooks are therefore inadequate to the task of teaching culture specifics in the broader sense (values, norms, beliefs, etc.) or culture-general skills such as intercultural communication and understanding.

Taking into account Kachru's (1986) three-concentric-circles model, Elham and Reza (2013) examined the extent these textbooks portray the cultural themes of the three circles: *New American Streamline* (Hartley & Viney, 1994), *Cambridge English for Schools* (Littlejohn & Hicks, 1996), *Interchange Series 3rd Ed.* (Richards, Hull, & Proctor, 2005), and *Top Notch* (Saslow & Ascher, 2006). Using the content analysis method, the results reported differences among the selected books with a gradual tendency towards more recognition of the international status of English. Moreover, these textbooks generally try to depict more aspects of the Expanding and Outer Circle countries.

Yasemin and Reyhan (2011) investigated the extent to which 18 locally published English textbooks contain cultural references to the source (Turkish) culture, the target (British/American) culture, and the international target culture. The quantitative analysis demonstrated that while references to the source and target cultures included in textbooks published between 1997 and 2005 outnumber international target cultural components, a different trend was obtained in the cultural analysis of books released after the 2005 curriculum innovation. The study stated that representations of the source culture, the target culture, and the international target culture are favored in locally produced ELT textbooks in a reasonably balanced way.

Cakir (2010) analyzed the frequency of culture-specific elements and expressions in English language course books used in the 6th, 7th and 8th grades of Turkish elementary schools. The descriptive content analysis was employed and the results indicated that the textbooks are inadequate in supplying learners with culture-specific elements. Besides, the number and frequency of the cultural expressions is quite less and do not help learners to be exposed to the authentic and realistic situations in the target language.

Al-Akraa (2013) evaluated the content of the 5th grade beginning English textbook, *Iraq Opportunities 3*, introduced in elementary schools based on grammar, vocabulary, and culture. Using the English teachers' questionnaire and the researcher's evaluation, it was clear that there were a limited role and a poor representation of culture in the investigated textbook.

Bataineh (2009) carried out a study to find out the amount of authentic and artificial cultural aspects in the English language textbooks of the secondary schools in Jordan. After analyzing the content, it was observed that the textbooks are basically based on the learners' local culture, while the authentic target culture is ignored. It was also found that the sociocultural content is outdated which neither contributed to real understanding nor is it an adequate guide to successful communication in the foreign language being taught.

Sulaimani and Elyas (2015) investigated the representation of cultural aspects in the international teacher training course, *Certificate in English Language Teaching to Adults (CELTA)*. They discussed the various aspects related to the importance of culture and its inclusion in the field of English Language Teaching (ELT). It was noted that teacher education program designers in general and CELTA course designers, in particular, must take account of the cultural and socio-political issues that are relevant to the contexts of the second language learners. Besides, incorporating cultural knowledge and socio-political issues into the CELTA syllabus not only would help language teachers acquire a basic starter pack of ELT methodologies, but it also would ensure that every aspect of the teacher's teaching practice is informed by a deep understanding of students' local intellectual conditions.

Mekheimer (2011) investigated the socio-cultural encounters of a case study, Saudi EFL learner in the College of Languages and Translation, King Khalid University. He used an in-depth interview to collect background data and a questionnaire to gather background information. The student's responses indicate a strong influence of the target culture on English learning. The student emphasized the significance of acculturation as part of second/foreign language acquisition/learning.

Alshammari (2015) discussed the inadequacy of the English materials used in the KSA schools and universities. He asserted that the Western cultural representations predominate in which the Saudi English courses are based almost entirely on US textbooks, taking no regard of the Arabic or Islamic culture, and contrast sharply with the traditions and values of the Saudi lifestyle. In a similar vein, Elyas (2011) analyzed the textbook used for 1st-year English students, *Interactions 1* and found many standpoints that potentially conflict with primary Islamic discourses (especially those focused on home and family). It is recommended that the issues of sociocultural identity and representation need more attention through the implementation of an EIL framework in Saudi English curricula at all levels.

Ahmadi and Shah (2014) examined the impact of English textbooks (New Headway Plus Special Edition) on Saudi EFL learners' cultural attitudes and their English proficiency outcome. The findings of the questionnaire revealed that the textbooks writers adopted the mono-cultural and Eurocentric approach regarding the book's contents with slight cosmetic changes to make it 'Saudized'. They fail to foster the element of intercultural understanding mainly due to nonexistent Islamic or Saudi depiction; however, on the contrary, its impact on learners' performances was not much dispiriting. Moreover, a significant relationship between the English proficiency and the cultural attitudes of Saudi EFL learners was identified in which learners with excellent English proficiency achieved better mastery in not only the linguistic aspects of the language but absorbed its cultural elements as well in comparison to those who were less proficient.

Al-Hassan (1992) investigated the role and effects of culture and schemata on reading comprehension among King Saud University students. This thesis is concerned about cultural attitudes partly as those attitudes express themselves through reading. A questionnaire was used to determine the students' attitudes towards Western culture, and the extent of their impact on reading comprehension. The findings showed that Saudi students lack the cultural knowledge needed to understand British culture properly. Therefore, it was approved that 'cultural studies' be included in the foreign language syllabus. Understanding a foreign culture can lead to positive attitudes towards the language of that culture. Also, by teaching cultural studies, students' ethnocentricity is often reduced, and they become aware of the common bonds they have with others. They also learn to become more tolerant of existing differences between the target culture that will lead to cross-cultural awareness.

In view of the studies mentioned so far, it is evident that many of these studies dealt with the aim of analyzing and evaluating school textbooks at public education. Some studies concluded that most of the analyzed school textbooks generally do not meet the learners' needs and the teachers' expectations. They concentrate on the learners' source culture, neglecting the target culture and other international target cultures (Ahmadi & Shah, 2014; Al-Hassan, 1992; Elyas, 2011; Fageeh, 2011). Other studies found that the target cultures are dominant with very less portrayal of the source culture.

Nevertheless, it is strongly confirmed that the inclusion of cultural content in language teaching materials is essential to help students interpret and understand the target culture, compare it with their native culture, and enhance their awareness of their own native culture (Alsamani, 2014). Supporting this idea, Fageeh (2011) confirmed:

language materials must incorporate at least the essential information about the cultural values and norms of the target culture in order to give learners the chance to understand not only the linguistic code of the English language, but also to be able to communicate effectively with its native-speaking community in ways that ease intra-cultural understanding, and inter-cultural communication without falling prey to cultural misunderstandings. (p. 67)

Moreover, he actively confirmed that the teacher "should never neglect the significance of culture in EFL teaching and should make effort to enhance students' cultural awareness" (p. 70). It does not mean calling for replacing teaching language with culture, nor does it call for teaching culture separately; instead and to be well-acquired, language can be

taught with reference to its culture implicitly or explicitly through the inclusion of different topics and activities from different cultures.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Objectives and Design of the Study

This study has three main objectives: to recognize the extent of the representation of the three cultures: source, target, and international target cultures in the English textbook, *Well Read 1*; to know the way the different cultural aspects are portrayed; to ascertain the dominant culture(s) in the prescribed textbook. The design of the study is descriptive bearing in mind Cortazzi and Jin's (1999) classification of cultures. It depends on the emic perspective through qualitatively analyzing the cultural aspects available in the target textbook.

B. Statement of the Problem

Studying and investigating cultural diversity is a hot spot and on the rise today. Specifically, each textbook varies in its content and approach to the various aspects of source culture, target culture, and the international target culture. Earlier, it is negatively assumed that linguistic knowledge is sufficient for successful use of the language, neglecting the importance of cultural knowledge. Moreover, some textbooks still focus on developing the receptive and productive skills only, and cultural aspects remained hidden from the learners and out of the teachers' intention. Particularly, the English language in Saudi Arabia is separated from its culture until recently (Elyas, 2011; Fageeh, 2011). Hence, this study seeks to remedy this issue by evaluating *Well Read 1* textbook regarding its portrayal of the different cultures and the representation and forms of cultural aspects.

C. Rationale behind the Study

As the textbook is used on a large scale and is considered one of the vital channels for developing students' cultural knowledge, the supposed cultural aspects in the target textbook should be evaluated rather than taken for granted. In this regard, Ahmadi and Shah (2014) revealed that Saudi students "attain their first interaction with the target culture through these expressly adapted and customized textbooks" (p. 12). Moreover, believing in the fact that language is culturally-loaded, this textbook is evaluated against the representation of the different cultures and the inclusion of their aspects. To date, many of the prior studies have not explicitly achieved such objectives regarding this specific textbook using the content analysis approach. Moreover, the researcher has taught this textbook for four years so the question that immediately has come to mind is how the cultural representation and the supposed cultural aspects can help the students to be more knowledgeable and then competent communicators. Therefore and as learning a language goes beyond the knowledge of grammatical rules, this issue is worth considering bearing in mind the boost of the students' cultural awareness.

D. Research Questions

This study aims to address the following questions:

RQ1. To what extent do the different cultures are represented in the examined textbook?

RQ2. How are the various cultural aspects presented in the examined textbook?

RQ3. What is the most dominant culture(s) in the examined textbook, i.e. C1, C2, C3?

E. Hypotheses

It is strongly believed that learning/teaching any language without paying ample attention to its cultural aspects is insufficient and does not lead to efficient use of that language. To this end, it is hypothesized that the in-use textbook has some references, hints, and signals to the source, target, and international target cultures either explicitly or implicitly. It is also assumed that the various cultural aspects are presented in different forms. As the textbook is written by English native speakers, it is postulated that the target culture predominates with very less reference to the source culture.

F. The Textbook under Investigation

It is worth referring that the digital copy of the prescribed book is available at <http://gen.lib.rus.ec/search.php?req=Well+read%3A+skills+and+strategies+for+reading&open=0&res=25&view=simple&phrase=1&column=def>. The data of the study are drawn from the textbook: *Well Read 1: Skills and Strategies for Reading*. It was written by Laurie Blass, Mindy Pasternak, and Elisaveta Wrangell, and published by Oxford University Press (2007). It is thought that the intended audience of this textbook is the international students in which any reader feels as he/she is part of the audience. This textbook is one of a four-level series that is taught in four semesters in English department at some Saudi universities like King Khalid University and Bisha University. It is also a compulsory course in other departments in the two universities. This study mainly analyzes one textbook within this series, *Well Read 1*, that is taught to level-one students.

As the title implies, the textbook is mostly devoted to one language skill, i.e. reading skill, which is focused on throughout the whole textbook. Reading skills (previewing, scanning, skipping, and skimming) aim to prepare students to read well and quickly. Writing skill and the practice of online research are also dealt with towards the end of each

chapter but with less attention. The specific objectives of each unit are clarified at the beginning of each chapter. Hence, this textbook is analyzed as a material object in which its content and structure are highlighted.

G. Research Instruments

Content analysis is a research instrument that is widely used to analyze the content of written texts regarding the inclusion of specific words and concepts and the relationship between them (Wallen & Fraenkel, 2001). Consequently, the content analysis method is used to meet the abovementioned objectives by investigating the extent of the representation of the different cultures in the textbook, the forms of the various cultural aspects, and identifying the dominant culture(s). It is used to analyze the well-known cultural aspects of values, customs, traditions, music, sport, ethics, etc. This study employs the emic perspective through exploring textual culturally-bound data from within the assigned textbook. Moreover, essential and useful information can be drawn from the researcher's observation of a 4-year teaching experience of this course as well as from the informal discussions with the teachers assigned to the evaluation committee of the curricula and study plans.

It could be assumed that this textbook achieves the quality and validity standards as it is published by the famous international publisher, Oxford University Press. Moreover, it is approved by the National Commission for Academic Accreditation and Assessment (NCAAA) in Saudi Arabia to represent 'Reading Comprehension 1' to level-one students in English Department and other departments as a compulsory course.

H. Data Collection Procedure

This study depends on the analysis of the taken-for-granted cultural ideas and concepts represented in the texts and pictures. Therefore, the linguistic features are analyzed regarding their representation of cultural aspects. Namely, the unit of analysis is the explicit words and the implicit units that embed culture and its related themes such as music, sports, foreign food, movies, ethics, fashion, etiquette, and generally any aspect of lifestyle. Based on the literature, these cultural aspects are considered as checklist and criteria for the evaluation process. The in-use textbook, *Well Read 1*, is chosen for evaluation as the students have used it in the classroom on a large scale. Moreover, it is one of the critical channels for developing their cultural knowledge.

I. Data Analysis Procedure

For achieving the purpose of the study, the coding system is used in which the cultural ideas are categorized into words, phrases, clauses, sentence, themes, paragraphs, and whole text according to their mention in the chapters. With some hints to the frequency of the cultural aspects, the descriptive qualitative approach is employed in which the data are analyzed and discussed in the form of statements and sentences. Moreover, the textbook-evaluation process highlights the macro-features of the textbook regarding its design and layout, table of contents, and organization of units and sections. On the other hand, the frequently used model of culture proposed by Cortazzi and Jin (1999) and McKay (2000) (the Source culture, the Target culture, and the International Target culture) is taken into account. The different cultural aspects such as values, beliefs, customs, traditions, ways of dressing and eating, sports, the portrayal of other cultures, etc. are also investigated.

IV. DISCUSSION

A. The Layout of the Textbook

The investigated textbook consists of eight chapters covering different topics and themes from a wide range of genres such as the magazine, newspaper, Internet, and academic articles. Besides, various graphics of tables, charts, timelines, and illustrations are used. On the left-hand page of each chapter, many aspects are mentioned such as reading skills, vocabulary strategy, and graphics. The authors used brainstorming activity in which the students are encouraged to recall their background knowledge through questions before, within, and after each text in the form of filling the blanks, ticking, multiple choice questions, direct questions with short answers, giving synonyms and antonyms, completing answers, true/false, matching, definitions, parts of speech, and identifying the topic, main idea, and supporting details. The choice of such tasks and activities can be justified as a way to enable students to think critically, draw connections across ideas, and apply their prior knowledge and experiences. In other words, various activities are designed in every chapter such as getting started, active previewing, reading and recalling, understanding the text, reading skills, vocabulary strategies, discussing the issues, putting it on paper, and taking it online. Each idea has its objective in helping the students to practice reading skills, get new vocabulary, discover other cultures, develop students' writing skill and practice online research to discuss different cultural issues. Concerning the design and structure, it can be stated that the chapters and sections, i.e. the headings/subheadings, graphic organization, tables, proposed objectives, etc. are well-developed and well-organized.

B. Representation of the Different Cultures

This section highlights the presence of the different cultures in light of Cortazzi and Jin's (1999) model (source culture, target culture, and international target culture).

1. The Source Culture

Nelson (1994) argued that it is essential to recognize and reflect learners' source culture in language teaching because when we eliminate learners' cultural background, we are denying and devaluing their L1 and culture, and hence their identities. Similarly, Byram and Morgan (1994) indicated that learners cannot simply shake off their own culture and step into another as their culture is a part of themselves and created them as social beings.

Within the texts and passages of the book, there are only three items that refer to the students' source culture i.e. Islamic culture (Turkey, Mediterranean, and Morocco) such as the way of 'greeting' and the 'personal distance' in the Turkish culture and Mediterranean, and the dish of 'vegetarian tagine' from the Moroccan culture. The examples from Turkish culture are about the polite behavior, the way of greeting, and personal distance. These social and business etiquettes can be applied not only in Turkey but also in many other cultures. Similarly, the Moroccan dish 'vegetarian tagine' is famous especially in the African and European countries. In comparison with the target and international target cultures, it is noticed that the learners' source culture was given an imbalanced consideration and was relatively minimized. Specifically, a direct reference to the learners' source culture, i.e. Saudi culture is not found. If the university or the Ministry of Education designs such textbook, it is expected that a variety of topics from the learners' source culture will be portrayed, as it is clear in the *English for Saudi Arabia* textbook that is taught in Saudi public education. To this end, the inclusion of the students' source culture provides not only content that students are already familiar with, but also a means to develop their cultural consciousness. Learners are supposed to match up their culture to the target ones.

When we consider the textbook as a product, we can say that the authors have their justification in which the book is adhered to fit the publication policy, satisfy the readers, and meet the assigned objectives. Textbook writers may also encounter difficulty in covering all the cultures and subcultures in one textbook as no any culture is homogenous. More important, students themselves could not absorb and be aware of all the world cultures. In line with Han and Bae's (2005) study, it is difficult for textbook writers to include balanced information about the different cultural aspects in limited pages of textbooks. The study proposed that textbook writers should make more appropriate and up-to-date cultural choices before the textbook is written.

In fact, exposing global cultural aspects is healthy in which they let the students think and reflect the taken-for-granted elements of their source culture. Another point is that as the world has become a small 'global village', it can be said that what combines cultures is more than what keeps them separate. To put it differently, the global standards and good manners, starting with behaving politely and not ending with respecting others' beliefs and values, are common in most cultures. However, the course instructor also has an influential role in referring to the students' source culture and comparing it with others with the purpose of appreciation and better understanding.

2. *The Target and the International Target Cultures*

Textbooks written by native writers are likely to embrace different aspects of different target cultures. The target culture comprises English-speaking countries (America, England, Scotland, Wales, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, Jamaica, Ghana, South Africa, etc.). On the other hand, the international target culture includes all the countries where English is used as a lingua franca. Saluveer (2004) argued that "the easiest way to design a cultural syllabus is to compile a list of topics that are thought to be important for or of interest to students" (p. 22). Undoubtedly, understanding and being knowledgeable of a culture encompasses all its aspects of values, traditions, customs, food, movies and the use of technology, music, sport, ways of dressing and eating, ethics, etc. In this sense, the different cultural aspects that are exposed in the textbook are intensely discussed.

The Sociology of Food

Food is one of the central social themes of culture in which almost every culture has its types of food and ways of eating. Food also expresses a sense of identity and a means of retaining it. Besides, some food types are culture-bound in which what is eatable in one culture may be uneatable or banned in another.

Chapter one 'The Sociology of Food' mentions many types and styles of traditional and western dishes from different cultures and subcultures such as Florida (USA), Massachusetts (USA), California (USA), France, Ukraine, Taiwan, Puerto Rico, and Morocco. In this aspect, the target, the international target, and the source cultures are represented to varying degrees. It exhibits examples about the customs and traditions of eating food at schools and what these meals include. It also refers to the items that are included in the restaurant menus. This chapter helps readers to be aware of these differences and also sensitize them to the school and restaurant healthy food. Specifically, the term 'food' was mentioned 65 times in this textbook. To put it differently, diversity in food, its types and tastes, and the way of eating and sitting to eat are culture-bound and passed down from generation to another. Therefore, understanding the culture of food (what, when, how, how much and with whom to eat) is helpful for effective communication either at home or abroad.

Movies and Music

Movies and music are other cultural art themes that should be given careful thought. Watching movies and listening to music are also culture-bound. In this section, chapter 2 'Technology in Movies' and chapter 4 'The Culture of Music' are discussed together as they are interrelated. Chapter 2 is about movies and the use of technology and special effects in making films. It differentiates between real movies and the movies with special effects. It mentions some of the well-known movies such as *King Kong* (1933, 2005), *Jurassic Park*, *Alien*, *The Wolf Man*, *Titanic*, *The Matrix*, *Mission to Mars*, *The Mummy Returns*, *The Wizard of Oz*, etc.

In addition to their entertaining purpose, movies provide an invaluable source of authentic language. They expose audience (students) to real-life conversation and expressions used in 'real' situations outside the classroom. In this sense, students can go beyond the entertaining aim to develop their linguistic knowledge and have greater knowledge and awareness about other cultures. In the assigned textbook, the terms 'movie' and 'moviegoer' were mentioned 132 times.

Chapter 4 "The Culture of Music" includes different international kinds of music such as rock (the Beatles and the Rolling Stones), jazz and classical music, the local symphony orchestra, world music, hip-hop, rap, etc. It also refers to different kinds of musical instruments from different cultures such as guitar, violin, cellos, flutes, drums, and the giant earth harp. Supporting this, the terms 'music', 'musical', and 'musician' were mentioned 157 times in all chapters. These musical aspects are widely used and elicited from different cultures.

Sports Psychology

As people are active and sporty, there are many texts on weird and high-risk sports and adventures such as skydiving, mountain climbing, wrestling, paintball, etc. In this study, the terms 'sports' and 'sportsmen' were mentioned 122 times. They looked at the benefits of sports from a psychological perspective and claimed that sports that expose unusual behaviors qualify people to be adventurous, patient, confident, excited, calm in personality, and successful in life. "Risk takers are often more successful than non-risk-takers: Inventors, politicians, and CEOs—people who lead companies—are often risk-takers" (Blass et al., 2007, p. 48).

Global Community

Chapter 5 'Global Community' represents an environmental theme. It instills common good behaviors in the students' minds from the early childhood so as to sacrifice and work voluntarily in the team spirit for the benefit of themselves and the society as a whole. It reinforces some good traits like how to save the environment, be a genius and productive member in the community, and help others who are in crucial need. These are universal traits that all agreed upon in all cultures.

Another text 'A New College Course: What Motivates Altruism?' introduces good ethics and ways of behaving with others through cooperating and helping the poor, the needy and the homeless. It reflects that altruism is a typical value that is praised and approved by all communities. Giving an example from the target culture, professors and students from Chico State University (California) organized a college class at the university about altruism and the motivation behind it. They follow the targets, read books, and write papers. One student claimed, "I also learned that I can help others as a career".

Moreover, there is a fascinating image of patriotism and loyalty that is reflected by the student who said "I work for the community because the community helped me in the past" (Blass et al., 2007, p. 89). Another student said, "recognition for my work is not important" (p. 89). These attention-grabbing expressions sincerely reflect a true love for their society. It also cultivates altruism through helping others voluntarily without waiting for rewards or appreciation. People who sacrifice for helping others are "ordinary people doing special things". In this sense, the altruists convey a message to stimulate the students that altruism is not confined to a specific group of people, but rather anyone can practice it. Moreover, they encourage them to resemble great critical thinkers and philosophers such as Martin Luther King, Jr. and Emmanuel Kant (German philosopher) who knew the meaning of life and write about it. The authors also glorify the most influential people of the 20th century. They divided them into four groups: leaders and revolutionaries (e.g. Winston Churchill), builders and titans (e.g. Henry Ford), scientists and thinkers (e.g. Albert Einstein), and heroes and icons (e.g. Mother Teresa). Based on their symbolic value, these influential characters represent successful stories from the global community which is an evidence of multiculturalism. They are named and referred to as geniuses, and many approved good traits and values are attributed to them.

Business Etiquette

Etiquette is one of the important social themes, and each culture has its unique etiquette in business situations. This chapter exemplifies a set of accepted behaviors in business situations from the international target and source cultures (Australia, Brazil, South Korea, and Turkey) such as polite business behaviors, introducing people to each other, ways of greeting, using cell phones, eating dinner or lunch in a restaurant, gifts giving, exchanging business cards, using the names and titles, etc. Moreover, the authors refer to the cultural differences in making eye contact and maintaining personal distance.

Another text is about 'Job Interviewing across Cultures'. It sensitizes students to the generally-accepted worldviews that should be followed in job interviews such as dressing, the role of the interviewee, correct etiquette, the pace of the interview, relationships, and the value of educational credentials and experience. The value and importance of such rules differ from culture to another. It should be borne in mind that there are different ways of doing things and one's way is not the only good one. Therefore, being aware of such actions and etiquette is crucial for achieving business goals especially when applying for job vacancies.

Fashion Philosophy

The fashion industry is an integral part of the culture, and the two go together. Fashion influences individual lifestyles, and this can be seen clearly in the way people dress and follow the latest fashion trends. Fashion and dressing, in general, are a way of attracting and identifying people and their cultures as they express cultural identity. It also goes beyond dressing to the way we communicate, decorate our homes and offices, buy cars and mobiles, choose meals, sit, eat, and even spend holidays.

Ethics in Education

Ethics and morals are highly recommended and appreciated in all cultures. They should be applied in all aspects of our life. Specifically, this chapter provides significant lessons for the students to be aware of and promote their ethical thinking, especially in education. It deals with crucial ideas such as cheating, plagiarism, and cheating with technology. It also refers to the way of avoiding such illegal practices, i.e. citing sources. Cheating can happen not only at schools but beyond them as well. These malpractices are considered an unethical issue in education. They are cross-cultural and expected in different cultures. Hence, the ethical principles must be taught at schools and universities. As teachers are right ideals for their students, they have a moral obligation in encouraging the students to behave ethically, be aware that such misbehaviors are harmful, and that they have to be honest and follow the rules and the right ways.

Regarding 'cheating with technology', most of the educational institutions and businesses worldwide suffer from such malpractices. A possible explanation for this might be that technology is a two-edged weapon. Positively speaking, the technological revolution has democratized information and made it easy by one click to Google any topic or idea. Al-Sofi (2016) clarified that it "depends on the learners' motivation and their willingness to look at the shining educational side of these online means" (p. 94). It is apparent that high-tech devices (e.g., smart lenses, smart glasses, smart watches, and smart rings) are spread ubiquitously, and so much information can be stored on such devices.

On the contrary, these devices have transformed cheating to advanced ways and made it easier than before. Stopping such behaviors requires a joint responsibility to reach practical solutions. If used negatively, technology can create a 'copy and paste' generation. It also provides them with innovative tools for cheating either during study or exam.

This chapter directs students to the legal ways of searching and then acknowledging others' ideas through citing sources. These moral lessons have an essential effect on the students' minds. Hence, there should be an inner- and self-supervision in every step towards learning and search for the truth and facts. Students should be straightforward and stay away from such wrong behaviors. Policymakers, on the other hand, should come up with innovative strategies and effective plans to stop such practices. One of these procedures is the use of software that can detect plagiarism. Students can also be punished and dismissed from either the program or the institution at all.

Concerning the use of some political themes, the 'French revolution' and the word 'revolutionaries' were mentioned clearly in this textbook and they were taught openly to the students. Such themes could lead to the fact that students should be aware of the history of other countries as the world is continuously becoming more globalized. The inclusion of foreign names and famous people (filmmakers, special effects genius, critical thinkers and philosophers) is also another example that has a symbolic value and reflects the diversity of cultures.

To sum up, this culturally-oriented textbook is globally designed as it represents aspects from the international target, the target, and source cultures (North and South America, Australia, France, Japan, Brazil, Ukraine, China, South Korea, Taiwan, Turkey, Morocco, Mediterranean) to varying degrees. It is clear that the texts and passages are presented in a logical sequence starting with the food culture and ending with ethics in education. In accordance with Bahrami's (2015) and Chao's (2011) studies, the investigated textbook maximized the exposition of the diverse cultural elements from the target and international target cultures (food, music, ethics, sport, ethical values, fashion, etc.), and minimized the portrayal of the elements of the source culture. Hence it can be said that the dominant culture is the target and international target cultures despite the textbook writers are English native speakers.

Regarding the form of the different cultural aspects, the explicit and implicit representation of these aspects is manifested in the form of various genres such as online, magazine, academic and timeline articles. Hence, students can critically analyze these texts as part of literacy and, at the same time, experience the world and its cultures through such texts that are collected from different genres. In other words, the exposure of such cultural elements enables the students to be aware of not only linguistic knowledge but also of cultural knowledge that leads to language proficiency. Hence, it can be said that many of these cultural aspects can be recontextualized as we live in a 'global village' that shares most of the traits and qualities.

V. FINDINGS

Blass et al. (2007) asserted that the book includes "a wide range of authentic texts that are meant to engage students' (and teachers') interest" (p. iii). Taken together, the overall organization of the textbook and the themes included were satisfactory. The findings supported the assumption that the book under evaluation represents a wide range of cultural aspects from the target and international target cultures. Supporting Jamalvandi's (2013) study, the chosen textbook represented target culture (C2) more than source culture (C1) and other cultures. Additionally, the authors employed real situations for the reader (students) to be engaged in cultural themes and be put in a position to not only develop their reading skills (the main objective of the book) but to be critical and get knowledge about various cultural aspects as well.

Generally, it can be inferred that the authors have filled the gap and bridged the unrealized connection between learning/teaching language and culture. Undoubtedly, many of the texts include ethical values and behaviors that build the personality of the readers and are recommended and appreciated by many cultures. In other words, exposing students to authentic cultural materials and aspects (eating balanced meals, sports and good health, helping others, altruism, saving the environment, behaving well, avoiding cheating in all aspects of life, etc.) familiarize them with

appreciating the importance of culture for successful interaction in real-life situations. They are spread across the whole book in which each chapter covered a variety of cultural aspects (see Tables 1 & 2).

As already mentioned, this textbook is culturally-based due to several viewpoints. First, though the focus is on the target and international target cultures, the prescribed textbook is generally based on the multicultural approach in the sense that it embodies a wide variety of materials and features from different international target culture, target culture, and source culture. More particularly, it refers to aspects of native and international cultures (North and South America, France, Australia, Japan, Brazil, Ukraine, China, South Korea, Taiwan, etc.) and from the learners' home culture (Morocco, Turkey, Mediterranean), but with less consideration. Such conclusion confirms Pennycook's (1994) idea that the internationally published textbooks are never neutral and they mainly represent the western understandings of language, communication, and learning. In Saudi context, *English for Saudi Arabia* textbook used in middle and secondary schools appeared to be an EIL textbook on the surface. However, Saudi nationalism and Islamisation are "heavily endorsed in the book, making it incompatible with today's motives to utilise English for international communication" (Alshammari, 2015, p. 369). Based on this, textbook writers can localize certain cultural aspects by adopting the target language culture without neglecting local cultural values. To complement each other, therefore, there should be a match between the secondary (public) and higher education textbooks.

TABLE 1:
SUMMARY OF THE FREQUENCY OF THE CULTURAL ASPECTS MENTIONED IN THE SELECTED BOOK

Cultural words/terms	Frequency of reference
Culture	101
Music/musical/musician	157
Movie/moviegoer	132
Food	65
Revolution	4
Sport	122
Ethics	11
The total number of cultural items	592

TABLE 2:
AREAS OF THE INCLUDED CULTURAL ELEMENTS IN THE SELECTED TEXTBOOK

Areas of Cultural Elements	Cultural Elements
The Sociology of Food	School Lunches: main food, meals Restaurants Fare Food Inventions The History of the Restaurant
Technology in Movies	A Movie Classic: movies A Special Effects Genius Special Effects Statistics Secrets from FX Experts
Sports Psychology	Weird Sports Skydiving Sports Injuries Taking Risks in Sports: favorite sports
The Culture of Music	Favorite Music Earth Harp Hit Songs Hip-Hop Music
Global Community	A Young Environmentalist "Genius" Grants Making a Difference What Motivates Altruism?
Business Etiquette	Etiquette Intelligence Polite Business Behavior: greeting, introducing oneself, giving presents Too Close or Too Far? Interviewing for a Job: getting jobs
Fashion Philosophy	A Thai Fashion Designer The 80s Look Clothing Costs What Is Fashion?
Ethics in Education	What Is Cheating? Plagiarism Citing Sources Cheating with Technology

The results of this study are somehow inconsistent with the results of the previous studies due to many reasons. First, many of the prior accounts examined EFL textbooks assigned for public education at schools while this study analyzed a university textbook. Second, most of the school textbooks are 'localized' by non-native speakers of English and approved by Ministry of Education without balanced representation of the source, target, and international target cultures. In other words, locally designed EFL textbooks are mostly loaded with the learners' source culture (Cortazzi &

Jin, 1999). Third, some of the abovementioned studies were conducted in different contexts, other than the Saudi context.

Consequently, the imported textbooks written by native speakers are supposed to be culturally designed and balanced in representing different cultures. As English is used as an international language that is not confined to a particular country, Yasemin and Reyhan (2011) clarified that "a reasonably good balance between local, target and international target cultural elements in teaching materials is needed" (p. 157).

Based on the above-mentioned cultural aspects and themes, it can be said that intertextuality is deeply-rooted in the examined book as the texts and passages are interlinked and generally represent different cultural aspects. Specifically, the textbook under investigation does not impose specific cultural information on learners. Instead, learners are exposed to several adequate references such as food, sports, movies, music, ethics, etc. from a variety of cultures and cultural groups (French, China, Japan, Korea, Britain, USA, Turkey, Morocco, etc.). It is believed that these various types of cultural aspects and elements are directed towards international students especially that this textbook is printed by Oxford University Press, which mostly published globally-designed materials. Whatever the cultures incorporated in the prescribed textbook and in addition to the linguistic knowledge, the main aim is to enrich learners' awareness of the cultural differences that lead them to successful use of the language in different settings.

VI. CONCLUSIONS

As cited earlier, this study aimed to achieve the following objectives: to recognize the extent of the representation of the three cultures: source, target, and international target cultures in the English textbook, *Well Read 1*; to know the way the different cultural aspects are presented, and to ascertain the dominant culture(s) in the prescribed textbook.

For answering the first research question: *To what extent do the different cultures are represented in the examined textbook?*, it could be affirmed that there is a tendency towards multiculturalism in which there is an adequate coverage of real references, examples, and indications to cultural aspects from a variety of cultures and countries rather than from specific native cultures (American or British). More specifically, it is clear that the texts and passages in the examined textbook expose students to a range of cultural aspects of the target language. These elements were penetrated throughout the whole book in areas such as food, movies, sports, music, etiquette, fashion, business, ethics, etc. Generally speaking, these references and hints symbolize and acknowledge interculturality (North and South of America, France, Australia, Japan, Brazil, South Korea, Ukraine, China, Taiwan, Turkey, Morocco, Mediterranean) of the textbook in question. However, this study sheds light on the limited presence of the cultural elements of the students' first culture or the expanding cultures in general. It is noteworthy that textbooks are not the sole source of culture. Rather, cultural awareness could be upgraded through the Internet, the media, or even through human interaction especially in this global era. In this regard, Al-Sofi (2016) clarified that language and culture could "be acquired from other sources beyond the classroom boundaries; online communication tools are but one of them" (p. 99). This textbook tried to link language learning with cultural activities and behaviors outside the classroom.

Concerning the answer to the second question: *How are the various cultural aspects presented in the examined textbook?*, one could note that these cultural aspects are explicitly and implicitly exposed. The explicit elements are easily recognized through the cultural areas of food, movies, sports, music, etiquette, fashion, business, ethics, etc. Others are implicitly embodied through the recognition and analysis of the attached photos, pictures, and illustrations. Moreover, most of the texts can be classified as online, magazine, academic and timeline articles. These texts and passages are useful in showing the different aspects of cultures irrespective of race, ethnicity, religion, culture, and language. In other words, the voice of the authors is clear in trying to convince the audience to believe in cultural diversity. Rather than confining the students to one source, exposing them to different texts and passages from different sources is a healthy phenomenon.

Regarding the answer to the third research question: *What is the most dominant culture(s) in the examined textbook, i.e. C1, C2, C3?*, the investigated textbook maximized the exposition of the diverse cultural elements from the target and international target cultures and minimized the portrayal of the elements of the source culture. Hence, it can be said that the dominant culture is the target and international target cultures.

This study makes an original contribution to the existing accounts as cultural awareness is better acknowledged and highly recommended for raising cultural awareness for the time being. Specifically, it highlights the close relationship between language and culture and the crucial role of exposing learners to the different cultural aspects. It also sheds light on such evaluation and analysis for directing future researchers to such studies. It might provide food for thought for policymakers, curriculum planners, syllabus designers, teachers, and students to share the responsibility and reconsider the teaching/learning of culture, alongside language.

A. Limitations of the Study

As mentioned earlier, this study has a scope of one textbook from the *Well Read* series. It is noteworthy that the intent is not to generalize the findings as other Saudi universities assign other series for reading courses such as *Interactions (Reading) (Middle East Gold Edition)* by Hartmann and Kirn (2009), and *New Headway Plus* by John Soars and Liz Soars (2013). Taking account of the analysis of one textbook from this series could be considered a

limitation. Hence, future studies can broaden the analysis of such cultural aspects to include representative texts from the other books of *Well Read* series.

B. Recommendations of the Study

Based on the findings and supporting Ahmadi and Shah's (2014), Al-Hassan's (1992), Alshammari's (2015), and Fageeh's (2011) recommendations, such results should be translated into actions in the sense that English textbooks should be based on a balanced portrayal of different cultural aspects. Additionally and as cultures are dynamic, this textbook can also be updated regularly according to the international changes and students' needs. To keep students up-to-date, teachers can even play a pivotal role to integrate culture, as a fifth language skill, into the classroom and highlight its equal importance to other skills. On the part of the students, they can exploit every touch logging in the social networks and mass media for keeping in touch and raising their cultural awareness.

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Multilingual Education in China: Taking the Situation of Guizhou Minority Areas as an Example

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Abstract—Multilingual education has long been implemented and addressed in recent years in China, as a nation multi-ethnicities. The prominent ethnic, linguistic and cultural diversity make the situation of multilingual education in China complex. Therefore, it is necessary to provide an overview of the situation of multilingual education in China to first present the full status-quo situation to educators and researchers, to provide basis for relevant teaching practice and research and to pave the way for further in-depth research. The paper first provides an overview of the situation of Chinese multilingualism, and presents ethnic multilingual policies and practices in China in general, then particularly focuses on the practice of multilingual education in Guizhou minority areas.

Index Terms—multilingual education, multilingual policies, multilingual practices, China, Guizhou minority areas

I. INTRODUCTION

China is a multinational country with the total number of 56 nationalities, among which Han majority comprised of nearly 91.5% of the total population, and the rest are 55 officially-organized minority groups, constituting approximately 8.5 %, with a combined population around 114 million (2010 National Census). Residing in over 60% of the land, ethnic minority groups are hugely diverse in terms of history, culture and language.

To address the prominent ethnic, linguistic and cultural diversity, the central government of PRC has made a series of top-down policies and laws to legitimize and foster the multilingual education drawing on a political framework of Duoyuan Yiti (ethnic diversity within national unity) (Fei, 1989). The core under the perception of China as a state of Duoyuan Yiti is the stakeholders' belief that national unity and ethnic diversity are the foundation for facilitating to promote socioeconomic development regarding 56 ethnic groups and establish harmonious ethnic and social relationships.

The interrelationship between the centrality and diversity presents the complexity and dynamics of the overall context. The centrality of government as a unified ethnically nation makes ethnic minority groups ruled under the same laws and legislature as the Han majority and are constitutionally granted equal rights. One the one hand, Putonghua, the standard Chinese, are promoted throughout the country including minority-dominant communities, on the other hand, minority ethnic groups are granted by national constitution to use and maintain their languages, which paves the way for later bilingual and trilingual education in ethnic minority areas. The central and local governments have formulated and implemented Chinese – native language bilingual education policies in minority areas since the formation of the People's Republic of China. Since the turn of the century, language policies in education were designed for ethnic minority groups to foster trilingualism attributable to the spread of English. Sanyu Jiantong (mastery of three languages, i.e. the minority native language L1, Chinese as L2 and English as L3) has thus become the goal of language education in minority areas and Sanyu Jiaoyu (trilingual education) has expanded quickly (Feng & Adamson, 2015), which is beneficial to the development of ethnic minority education and language and an efficient approach to improve ethnic education and maintain and transmit ethnic minority culture.

II. MINORITY LANGUAGES IN CHINA

China is also a linguistically diverse nation for its multi-ethnicities. The ethnic minority groups, except for Hui and Man who speak Chinese now, all have their own home languages, with some having more than one. Thus, it is estimated that a total of more than 80 languages from 5 language families, i.e. Sino-Tibetan, Altaic, Austronesian, South Asian and Indo-European were spoken by indigenous minority groups. Sino-Tibetan includes Chinese, Tibeto-Burman, Miao-Yao, Zhuang-Dong; Altaic includes Turkic, Mongolian and Manchu-Tungusic languages; Austronesian includes dozens of languages of Gaoshan minority nationalities; South Asian includes Mon-khmer, Indo-European are mainly Russian and Tajik; and the family of Korean and Jin. The ethnic minorities mostly with big population, with a total number of 24, have their own traditional written scripts, sometimes more than one, amounting to a total of more than 33. (Gu & Luo 2003)

Zhou (2000) categorized minority languages into three types according to the history of their writing system and their use in education in minority regions. Type 1 communities have had their own functional writing system widely used before the founding of the PRC in 1949 and have continued to use the spoken and writing system in education up to now, including five ethnic minority groups of large population, i.e. Korean, Kazak, Mongolian, Tibetan and Uygur. Four of them, with the exception of Korean located in an autonomous prefecture in Jilin in the north-east, all inhabit in communities along China's borders. Type 2 communities had their own functional script in place before 1949 and only occasionally have bilingual education since 1949, including Dai, Jingpo, Lisu, Lahu, Miao, Naxi, Va and Yi minority groups residing mainly in the south-west of the country. The remaining 42 ethnic groups are Type 3 communities, which only had no fully functional or no pre-existing scripts before 1949 and scarcely or limitedly use their language in education.

Because China's ethnic minority groups mainly live together over large areas while some live in individual concentrated communities in small areas, the language use in China shows a variety of types, mainly including minority monolingual areas, minority language(s)-Chinese bilingual or multilingual areas and Chinese monolingual areas. According to the frequency of language use, bilingual or multilingual areas can be divided two kinds: the areas mainly using of Chinese and the areas mainly using of minority language(s).

III. MULTILINGUAL PRACTICES OF MINORITY PEOPLE

Under the political framework of Duoyuan Yiti, Chinese government has promulgated both the unified legislature and laws for both Han majority group and minority groups, and some laws and policies that specifically apply to minority groups to constitutionally mandate their equal rights (e.g. The Constitution..., 1982; The Law of ..., 1984; The Law of, 2000). A common point in all these documents legitimizes Putonghua, the standard Chinese language, throughout the country including minority-dominated communities, although they are also guaranteed constitutional rights to use and maintain their language.

Generally, the linguistic practices in minority communities can be divided into the following categories: (1) most members can speak minority home language, and only a small number of people can speak Chinese. They mainly live in the autonomous regions where there are a large number of concentrated population, such as Zang in Tibet, Mongolia in Inner Mongolian herding areas, Hmong in Leishan and Dong in Rongjiang of Guizhou, etc. In these areas, except for some cadres and educated young people, minority members cannot understand and speak Chinese as a result of their remote location, inconvenient transportation as well as underdeveloped economy. (2) Minority members mainly use their mother language to communicate, but most of them also speak Chinese. They mainly live in the relatively central towns or cities with Han people, and thus have been influenced by Han culture, such as Zhuang in Guangxi, Bouyei in Anlong. These communities usually have large population and concentrated residences. (3) Most minority members shift the communicative tool to Chinese, only a few old people can speak minority language. They mainly live dispersedly near towns and cities with convenient transportation, such as Man in Liaoning, and Qilao in Qinglong of Guizhou. (4) Some minority groups are multilinguals, who can speak their native language, Chinese and one or two other minority languages. They are usually minority groups with a small number of population and live in villages with the other large minority groups. This case can be found in Guizhou, such as Yao people in Liping, who can speak Chinese, Dong and Hmong. In addition, any relatively large ethnic minority group may speak several mutually unintelligible 'dialects', such as Tibetans. (Denwood, 1999; Feng and Adamson, 2015). Therefore, multilingual education is a special educational form that Chinese government implements in minority areas to address the multilingual need of minority groups. Since the 1950s, bilingual education was carried out to promote Chinese and ethnic minority languages. At the turn of the century, After English was introduced widely into the school curriculum, trilingual education or multilingual education was implemented and developed rapidly, accounting for a very important part in minority education of China.

IV. MODES OF MULTILINGUAL EDUCATION IN CHINA

In the PRC, as elsewhere in the world, the concept of multilingual education can be a complex and contested construct. In the simplest definition, it refers to the use of two or more languages for teaching and learning with the educational objectives of multilingualism and multiliteracy. In a narrow definition, literacy is developed and/or specific school subjects are taught through the medium of more than one language. In the minority areas of China, multilingual education, in a broader sense, includes the teaching and learning three languages as part of the curriculum within or out of formal school education. And in a narrow sense, it refers to the use of three different languages as the media of instruction to teach different content areas: for instance, the use of minority home language or standard Chinese, or both to teach most subjects and the use of ethnic minority language or/and Chinese or/and English to teach English. The multilingual education of the PRC, as Adamson and Feng (2009) observe, is to "foster trilingualism in ethnic minority areas with three goals: to enhance literacy, to assure internal stability and to allow knowledge transfer in order to strengthen the nation" (p. 9).

The approaches to the practices of multilingual education, although legislated at the national level, are different widely due to a number of geographical, economic, political and linguistic factors. Four distinct models are recognized

among various minority areas: the Accretive, Balanced, Transitional and Depreciative (Adamson & Feng, 2014; Feng & Adamson, 2015).

The Accretive model emphasizes strongly on the ethnic minority language. The ethnic minority language is most often functioned as the medium of instruction. Chinese and English are taught as school subjects. Minority language is stressed in the school environment as is shown by notices, school documents and the playground language. This model is mainly found in the language communities where their ethnic minority languages have strong vitality, such as IMAR, Yanbian Korean Autonomous Prefecture. It trends to accrete the competence of three languages. The proficiency of students' L1 is ensured and thus their ethnic identity is maintained, at the same time the competencies of L2 and L3 are complementary in these regions where resources and regional policies are favorable.

The Balanced model pays almost the same attention to ethnic minority language and Chinese. Minority language and Chinese are both addressed by using them as medium of instruction and supporting bilingual environment as manifested by Chinese and minority language notices on the wall, spoken interactions between the teachers and students. English is taught as subject in the curriculum and Chinese and minority languages are used to help students understand difficult points, according to students' language preference and teachers' nationalities. In the model, the ethnic language is encouraged and the needs of students to learn through their native language are supported. The model is often found in the mixed ethnic communities, displaying more ethnic diversity. For example, the ethnicity of the teachers and students are usually found to be half Han majority and half ethnic minority, such as some schools in Mongolia. This model is also likely to develop students' strong competence in L1 and L2 thus promote ethnic harmony, and improve performance in other school subjects, as well as L3 English.

There are two cases in Transitional model. The first one existed in some mixed communities, especially in towns and cities where ethnic minority groups are dominant, but they have great socioeconomic interactions with Han majority in Chinese. The medium of instruction in school is predominantly Chinese and the dominant minority language in the area is taught as subject in the curriculum to all students, regardless of their respective ethnicity and mother tongue. Second, in many remote villages where one minority language dominant and there are little opportunities to speak Chinese for students before school, minority language is used as the medium of instruction from Grade 1 to 3. Starting from Grade 3 or four, all subjects are taught in Chinese. Chinese is taught as a school subject and English is also taught as school subject most often beginning from Grade 3, with Chinese as medium of instruction. In this model, ethnic minority language is limited in the curriculum provision to the early stages of elementary school before transiting to is school dominant Chinese. This model trends to emphasize L1 and deem L2 just as a stepping stone, thus assimilate pupils into the mainstream, which is less effective to the mastery of three languages.

Depreciative model is the weak form of trilingual education. In schools that claim to be ethnic minority language school but do not use minority language as medium of instruction in reality or even not teach it as school subject. In such schools, bilingual education refers to the teaching of Chinese and English and the claiming of trilingual just take the ethnicity of students into consideration. These schools are usually found in the language communities where the vitality of ethnic minority language is relatively weak. The outcome of this model is the loss of students' L1, thus their ethnic identity.

In summary, four models can be arranged in a continuum, moving from the predominance of the ethnic minority language at one end to the predominance of Chinese at the other. English is taught in all these models although the provision and resources and thus quality are various in schools in different regions. The medium of instruction in English teaching in minority areas also aligns with the line of the continuum. Each model is formed in a complex ecology shaped by geographical, demographical, linguistic, pedagogical, historical, economic and political factors. The first two models are found in Type 1 in most areas of 1 and Type 2 community where there are economic stability and policy supports, which are likely to produce additive trilingualism. The last two models are commonly found in Type 2 and Type 3 where the dominant minority groups have considerable interaction with Han and the other ethnic groups and the maintenance of their languages receive little political commitment, which may result in subtractive trilingualism.

V. THE STATUS QUO OF MULTILINGUAL EDUCATION IN CHINA

As mentioned above, languages in multilingual education have been treated differently under the influence of political ideologies and pragmatism, as reflected in education policies. Standard Mandarin are emphasized all the time since the 1950s. The treatment of minority languages that have experienced support and suppression at the different stages of nation-building, now are strongly promoted under the political ideology of 'multi-culture' and the 'the overseas publicity of Chinese culture'. At the beginning of 2000s, English is encouraged from upper primary school. These three language policy strands have arisen differently, resulting in the imbalance in the development of trilingual education across the country. Chinese is predominant in education throughout the country including minority-dominated areas. English is gaining increasingly important status in recent times under the pressure of globalization. The status of minority languages and the state policies varies from regions due to geographical, demographical, historical, socio-cultural and political factors.

Although it would be impossible to give a full description of multilingual education in all the ethnic minority groups due to the vast differences in education across regions, it is indisputable that education of any type in most minority areas is disadvantaged because most inhabit in remote, rural, desert or mountainous areas. According to the statistics,

one third of poverty-stricken counties are found in the west China. Schools in most of these regions, therefore, lack basic resources (Yang, 2005). Without sufficient teaching facilities and qualified teachers, minority students usually perform poorer than their Han majority counterparts (Hu, 2007; Jiang et al., 2007; Tsung, 2009). Many minority pupils cannot achieve age-appropriate proficiency either in their native language or L2 (Chinese). Their L3 (English) learning, contrary to the supportive hypothesis from some European model (Cenoz, 2003; Clyne et al., 2004), have various cognitive, cultural and psychological problems (Adamson, Feng 2014).

It is worth noting that some minority groups of Type 1 communities in China's north boast a better performance in trilingual education than those in China's west. In cases such as Koreans, students can develop trilingual competence and have strong identification with trilingual education for all three languages can be linguistic capitals in their social life, economic development and personal prospect. Therefore, they are empowered by developing trilingual competence and their economy, and confidently claiming their identity rather than being assimilated into mainstream society (Feng & Adamson, 2015).

As previously stated, the forces of globalization accelerate the shift from traditional bilingualism to trilingualism in education of indigenous minority regions. The PRC has promulgated language policies (Ministry of Education, 2001 a, b, c) in education to promote English language education at all levels throughout the country. English is now commonly taught as a school subject in ethnic minority regions, and becomes a major course usually starting from Grade three. However, there is still no specific policies and curriculum standards for foreign language education of minority regions. The English language education in minority regions, therefore, can be only implemented by 'the English curriculum standards of nine-year compulsory education', which is designed for general English education in China and does not certainly suit for English education in minority regions (Zeng, 2010). In addition, teaching material, pedagogy and other educational means in present English education of minority regions do not take minority students' linguistic, cognitive and psychological factors into consideration, proved to benefit little to minority students. Therefore, it is essential to seek suitable pedagogy and build a complete system of minority trilingual education.

VI. MULTILINGUAL EDUCATION IN DONG MINORITY AREA OF GUIZHOU

Dong minority group belong to Type 3 community according to Zhou (2000), which only has spoken language and no pre-existing written scripts before 1949. They are mainly distributed to the mountainous west of China, and more than half of them reside in Guizhou, one of the poorest of all the Chinese provinces. The language of education in elementary school is Chinese of both oral and script forms. In most towns and cities, ethnic minority groups have sufficient interaction with Han majority and other ethnic groups. Schools are referred as minority schools in terms of the ethnicity of students. Most students have fully developed oral proficiency in Chinese before school, all subjects are taught in Chinese, minority language is seldom used and taught in schools.

But in many villages, most students are from monolingual minority families and non-proficient in both spoken and written form of Chinese before schooling. They must learn to speak some kind of Chinese and read and write Hanzi (Chinese characters) as well as the sound representation script of Hanyu Pinyin, through which students learn how to pronounce Chinese Hanzi (Finifrock & Schilken, 2015). In most cases, both students' mother language and Chinese cannot develop well. In some rural primary schools, teachers and students share a minority language, teachers often try to help students learn the content of subjects and grasp school language by using minority language unsystematically in the classroom. Teachers view that the use of minority language is deleterious to the learning of the pronunciation of standard Chinese thus prevent them from performing satisfactorily in the comparative examinations in the area. As the proficiency of students' Chinese progress, less mother tongue supports are provided. In some small roadside towns, teachers use varieties of or no minority languages, students have to study through local dialects which they don't speak at home and rarely speak in their village. In recent times, an increasingly large members of fully qualified teachers from other ethnicities are employed and ported, thus teachers cannot even provide students little L1 supports, leaving students have to study in an unfamiliar language.

The types of trilingual education in Dong minority areas can be defined as the last two models, i.e. the Transitional and Depreciative models (Liu & Shan, 2016). Chinese is predominantly the language of education. Students need to access to all facets of academia through Chinese. Not only the medium of instruction, but also the materials and methods of instruction are all designed to teach students whose mother tongue is Chinese. The minority students' mother tongue is merely used until sufficient Chinese have been input to students as to allow teachers stop using their L1 and make further progress in teaching. Without systematic L1 supports, minority students with a low or middle achievement range consequently develop as limited bilingual mono-literate students in L2 (Finifrock & Schilken, 2015). Moreover, it is difficult to encourage the use of L1 in the classroom, for educational officials, teachers and students in the communities doubt that the use of L1 can truly be beneficial to students' educational performance, influenced by the notion that students' mother tongue will hinder the mastery of Chinese and thus the educational advancement.

When Chinese is valued as power, control and success in education (Zhou, 2001), students fails to acquire an effective knowledge of Chinese would lose the motivation for learning. Therefore, they either quit school or simply stay with tedious slowness through school life, waiting for the time when they complete school and going to work in factories in coastal areas. On the other hand, students with high motivation and can success in schooling would be prolonged absent from home. The lack of initiation of their own culture may result in some kind of estrangement and in

the long term language loss (Finifrock & Schilken, 2015). In both cases, the result is the reduction of the use of students' mother tongue, thus few students developed into balanced bilinguals, irrespective of their Chinese ability or consequential educational success.

The provision and quality of English teachers in Guizhou Dong minority education system differ at various levels of schools (Finifrock & Schilken, 2015; Liu & Shan, 2016). Primary schools are less staffed with less qualified teachers than junior school, which are staffed less qualified teachers than senior schools, because English become more important in the examinations at higher levels of the educational system. This correspondently indicates that there are more sufficient and qualified English teachers at higher levels of schools. Some primary schools in towns and villages lack or no professional English teachers. This situation will lead to negative impact on English education by exposing new English learners to teachers who have less English ability and inappropriate language use. Students in turn, would develop inferior English communication habits, poor pronunciation and literacy competence and lack the confidence of learning English. As they move to junior school, their teachers usually have more English language ability, find that it is difficult to correct the habitual errors developed by previous years of lower instruction. The situation is worse when they move to higher educational system, where teachers with most English language knowledge and communicative capabilities are concentrated. The teachers comment that most students are not prepared for high level English study.

The ethnicities of English teachers are mainly Miao and Dong ethnic minority in rural areas of Guizhou. But the percentage of Dong minority teachers and those who can speak Dong ethnic language is relatively low as a result the mixed inhabitant of Dong ethnic groups with the other ethnic groups. Similarly, students in the classroom are often of mixed ethnicities. Therefore, minority language is rarely used in English teaching.

VII. CONCLUSION

To have a full understanding of multilingual education in China, it is necessary to expand the research scope in any specific minority area and from wider research perspective, such as from the fields of applied linguistic, sociolinguistic and multilingualism. To understand the shortages and problems existing in multilingual education in China, more deepen research are needed understand diverse elements of multilinguals' learning in terms of their cognition, social context and access of language resources. Based on it, curriculum is further developed to meet the needs of multicultural learners in the 21st century. It is argued that the study of the status quo of multilingual education can make a great contribution to the design of more relevant language policies, teaching practices, learning resources.

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English Vocabulary Size as a Predictor of TOEIC Listening and Reading Achievement among EFL Students in Taiwan

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Abstract—This paper investigates the relationship between vocabulary size and performance on the reading and listening portions of the Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC). The participants were 973 English as a foreign language (EFL) learners from a technical college who had studied English for at least six years. The learners' TOEIC listening and reading scores were found to be strongly associated with their receptive vocabulary size with no gender differences. These results indicate that vocabulary size could have a statistically significant effect on TOEIC listening and reading scores, reinforcing the value of vocabulary size for English proficiency. Additionally, English vocabulary size and the prediction of proficiency in the TOEIC listening and reading sections reached statistical significance. These findings demonstrate the importance of receptive vocabulary for EFL learners. Outcomes from the study have implications for EFL learners and teachers as well as future research.

Index Terms—English vocabulary size, TOEIC listening and reading, English proficiency, EFL learners

I. INTRODUCTION

The vocabulary (lexicon) of any language, regardless of whether it is spoken or signed, entails more than just a list of the dictions (phonology) and lexical semantics of the words. Vocabulary also involves morphological as well as syntactic information (Webb & Chang, 2012). Morphological information is made up of the linguistic category of a word, the declension class of nouns, the gender, and the conjugation category of verbs as well as any indiscretions of form. The syntactic information includes the contexts in which a word characteristically occurs (Sarani & Kafipour, 2008). This study investigated the correlation between English as a foreign language (EFL) learners' vocabulary size (VS) and their performance on the Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC) listening and reading sections. VS here refers to the receptive words that an EFL learner can recognize (Nation, 2015).

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. VS Tests

The sampling of a word for the items involves representing the various frequency levels at which it occurs in the English language with a bias at any given frequency level. The frequency levels are basically based on the word families within the British National Corpus (McLean, Hogg, & Kramer, 2014). Because the major purpose of the test is to measure total VS, the test should measure the frequency levels beyond the most likely VS (Nation, 2005), but only a small number of items can be selected from each vocabulary level. The most famous VS levels were developed by Paul Nation, who conducted a vast amount of research based on the British National Corpus word family lists during sampling and obtained good reliability and validity for different versions of vocabulary level tests (Nation & Beglar, 2007). However, the test does not actually measure how well each level is understood or known (Nation, 2005) because there are not enough items at each level. In other words, it is expected that the total scores will decrease for the rest of the levels, as the test is what matters (Nation, 2005).

Vocabulary in relation to a language includes single items and phrases of several words that communicate a particular meaning. VS is the number of words that a language learner has in his mental lexicon. According to Webb's (2005) analysis, 78% of frequently used words (2000) are headwords (base words) of English, and university words, technical words, and the remainder constitutes 8%, 3%, and 2%, respectively. He further explains that all learners must know at least 2000 to 3000 words to be effective in speaking and understanding English (Webb, 2005). VS testing is the sum of all interrelated standby knowledge of collation and word meanings in written form (Nation & Beglar, 2007). A VS test measures the VS of both first-language and second-language learners mostly in written vocabulary (Webb & Chang, 2012). That is, the test measures their knowledge of written word forms, their meaning connection, and their concept meaning (Shrum & Glisan, 2015). A VS test is primarily a test of decontextualized knowledge of the written vocabulary.

B. Importance of Vocabulary in EFL Learning

Vocabulary is a key to communication. The main purpose of studying a foreign language is to be able to communicate with others in the target language (Şener, 2003). Schmitt (2012) and Powers, Yu, and Yan (2013) assert that those who have little or no interest in mastering the vocabulary are likely to fail to master the communication fundamentals of a foreign language. Vocabulary represents most of the skills necessary to teach and learn a foreign language at the level needed to read, watch a movie, or write a note to a friend (Liao, Qu, & Morgan, 2010). Meaning is the basis for developing all other writing and reading skills (Webb, 2008). A good example relates to spelling, listening, speaking, reading, writing and even punctuation (Mukoroli, 2011). Vocabulary is about more than just learning a foreign language and grammar; it also aids the development of knowledge (Sarani & Kafipour, 2008).

The more words a learner knows, the better his or her chance of learning. Vocabulary is learned through concise study as well as incidental learning through listening and reading. In terms of concise learning, learning is possible only if the amount of unknown words remains low (Nation, 2014). The implication is that the learner must have enough vocabulary to be in a fundamental position to learn further new words in the format in which they appear. Therefore, learners with less vocabulary are at a clear disadvantage, whereas learners with more words will be able to use the ones they know and learn even more (Şener, 2003). Although it is possible to convey meaning through body language without words, and EFL learners recognize that nonverbal communication is part of language learning, they must acknowledge the irreplaceable importance of acquiring vocabulary. For most students, the main reason for an inability to communicate is a lack of vocabulary (McCardle, Kapinus, & Chhabra, 2008). The more words learners obtain or learn, the more easily they can recall and use them (Wu, 2005).

Language learners often recognize the importance of vocabulary to their language learning (Bozorgian, 2012). Vocabulary is a core aspect of English-language learning. There is no doubt that without sufficient vocabulary, language learners cannot understand other learning materials, express themselves or describe their own ideas despite the possibility of nonverbal communication. In other words, without vocabulary, nothing can be conveyed. As language learners gain and develop greater fluency and improve their ability in English, it becomes easier for them to acquire personal vocabulary strategies (Shrum & Glisan, 2009). A learning vocabulary greatly helps language learners master and perfect their English skills (Çelik & Toptaş, 2010).

Second-language acquisition depends greatly on the development of a strong vocabulary (Alqahtani, 2015). Most researchers have focused on the need for language learners to optimize their vocabulary knowledge (Nation & Beglar, 2007). Vocabulary knowledge is important in learning a foreign language. However, although learners know the usefulness of words, they may not know that VS can help them successfully learn vocabulary (Sarani & Kafipour, 2008).

C. TOEIC Listening and Reading Sections

The TOEIC tests the ability to understand work-related conversations, writing and instructions in written and spoken English. No speaking is involved in the TOEIC listening and reading portions. In the listening section, test takers are required to answer questions in response to a variety of statements. The listening section consists of 100 questions to be answered in 45 minutes. The reading section, which tests how well the test taker understands written English, consists of 100 multiple-choice questions and lasts 75 minutes. Each test taker receives a score on a scale ranging from 5 to 495 with an augmentation of 5 points (Powers, Yu, & Yan, 2013). The TOEIC is specifically intended to examine the ability to apply and use English in practical life situations. The test design ensures that the scores can be accurately compared among individuals worldwide (Liao, Qu, & Morgan, 2010). The TOEIC has become one of the most popular comprehensive assessments in the world (Bozorgian, 2012); more specifically, it is designed to measure English skills in an international working environment (Chujo & Oghigian, 2009).

D. Related Studies

A vast majority of the research on the correlation between VS, both in breadth and depth, and English proficiency among EFL learners unanimously indicates that the former is positively correlated with the latter. Most of the variance in the results reported in the existing literature concerns the significance of the correlation, the degree to which VS promotes English proficiency, the elements of English proficiency (speaking, reading, listening, and writing) on which VS has the greatest and/or most significant effect, and the specific context in which the researchers conducted their studies (test scores, learning strategies, lexical coverage, etc.). Generally, the studies indicate, to varying degrees, that VS is positively correlated with TOEIC scores, which measure proficiency in listening and reading comprehension and in speaking and writing (Kanzaki, 2010, 2015; Taguchi, 2015). These results reveal that as EFL learners' vocabularies increase, they score higher on proficiency tests. As one might assume, reading comprehension is the skill most affected by VS, since it is the context in which vocabulary is most often taught and learned (Kanzaki, 2010, 2015). While researchers agree that VS is positively correlated with speaking and listening proficiency, the correlation tends to vary in significance and is consistently less significant than the correlation between VS and reading comprehension (Kanzaki, 2010, 2015; Koizumi & In'nami, 2013; Taguchi, 2015).

English proficiency tests, such as the TOEIC and the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL), provide the most effective way to examine the relationship between VS and English proficiency for three reasons: (1) these tests have proven reliability and validity, (2) their results are categorized by each element of language proficiency, and (3) they are the most commonly used measures of English proficiency. In administering the Vocabulary Levels Test (VLT)

and a TOEIC practice test among Japanese students, Kanzaki (2010) found that performance on the reading section of the TOEIC was correlated with performance on the vocabulary test at 0.76 and with performance on the listening section at 0.39, with the averages demonstrating a “moderate correlation” (p. 748). It is important to note that the correlation between reading comprehension and VS was dramatically more significant than that between listening and vocabulary, which Kanzaki attributes to the absence of a speech-based element in the vocabulary test. In a more comprehensive follow-up study, Kanzaki (2015) compared performance on the reading, listening and speaking sections of the TOEIC with the VLT and the Vocabulary Size Test (VST). Kanzaki again found that among the three sections, reading comprehension was most significantly correlated with performance on the VLT at 0.69 and with performance on the VST at 0.61. Kanzaki also found that the scores across all three sections were much more significantly correlated with the VLT than with the VST. Listening scores were more significantly correlated with the VLT than in the previous study at 0.49 and correlated poorly with the VST at 0.39. Performance on the speaking section correlated moderately and poorly with the VLT and VST at 0.58 and 0.33, respectively. In addition, Taguchi investigated a small sample of Japanese EFL learners and found that VS correlated with reading and listening scores at 0.535 and 0.497, respectively. These results indicate the least significant correlation between reading scores and VS. Overall, these trends suggest that VS tends to correlate strongly with reading comprehension scores, but correlations between VS and speaking and listening tend to have little significance, approaching moderate significance among Japanese EFL learners.

As the most statistically significant, the correlation between VS and reading comprehension has been more thoroughly and independently studied, using a variety of other measures. In addition to reading scores from the TOEIC, Sieh (2016) measured the relationship between VS and the phonological awareness of 41 EFL university students in Taiwan, assessing the participants’ propensity for elision, blending words, and phoneme reversal. Sieh confirmed a strong correlation between VS and TOEIC reading scores of Chinese EFL learners and—though not the study’s core focus—also found a moderate correlation between VS and the phonological awareness measures. Since the study also indicated a correlation between phonological awareness and reading comprehension among the whole sample, these results indicate a correlation between VS and phonological awareness that represents more advanced reading comprehension skills. Using an adaptation of the Exercise and Elderly—Circuit Training, Güngör and Yaylı (2016) confirmed a strong correlation between VS and reading comprehension that also indicated a basic linear correlation between vocabulary coverage and reading comprehension among 178 Turkish university EFL students. Using the reading comprehension section of English Proficiency Test of the International Islamic University, Malaysia, Ibrahim, Sarudin, and Muhamad (2016) found a positive, upper-moderate correlation between VLT scores and reading comprehension among Malaysian EFL learners. All these results demonstrate that across several different measures of reading comprehension and several different first languages, VS—breadth and depth—consistently correlates at least upper moderately with reading comprehension in a way that is statistically significant.

Despite the need to clarify variances in the results reported in the existing literature for the correlation between VS and listening skills, very few studies have examined the relationship in isolation. As previously mentioned, Kanzaki (2010, 2015) compared the relationship between the two to the relationship between VS and reading comprehension and the relationship between VS, reading comprehension, and speaking skills to find that listening skills had the weakest correlation with VLT scores and an even weaker correlation with VST scores. However, using a different methodology and focusing exclusively on listening skills, Wang (2015) obtained much different results. Comparing the performance of 120 non-English-major students in a medical university on the VLT and VST to their performance on the College English Test 4 (CET4), a Chinese national assessment of English proficiency, Wang found that vocabulary breadth and especially depth had a significant influence on listening comprehension. Wang also found a positive correlation between the influence of vocabulary breadth on listening scores and the proficiency of the participants. These results suggest a more strongly significant relationship between VS and listening skills than any other study discussed thus far. Moreover, following the same trend, Sieh’s (2016) study demonstrated more significant results among more advanced university students in Taiwan.

As with listening skills, little research has focused exclusively on the relationship between VS and speaking skills. Kanzaki (2015) found that speaking skills were moderately correlated with VLT scores and poorly correlated with VST scores. Once again, using different methodologies and different assessments, at least one study revealed a stronger relationship. Koizumi and In’nami (2013) conducted two studies, the first of which examined the relationship between vocabulary breadth and depth and speaking proficiency and the second of which introduced vocabulary speed. In the first study, using original depth tests that assessed the participants’ propensity for derivation, antonyms, and collocation, a breadth test adapted from the JACET8000 to measure VS, and an original test requiring participants to produce “real-time monologues” to measure speaking proficiency, they found that VS substantially predicted high speaking proficiency scores at 32-44%. The second study, using the same JACET8000 test, a Lexical Organization Test (LOT), and a Lexical Access Time Test (LEXATT) to measure VS and the Versant English Test to measure speaking proficiency, indicated an even stronger predictor at 84%. While there is no method to convert and compare these results to those of the other studies discussed here, with respect to their own methodology, these results demonstrated a much stronger relationship between vocabulary and speaking skills. Koizumi and In’nami also indicated that speaking skills can be most substantially predicted by vocabulary breadth, while other studies found that reading and listening skills

were more strongly correlated with vocabulary depth (Kanzaki, 2015). However, given the experimental nature of the study, Koizumi and In'nami (2013) noted that their results may potentially be restricted to the design of the study.

Numerous studies have also been conducted on the relationship of lexical or vocabulary coverage to performance on English proficiency tests. Coverage, which refers to the percentage of words in a given text that the reader and listener can understand, is a specific application of reading comprehension, in this case to the language used on an English proficiency test (Webb & Paribakht, 2015). Chujo and Oghigian (2009) found that learners would need to know 4,000 words to understand and therefore perform well on a TOEIC test and 4,500 to understand and perform well on a TOEFL test. Furthermore, Webb and Paribakht (2015) found that the required lexical coverage of some English proficiency tests is based on texts that actually have vastly different lexical profiles, including the use of proper nouns, and different tests that measure proficiency in the same ways can have different lexical profiles. While previous findings concerning the relationship between VS and English proficiency extend their implications practically, these studies afford insight into the specific ways in which VS affects proficiency and present concerns that require consideration for further research.

E. Statement of the Problem

Vocabulary has received much attention in foreign language teaching as well as learning. Morris and Cobb (2004) found that vocabulary profiles have important potential as predictors of academic performance among learners of English as a second language. Zareva, Schwanenflugel, and Nikolova (2005) also maintains a positive relationship between second-language learners' VS and their proficiency. Moreover, VS was found to be strongly associated with English abilities, especially in reading and writing (Hilton, 2008).

Recently, a large number of academic institutions have adopted the TOEIC as one of the measures of students' English proficiency, and many universities use the TOEIC as the English graduation threshold as a result of pressure from the Taiwan Ministry of Education (Nichols, 2016). Moreover, many business enterprises refer to TOEIC scores as an important reference on the résumé of job candidates. In response to government, academic and industrial demands for the TOEIC, the test was administered to nearly 40 thousand Chinese test takers in 2016 (ETS TOEIC Taiwan Branch, 2017). However, some have criticized (Nichols, 2016; Templer, 2004) the cost and time-consuming nature of official TOEIC administration for both academic institutions and English learners who wish to estimate English proficiency.

Despite the large number of articles devoted to VS in EFL, few studies have discussed the relationship between VS and the TOEIC, especially whether VS could act as a predictor for TOEIC scores. Although VS has received much recent attention, Meara and Jones (1988), Gu and Johnson (1996), Gu (2002), Morris and Cobb (2004), and de Souza and Soares-Silva (2015) argued against using VS as an indicator and urged further research. Most studies conducted in Taiwan technical colleges have focused separately on VS and TOEIC performance, but it is important to know whether there is any relationship between English VS and TOEIC. Little research has focused specifically on the correlation between VS and proficiency among EFL learners in Taiwan. Therefore, this study intends to answer the following questions.

How does English VS correlate with TOEIC listening and reading performance? Does English VS predict TOEIC listening and reading performance for technical college students in Taiwan?

III. THE STUDY

A. Research Questions

The purpose of the study was to investigate the relationship between English VS and performance on the TOEIC listening and reading sections. Specifically, the following questions were addressed:

- (a) How does English VS correlate with TOEIC listening and reading performance?
- (b) How does VS affect performance on the TOEIC listening and reading sections?

B. Participants

The sample consisted of 973 first-year technical college students from ten non-English-related majors in a private college in central Taiwan. The students were all enrolled in the freshman English course in the 2016 academic year. The participants' ages ranged from 17 to 19; 38% (37.5%) were males, and 62% (61.5%) were females. All the participants had undergone at least six years of formal English education in junior and senior schools before entering the university. Therefore, all the participants had experienced a similar English curriculum prior to the university.

C. Instruments

Two instruments were used in this study: one measured English VS levels, and the other measured proficiency in terms of listening and reading.

1) TOEIC

The TOEIC is a paper-and-pencil test designed to estimate the reading, listening, speaking, and writing skills needed in a workplace. When the TOEIC speaking and writing portions are taken together with the TOEIC listening and reading portions, the test can achieve an accurate measure of proficiency in all four English-language skills. Since

speaking and writing skills are advanced English skills that are not required by school administrations, this study focused on the listening and reading parts of the TOEIC. Therefore, the TOEIC score is defined as the TOEIC listening and reading scores in this study. For the listening section, test takers are required to answer 100 questions in response to a variety of statements. The time given to answer the questions is 45 minutes. The reading section, which assesses the test taker's understanding of written English (Webb & Chang, 2012), consists of 100 multiple-choice questions and lasts 75 minutes. For the reading section, each test taker is awarded a score on a scale ranging from 5 to 495 with an augmentation of 5 points (Choi, 2008). All the participants were required to take the formal TOEIC listening and reading sections once during their freshman year.

2) VST

The VLT, first established by Paul Nation in 1983, has been revised several times through continued studies (Nation, 1983, 1990, 2001; Schmitt, Schmitt, & Clapham, 2001). After the original VLT had been used for 20 years, Nation and Beglar (2007) presented the VST for divergent purposes in which the VLS was designed to evaluate overall VS, while the VLT focused on estimating learners' vocabulary levels. Despite the minute differences in their design purposes, both tests were based on frequency levels and the receptive knowledge of the vocabulary.

To measure participants' VS, or how many words the subjects perceived in the width of English vocabulary, a vocabulary test was utilized. A VST was designed by Nation and Beglar (2007) that contains 100 items to estimate the total receptive VS for both native and non-native speakers by dividing learners' test results into 100 to obtain their total VS. The VST acquired a Cronbach alpha of 0.963 on all levels in Akbarian's (2010) study. The VST is available in multiple languages to reduce the challenge and time demands of the monolingual version (Le Thi Cam Nguyen & Nation, 2011). To eliminate participants' language barriers in recognizing the words and to reduce testing time, the VST Chinese version of 1000 to 5000 words was used for the study. Ten words accompany each example sentence with four choices of definitions in the Chinese edition. A VST usually takes 40-60 minutes to complete. To ensure the validity of the test, levels 1000 to 5000 (50 points) were chosen from the VST to avoid meaningless guessing since the majority of the students enrolled in the selected college were in the beginning to intermediate levels of English proficiency based on their college entrance grade level, which was based on a norm-referenced procedure. Examples of questions from the first 1000 are as follows.

First 1000

1. see: They see it.
 - a. 切
 - b. 等待
 - c. 看
 - d. 開始
2. time: They have a lot of time.
 - a. 錢
 - b. 食物
 - c. 時間
 - d. 朋友

D. Procedure

The participants took the VST in September 2015, the beginning of their first semester in college, to provide an estimation of their English VS. For the VST, they were instructed to read the target words and the example sentences and then the four Chinese definitions. The participants had to choose the correct definition from the four possible choices for 50 questions in 40 minutes (5 levels). The cutoff point for mastering each level in the VST was 24/30. The participants were requested to take one formal listening and reading TOEIC before the end of their second semester. The participants could not take the VST and TOEIC simultaneously because the formal TOEIC is administered only once in a month in central Taiwan, usually on weekends.

Data collection from the VST was completed at the end of September 2015, and scores for the TOEIC listening and reading sections were gathered from October 2015 to May 2016. Linear regression analysis was applied to investigate the predictive power of VS (independent variable) at different TOEIC levels (dependent variable). All the data were analyzed using SPSS 18.0, and the alpha significance level was preset at $p < 0.05$ for statistical analyses.

IV. RESULTS

A. How Does English VS Correlate with TOEIC Listening and Reading Performance?

To answer research question one, two dimensions were considered: the participants' overall performance on the VST and the participants' TOEIC listening and reading scores. The participants' performance on the VST and TOEIC is reported in Table I.

TABLE I.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE VST AND TOEIC

Variable	N	Lowest	Highest	Ave	Sd
Vocabulary size	973	600	4,400	2,016.86	581.37
TOEIC total scores	973	150	815	296.36	94.06

1) Descriptive Statistics of the VST and TOEIC

A total of 973 students participated in this study. Thirty-eight percent were male, and approximately 62% were female. The participants' performance on the VST and TOEIC was provided with a general profile of their achievements, as presented in Table II. The VST ranges from a minimum of 600 to approximately 4400 words. The TOEIC listening and reading scores range from the lowest, 150, to the highest, 815.

An independent sample t-test and one-way ANOVA were used to explore the gender differences in the VST and TOEIC. If the one-way ANOVA of the *F* test was statistically significant, the Scheff method should be applied for further comparison. As shown in Table II, gender differences in the t-test of the VST and TOEIC were not statistically significant ($p > 0.05$), indicating that there are no differences between the male and female participants in VS or in the scores obtained in the TOEIC listening and reading sections.

TABLE II.
GENDER DIFFERENCES IN THE VST AND TOEIC

Variable	Gender	N	Ave	Sd	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i> value
Vocabulary size	Male	365	1970.69	532.20	-1.68	0.094
	Female	598	2034.78	600.44		
TOEIC	Male	365	289.05	80.35	-1.73	0.085
	Female	598	299.11	98.64		

* $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.001$

The Pearson correlations between variables of this study are presented in Tables III to VI. Statistical descriptions of the correlation between VS and TOEIC total scores are shown in Table III, which indicates that the participants' VS was moderately correlated with their TOEIC scores in listening and reading ($r = 0.67$, $p < 0.001$). Thus, the higher the scores the participants obtained on the VST, the better total scores they could achieve on the TOEIC (listening and reading).

When the TOEIC scores are viewed separately, as shown in Table IV, there is a positive significant correlation between VS and the TOEIC listening score ($r = 0.62$, $p < 0.001$), indicating that the higher the scores the participants obtained on the VST, the better listening scores they could achieve on the TOEIC.

TABLE III.
CORRELATION BETWEEN VS AND TOEIC TOTAL SCORES

Variable	N	Lowest	Highest	Ave	Sd	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>
Vocabulary size	973	600	4,400	2,016.86	581.37	0.67***	< 0.001
TOEIC total score	973	150	815	296.36	94.06		

* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

TABLE IV.
CORRELATION BETWEEN VS AND TOEIC LISTENING SCORES

Variable	N	Lowest	Highest	Ave	Sd	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>
Vocabulary size	973	600	4,400	2,016.86	581.37	0.62***	< 0.001
TOEIC listening	973	75	425	175.81	59.41		

* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

TABLE V.
CORRELATION BETWEEN VS AND TOEIC READING SCORES

Variable	N	Lowest	Highest	Ave	Sd	<i>R</i>	<i>p</i>
Vocabulary size	973	600	4,400	2,016.86	581.37	0.61***	< 0.001
TOEIC reading	973	45	405	120.54	43.02		

* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

TABLE VI.
SUMMARY OF CORRELATION COEFFICIENT IN VS AND TOEIC SCORES

TOEIC test	VS
Listening	0.62***
Reading	0.61***
Total score	0.67***

* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

Similarly, Table V revealed that participants' VS was significantly correlated with their TOEIC reading scores ($r = 0.61$, $p < 0.001$). In other words, there is a significant positive correlation between VS and TOEIC reading score,

indicating that the higher the scores the participants obtained on the VST, the better reading scores they could achieve on the TOEIC.

A summary of the statistical description of the relationship between VS and TOEIC listening and reading indicated that the participants' English VS was moderately correlated with their total TOEIC listening and reading scores, as shown in Table VI. The correlation coefficients are 0.61 to 0.67, indicating that the higher the scores the participants obtained in the VST, the better listening and reading scores they could achieve on the TOEIC.

B. How Does VS Affect Performance in TOEIC Listening and Reading?

Since the TOEIC can be divided into A1, A2, B1,... as a grade-order variable, with the higher grades reflecting better performance, ordinal logistic regression analysis was used. In addition, for the TOEIC test scores, linear regression (enter method) was conducted to consider the predictive power of English VS for the TOEIC.

1) Listening Levels

Ordinal logistic regression modeling was used to assess the association between the outcome variables and the predictor variables. A total of 973 participants were analyzed using ordered logistic regression analysis for predictable effect analysis. VS and gender were the independent variables used to explore these factors on the TOEIC listening levels (in the order A1, A2, B1+).

As shown in Table VII, the only statistically significant variable was VS (OR = 1.002, $p < 0.001$); the OR value was greater than 1, indicating that when the students' VS increased, the TOEIC listening level tended to be higher. Gender had no statistically significant influence on TOEIC listening level.

TABLE VII.
TOEIC LISTENING LEVEL IN LOGISTIC REGRESSION ANALYSIS

Independent variable	B	OR	95% CI of OR	<i>p</i>
Vocabulary size	0.002	1.002	1.002 to 1.003	< 0.001
Gender (male vs. female)	0.21	1.24	0.80 to 1.91	0.337

Note: The group in brackets is the category ref.

* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

2) Reading Levels

Similarly, logistic regression was used to analyze VS and gender as the independent variables, showing how these variables affect the dependent variable in terms of prediction.

The regression analysis results, as shown in Table VIII, indicated that VS has statistical significance for TOEIC reading level (OR = 1.002, $p < 0.001$); the OR value was greater than 1, showing that when the students' VS increased, the TOEIC reading level tend to be higher. Gender had no statistically significant influence on TOEIC reading level.

TABLE VIII.
TOEIC READING LEVEL IN LOGISTIC REGRESSION ANALYSIS

Independent Variable	B	OR	95% CI of OR	<i>p</i>
Vocabulary size	0.002	1.002***	1.002 to 1.002	< 0.001
Gender (male vs. female)	-0.02	0.98	0.7 to 1.37	0.909

Note: The group in brackets is the category ref.

* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

3) Results for the Participants' Total TOEIC Scores

Multiple logistic regression analyses were conducted to determine the effect of the participants' English VS on the prediction of total TOEIC listening and reading scores. Table IX shows that the regression model in the whole F test was significant ($F = 56.13$, $p < 0.001$), indicating the explanatory power of the regression model ($R^2 = 0.45$) with statistical significance, which indicates that the participants with a higher VS tended to have higher total TOEIC scores.

TABLE IX.
LINEAR REGRESSION FOR THE TOEIC SCORES

Independent Variable	Nonstandardized Regression Coefficient (B)	Standardized Regression coefficient (β)	<i>t value</i>	<i>p value</i>
Constant term	73.79	—	6.07***	< 0.001
Vocabulary size	0.10	0.65	25.56***	< 0.001
Gender (male vs. female)	-3.66	-0.02	-0.69	0.490

Note: The group in brackets is the category ref., $R^2 = 0.45$, Adj. $R^2 = 0.45$, $F = 56.13$, $p < 0.001$

* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

T-test results show that the VS of the regression coefficient was significant ($p = 0.65$, $p < 0.05$), and the regression coefficient is positive.

V. DISCUSSION AND SUGGESTIONS

A. Discussion

The relationship between VS and TOEIC scores was investigated for 973 technical college non-English-major students in Taiwan and divided into two groups by gender. Gender differences had no statistical significance for the VS of the participants and their performance on the TOEIC listening and reading sections. This finding seems to be consistent with the previous findings regarding gender and English proficiency studies (Lee & Pulido, 2017; Nisbet, Tindall, & Arroyo, 2005; Salem, 2006).

Overall, the results of the present study demonstrate a correlation between VS and TOEIC test scores for reading and listening at 0.67 ($p < 0.001$). The results correspond to the findings of previous studies (Kanzaki, 2010, 2015; Taguchi, 2015), indicating an upper-moderate positive relationship with very high statistical significance. VS correlated specifically with reading scores at 0.61 and listening scores at 0.62, and both are statistically significant. In other words, these results demonstrate that participants with a larger VS tend to score better than participants with a smaller VS. Furthermore, that trend seems to persist linearly as vocabulary increases. However, whether VS has a linear relationship with TOEIC scores should be verified through further studies. The study also indicates that VS correlates more strongly with listening scores than with reading scores. Vocabulary may be more strongly correlated with listening scores because hearing is not performed in a word-oriented context; although EFL learners can still guess the content, missing hearing the key words often misleads them regarding the key content points.

The study also indicated that performance on the TOEIC reading and listening sections can be predicted by the participants' VS but not by their gender. Logistic regression of VS and test results illustrated that a larger VS predicted better test scores on both sections. The t value of the analysis further confirmed the statistical significance of these results. Therefore, performance on TOEIC tests can be predicted with a consistent degree of certainty. In other words, performance on TOEIC tests, one measure of English proficiency, can be explained to a great extent by VS, indicating a causal relationship between the two.

On a broader scale, the results of this study confirm the findings in the existing literature that VS, specifically as measured by the VST, is positively correlated with English proficiency, specifically as measured by TOEIC scores in reading and listening. Surprisingly, VS correlated with reading scores in the present study of 973 Chinese university freshman students at the exact same rate that it did in Kanzaki's (2015) study of 82 Japanese university students. Although no other findings were obtained, the large sample size of this study establishes a strong positive relationship between VST and TOEIC compared to the small size of Kanzaki's study. Similarly, these results demonstrate an upper-moderate relationship that is consistent with some of the other studies that have been discussed (Ibrahim, Sarudin, & Muhamad, 2016; Taguchi, 2015) and slightly lower than others (Güngör & Yaylı, 2016; Kanzaki, 2010).

However, VS correlated with listening scores at a much higher rate than in most of the studies discussed above. Most of the existing literature indicates a weak correlation between them (Kanzaki, 2010, 2015; Taguchi, 2015), in contrast to the upper-moderate correlation found in this study ($r = 0.62$), except Wang (2015), who found a strong correlation between VS and listening. Similarly, the present study revealed a stronger relationship between VS and listening than between VS and reading, contradicting the results reported in the previous literature. Interestingly, participants in both Wang's study and the present study were Chinese students whose first language is Chinese, indicating that VS seems to have a stronger correlation in the receptive language of English listening than in other languages.

B. Implications

The general implications of this study correspond to the existing literature, but its specific results denote a departure, particularly regarding the differences in how VS correlates with different aspects of English proficiency in terms of listening and reading. Further research is needed. Furthermore, little research has been devoted to the ability to predict English proficiency based on VS. The only study discussed here, conducted by Koizumi and In'nami (2013), focused specifically on speaking skills.

It is generally accepted among researchers that there is a statistically significant correlation between VS and English proficiency. This study contributes two valuable theoretical implications. First, it confirms the large number of previous studies that indicate the correlation and moves the discussion towards exploring a potential causal relationship between VS and English proficiency. Second, although the results of this study are consonant with Wang's (2015) study, the present study challenges the relationship between VS and listening skills that has been generally accepted and, in addition, questions how it compares to the relationship between VS and reading skills. A variety of different methodologies should be used to explore the relationship between VS and listening skills more extensively.

The practical implications of this study support the existing literature. The first regards to the degree to which building VS should be included in EFL instruction. While a great deal of time is already devoted to vocabulary, instructors might consider making it a more fundamental element of their curricula. Instructors should also teach vocabulary from a variety of different angles that emphasize both size and depth. For instance, they might consider assigning a certain number of essential words each week to cover VS gradually while incorporating a variety of authentic assignments that develop students' depth of understanding and exercises that assist students in developing their ability to use the vocabulary in real-world contexts. In addition, the ability to predict performance based on VS can be used to regulate the necessary lexical coverage to perform well on the TOEIC as well as on other English proficiency tests. As Chujo and Oghigian (2009) suggested, it is crucial to incorporate a certain level of lexical knowledge into EFL curricula to ensure better performance. This application calls out for the larger assumption that demands the inclusion of evidence-based practices in EFL language teaching systems.

C. Limitations

This study confronted many limitations. It was limited primarily by the narrowness of its scope. Its purpose was to confirm the correlation between VS and performance on the TOEIC reading and listening sections and to direct the discourse towards exploring a causal relationship. While the results fulfill this function using fundamental methodologies and limited variables, more complicated research should be conducted with the same or a similar purpose to explore more extensively how the depth of vocabulary affects performance and the ways in which other variables affect the relationship between VS as well as vocabulary depth and English proficiency. Finally, the study emphasized the reading and listening sections of the TOEIC test, whose relationship to VS has been thoroughly explored. Future research should explore more thoroughly the relationship between VS and performance on the speaking and writing sections of the TOEIC.

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An Analysis of Puns in *The Big Bang Theory* Based on Conceptual Blending Theory

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Abstract—Pun, as a rhetorical device, is widely employed in both written and oral language. It plays a key role in generating and carrying humorous effects. The former research of Puns is usually concentrated on its definitions, classifications, translation strategies, pragmatic functions and are mainly narrowed down to the scope of rhetoric, semantics and pragmatics. However, few scholars have studied puns from a cognitive perspective. Based on Conceptual Blending Theory, the author collects 100 puns from 40 episodes of the first two seasons of *The Big Bang Theory* as the sources of research subjects. According to the users, types and functions of puns and data analysis, this study has come to the following conclusions: (1) Among the many characters, Sheldon is the person who uses puns the most, which fully reflect his personality of arrogance and showing off. Meanwhile, contextual puns appeared the most in the sitcom, which indicates the sitcom has a close connection with daily life. (2) The mirror network model, single-scope network model and double-scope network model could be conducted to construct meaning, while the meaning construction of puns cannot be used through simplex network model. (3) Puns have four kinds of functions in *The Big Bang Theory*. The major functions of pun are humorous, followed by sarcastic, persuasive and aesthetic functions. This article is helpful to readers to understand the meaning of puns correctly, at the same time it can promote the further application of Conceptual Blending Theory.

Index Terms—Conceptual Blending Theory, puns, *The Big Bang Theory*

I. INTRODUCTION

The term pun is a form of word play that contains two or more meanings, by exploiting multiple meanings of words, or of similar-sounding words, for an intended rhetorical or humorous rhetorical effect. As a main figure of speech, pun is a widespread linguistic phenomenon in human life. It has been widely applied in diverse kinds of genres and registers, for instance, in the literature works, humorous stories, entertainment programs, jokes, advertisements and so on. A good pun contributes to making language subtle, implicit, humorous and vivid, thus it can attract readers' interests and make a profound impression on them. Since there is few studies of puns in a situation comedy by using Conceptual Blending Theory, the paper takes American sitcom *The Big Bang Theory* as an example, aiming at using the Conceptual Blending Theory to analyze the meaning construction of puns specifically.

This current paper attempts to answer the following questions:

- (1) What are the distributions of puns in the sitcom *The Big Bang Theory*?
- (2) How meanings of the puns are constructed based on the Conceptual Blending Theory?
- (3) What are the functions of the puns in the sitcom *The Big Bang Theory*?

By studying the puns occur in people's daily activities, this paper helps English learners to understand English puns and American humor properly, thus improving their competence of using English and enhancing the efficiency and accuracy of their English study.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Definition and Classifications of Pun

The word "pun" is also called "paronomasia" in Latin. It firstly appeared in English can be traced back to John Dryden's work in 1662. Wang (2004) argues that puns can be found in old English and then be popular in the 14th century. Afterwards, puns are mainly used by famous writers such as Shelley and Dickens. Nowadays, Pun is an important figure of speech in English and plays an essential role in people's daily and literary life. It is widely employed in the jokes, advertisements, literature works, entertainment programs and so on at present.

According to Oxford English Dictionary, which defines pun as "The use of a word in such a way as to suggest two or more meanings or different associations, or the use of two or more words of the same or nearly the same sound with different meanings, so as to produce a humorous effect" (2002, p. 1143). Many researchers such as Wen (1995) and He (2004) have also defined pun. Based on them, pun mainly has three features: Firstly, the use of puns aims at expressing two different meanings in a specific context. Secondly, the audience can get both surface meaning and deep meaning of it by using puns. Thirdly, the use of pun can achieve special functions, for example, can produce humorous, sarcastic, persuasive and aesthetic effects.

Based on the study of puns, most scholars argue that pun can be mainly divided into two types, namely, homophonic

and homographic puns. In the study, the author reads a large number of materials about the classification of puns and put them into effect in *The Big Bang Theory*. The current paper adopts the classification methods of Wen (1995) and Li (2000) as well as the frequency of puns' appearances in the sitcom, reclassifying puns into eight types. That is, asterismus pun, mimetic pun, antaladasis pun, homophonic pun, grammatical pun, paronomasia pun, sylleptic pun and contextual pun.

Asteismus pun aims to use the ambiguity of the same word or expression to attract people. It cause people a deliberate misunderstanding of the meaning and mostly appear in the form of dialogue.

Mimetic pun is created by using some proverbs, sayings and fixed phrases, etc. Writers often use the allomorph of certain word, which is a variant phonological representation of a morpheme, to form mimetic pun. Thus, the audience can be easily attracted and understand the mimetic pun properly.

Antaladasis pun means a word used two or more times in a language environment but every time they express different meanings. For instance,

Sheldon: No, not the Wesley Crushers. The Wesley Crushers.

The first "Wesley Crushers" here refers to people who like Wesley Crusher. The second "Wesley Crushers" is a blindingly clever play on words. It means the opponents of Wesley. It implies that they will be the crushers of Wesley.

Homophonic puns are words with the same pronunciation, but have different spellings and meanings. It makes a sentence embody two contents, and makes people feel its sense of humor. Take the following sentence for example:

Leonard: I hate my name. It has "nerd" in it.

In Leonard's name, "nard" has the same pronunciation of "nerd". He will be worried and depressed when called by his name, because the word "nerd" means "a foolish person" in English. Homophonic pun can make language filled with unique effect and wit.

Grammatical pun should obey grammatical skills, such as sentence structures, the application of ellipsis and part of speech, etc. The use of it makes the expression more amusing and interesting.

Paronomasia puns are formed by using two or more words with similar or nearly the same pronunciation, which generate double senses.

Sheldon: Singing is neither an appropriate vocation nor avocation for you.

From the sentence we can see that "vocation" and "avocation" has the similar pronunciation, but they express totally different meanings. Sheldon thinks that penny is apparently not suited to sing. So he uses the two words to make paronomasia pun to satirize Penny.

Sylleptic pun refers to one word occurs only one time with two or more meanings. It can easily express more information with fewer words and space.

Sheldon: This is my first day off in decades and I'm going to savor it

It is obviously that "savor" can be interpreted as "taste", but here it means "enjoy". The literal meaning of "savor" can remind people of the word "enjoy".

Through contextual pun, the audience can get the generated meaning by analyzing the original meaning of a word to deliver double meanings. Context is vital to interpret contextual pun and help people to get the optimal relevant meanings of puns.

B. Conceptual Blending Theory

Conceptual blending theory was first proposed by Fauconnier in 1985. According to him, conceptual blending model involves four mental spaces, which are two input spaces, a blended space and a generic space. Fauconnier and Turner (1994) point out that frames and elements of two input spaces are selectively projected into the blended space, and via composition, elaboration and completion, both the emergent structure and emergent meaning are generated. In 2002, Fauconnier and Turner hold that conceptual blending network could be divided into four groups, which are simple network, mirror network, single-scope network and double-scope network separately.

Among conceptual blending networks, simple network is the most fundamental pattern. In one input space, there exists a blank and abstract framework and some regulations, however, the other has no framework. It just has some elements to fill in the abstract frame. The two input spaces are connected after mapping of rule and value.

In mirror network, the two input spaces both provide frameworks. They are the same but elements of them are different. The two mental inputs spaces, blended space and generic space share only one frame in this model.

The two input spaces have different frameworks in Single-scope Network. Only one input space will be chosen to the blended space and carry on running in the blending space. The emergent structure is generated through the process of composition, completion and elaboration.

In the double-scope network, the two input spaces have different frameworks. But different from single-scope framework, the two input spaces of double-scope framework both project into the blending space. The blending network is the mostly used by people.

III. AN ANALYSIS OF PUNS IN *THE BIG BANG THEORY* BASED ON CONCEPTUAL BLENDING THEORY

A. The Distributions of Puns in *The Big Bang Theory*

The present paper collects 100 puns from 40 episodes in the sitcom *The Big Bang Theory* from the first two seasons

as the research materials. The author watched the sitcom and took down the puns appeared in the daily conversations. The study is taken from three aspects: users of puns, the types of pun, functions generated by puns. Finally, the author adopts tables to show the research results.

TABLE 1
NUMBERS OF PUNS USED BY CHARACTERS

Names of characters	Numbers of puns(totally 100)
Sheldon	39
Leonard	22
Penny	15
Raj	11
Howard	7
Amy	4
Bernadette	2

From the Table 1, we can see that Sheldon is the most active person and the main character in this sitcom. The numbers of puns he used are 39, which can reflect his characteristics of showing off and arrogance.

TABLE 2
NUMBERS OF DIFFERENT TYPES OF PUNS

Types of puns	Numbers of puns(totally 100)
Contextual pun	56
Sylleptic pun	14
Paronomasia pun	11
Grammatical pun	7
Homophonic pun	5
Antalacsis pun	4
Mimetic pun	2
Asterismus pun	1

It is not hard to see from Table 2 that contextual puns appear the most in the sitcom, which reflects the characters often speak by combining with environments situations and indicates that the series has a closely connection with daily life. On the other hand, asterismus puns, mimetic puns, antalacsis puns, homophonic puns and grammatical puns are so less.

TABLE 3
DISTRIBUTION OF DIFFERENT FUNCTIONS OF PUNS

Different Functions of Puns	Numbers of puns(totally 100)
Humorous function	45
Humorous and sarcastic function	31
Sarcastic function	13
Persuasive function	9
Aesthetic function	2

According to Table 3, it can come to the conclusion that the humorous function is the most important one in the series. Sarcastic, persuasive and aesthetic puns are relatively less in number. Humorous and sarcastic functions' using interprets that people are not only humorous, but sarcastic, which indicates there are always contradictions and misunderstandings between people.

After this study, people will have deeper understanding of puns and their significance. At the same time American sitcom, American people and American culture will be understood more accurately.

B. *Meaning Construction of Puns in Conceptual Blending Theory*

1. **Meaning Construction of Puns in Mirror Network**

The two input spaces both provide frameworks in the Mirror Network. They are the same but elements of them are different. For instance,

Sheldon's mother: I thought it was our Indians that had the occasional alcohol problem.

Leonard: We don't say that, either. I'll make you a list.

Sheldon's mother: Oh, that would be mighty white of you.

Rajesh is an Indian boy who has a psychological disorder in speaking with females. One day he feels lonely and drunk. When Leonard and Sheldon's mother come back from dinner, they are surprised by Rajesh. Sheldon's mother is ethnocentric and said above words to Leonard. Leonard held that it is kind of racial discrimination and in order not to cause unnecessary embarrassment he tells Sheldon's mother not to say so. However, Sheldon's mother is unwilling to accept it and says the above sentences.

After reading the dialogue, we know that the word "white" acts as the hinge of pun. It has two meanings: "the color of skin" and "the honesty of nature". These two meanings provide two frames separately: "someone is with white skin" in input space 1 and "someone is honest" in input space 2. Based on Sheldon's mother's reply, it can conclude that she

wants to satire Leonard. It's easy for the audience to come to mind the same frame: "someone has some features". The emergent structure is formed after the process of composition, completion and elaboration. Then the emergent meaning is generated: "a white man that is also very honest". That is the process of meaning construction of pun "white" with the help of mirror network in Conceptual Integration Theory.

2. Meaning Construction of Puns in Single-scope Network

In Single-scope Network, the two input spaces have different frameworks. Only one of them will be projected to blended space and continue to run in the blending space. After composition, completion and elaboration, the emergent structure is generated. Take the following dialogue as an example,

Howard: Okay, okay, tell you what. I am willing to bet anything that's an ordinary field cricket.

Sheldon: I can't take your money.

Howard: What's the matter, you chicken?

In this conversation, Howard would like to have a bet with Sheldon about the types of a cricket, but Sheldon are reluctant to bet with him. So Howard uses a conceptual pun "chicken" to deride Sheldon. It constructs two contexts: "chicken eat crickets" and "a coward man couldn't make a decision", and different input spaces frames are generated by double contexts provided. They match with each other. Based on the two inputs spaces, the generic space is produced "the relation between two substances". Under the guidance of generic space, the two input spaces' elements are projected into the blended space selectively and the framework of input space 2 is projected into the blended space, so it belongs to the single-scope network.

Through composition, completion and elaboration, the emergent structure "chicken fears crickets" is generated within the single-scope blended space, which means Howard ridicules Sheldon and he believes "Sheldon is like coward chicken which fears crickets".

3. Meaning Construction of Puns in Double-Scope Network

In the double-scope network, the two input spaces have different frameworks. But different from single-scope framework, the two input spaces of double-scope framework both project into the blending space. For example,

Howard: Hi! It's hot here, must be summer!

From the sentence, we can know that there are two different frames. One is "It's hot in summer", the other is "the person named Summer has a sexy figure". As we know, the word "summer" contains two meanings: "season" and "a person's name". Meanwhile, the word "hot" stimulates the double contexts of the pun. Then, the frames and elements of these two input spaces are selectively projected into the blended space. After composition, completion and elaboration, the emergent structure is generated: "something have some properties".

According to the analysis, it can be concluded that there are no puns analyzed in simple conceptual blending network. The reason is the puns are normally "playing on words" of the two meanings of the same expression and also the double contexts, which are created by the double meanings. There must be two frames for two input spaces. But the other three models (Mirror network model, Single-scope network model, Double scope network model) all could be used construct meaning.

IV. THE FUNCTIONS OF PUNS IN *THE BIG BANG THEORY*

A. Humorous and Sarcastic Function

Pun has the unique features of killing two birds with one stone and selling the dummy. It has already been people's best choice to achieve the function of humor or satire. In everyday conversation, the meaning of a word relies on its contexts. Unlike jokes, humor and satire are reflection of intelligence and ridiculous forms appealing to reason and rich in meanings. Take this sentence for example,

Howard: Hi! It's hot here, must be summer!

In this sentence, the main function of contextual pun "summer" is humor. Some audience finds it a bit difficult to understand while watching the sitcom, however, on second thoughts, they assure themselves that the humorous function of the pun is used to achieve comic effect. The famous actress is named "Summer". Here Howard would like to use hot and summer to describe the actress is so attractive and sexy. He employs adjective "hot" and noun "summer" which are used to modify weather to describe a person, so the humorous and sarcastic function is achieved.

B. Aesthetic Function

The beauty of puns lies in that it can incarnate the emotion of language, give readers moral enjoyment and spiritual pleasure, and voice the inner world of the characters. There would be conflicts between elements within the emergent structure and the blended space. Under the guidance of world experiences and related knowledge, conflicts could be solved. For instance,

Howard: Starting tomorrow, I am turning over a new leaf.

The emergent structure of this sentence is "Howard will turn a new page". On the surface, it is logically nonsense, because there is no book. In view of Howard's purpose for saying the sentence, he wants to tell Bernadette about his decision. Here, using a leaf from a tree as the page of a book, it can easily make people feel the beauty of this sentence. Howard indicates to turn over a page that refers to say goodbye to the past. The audience realizes that Howard is using sylleptic pun to express his decision to Bernadette, in order to restore the good relationships with Bernadette and thus

people could feel the aesthetic function of this pun.

C. Persuasive Function

There are also some puns embody persuasive functions in *The Big Bang Theory*. People sometimes do not use direct sentences to express their aims. Instead, to achieve a persuasive function, they use puns to express their intention. It can make the language more euphemistic, more meaningful, and more suitable. For example,

Sheldon: Be a lamb and open it for me.

Leonard: Why? What's the problem?

In this dialogue, "lamb" is a contextual pun, which has two meanings. One is "a kind of animal" and the other is "a good man". There exists a conflict that a lamb can't open a door. With the help of meaning construction of conceptual blending theory and related knowledge and world experiences, people can take its context into consideration. Sheldon doesn't want to come to work. So he uses a machine that is controlled by him to work with Leonard. The machine can not open the door, so Sheldon aims at letting Leonard open the door for him. He uses "lamb" to describe Leonard as a good man who is very warm-hearted and ardent, so as to persuade him to open the door for him. So the persuasive function is easily achieved.

V. CONCLUSIONS

In this paper, the author takes a research on puns from the perspective of Conceptual Blending Theory in American sitcom *The Big Bang Theory*. The analysis of those puns has been taken from three aspects: distribution of puns in *The Big Bang Theory*, meaning construction of puns using four frameworks models of Conceptual Blending Theory, the functions of puns in *The Big Bang Theory*. Different from the previous research, this paper has reclassified puns into eight kinds. And then the author puts forward the study results by figures and tables. Except for the humorous function, the author also discovers sarcastic, persuasive and aesthetic functions of puns.

VI. SUGGESTIONS FOR THE FURTHER STUDY

There are some limitations in the study. The first one is that the current research mainly talks about the analysis of puns' sentence talks in people's daily conversation, so other forms of puns such as short sketches could be studied in the future. The second one lies in the 100 puns are mainly collected from 40 episodes from the first two seasons of *The Big Bang Theory*. It also has limitations, because the number of puns is not adequate enough to support the conclusion of this research.

Conceptual Blending Theory still needs to be explored with more attention and research. In the future, the four frameworks of Conceptual Blending should be broadened to explain more complicated words, phrases and sentences of puns. The research focus could be shifted to some typical language forms, such as talk shows, short sketches and so on. At the same time, there would be a more suitable and proper way to classify puns. It also can adopt other theories to deal with the meaning construction of puns, like Mimetics, Relevance Theory and Relevance Theory, which can be employed to make an easily comprehensive, convincing explanation of pun's meaning construction.

To sum up, the author hopes that this research can be a reference used for the future study and provide some new ideas on the further studies of Conceptual Blending Theory and puns.

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What Are Dyslexia and Its Effects on Teaching Language Skills?

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Abstract—The world of teaching comprises of a range of miscellaneous methods, plans, strategies and techniques and it gets more complex as we consider all factors affecting this world including the age group, context, the mother tongue and mental as well as natural abilities and disabilities of the students who are being taught. My main focus in this paper is to discuss language teaching tips effective for dyslexic students that can be considered as a subcategory of SEN (Special Education Needs) students and an explanation of BPMS Hypothesis I suggested helping dyslexic students overcome their learning difficulties. I also clarify my own teaching experiences in different situations throughout this paper any probably positive or negative feedbacks I obtained via teaching.

Index Terms—teaching, dyslexia, SEN, dyslexic students, experiences, BMPS hypothesis

I. INTRODUCTION

Dyslexia is a major cause of reading, writing, and spelling difficulties. It is a condition that makes it difficult for a person to read and spell words correctly. Based on my own teaching experience, one to three students in each class can be considered as dyslexic students. This number may be different and it depends on the total number of students present in each class. A variety of strategies can help these students to become successful students. The earlier students with dyslexia are identified, the easier it is to treat their potential problems.

In addition, the observations of parents and teachers are also crucial and can lead to an early diagnosis of such group of children. Dyslexic students are very bright and frequently highly creative with extraordinary reasoning capabilities. The old saying that male students have a higher rate of dyslexia in comparison with female students is not true nowadays and has no scientific basis at all. (Moats, 2008)

A. Understanding Dyslexia

The word *dyslexia* originates from Greek language, and is made of following two parts:

Dys: meaning poor / difficult

Lexis: meaning word

The literal translation is “*poor words*” or “*difficult words*”.

As per definition given by *National Institute of Child Health and Human Development (NICHD)* based in Bethesda, Maryland, this mental condition is “a specific learning disability that is neurological in origin.”

Dyslexia is a specific learning disability in reading. Kids with dyslexia have trouble reading accurately and fluently. They may also have trouble with reading comprehension, spelling and writing. (The Understood Team, 2016)

According to available statistics, the National Institute of Health estimates that approximately 15 percent of the US population is affected by learning disabilities. In addition to that, the *US Department of Education* figures show that approximately 4.5 percent of American students receive special educational services for a reading disorder (Pastor, P. N., & Reuben, C. A., 2008).

B. Dyslexia and Brain Function

With the advent of functional brain imaging in the early 1990s, neurologists and researchers were able to view the brain function while people engaged in reading. The recent advent was a great help for them to actually see how the brain translates the alphabet letters into spoken sounds. Based on Noam Chomsky’s theory of Universal Grammar, the human brain is naturally wired for language and human infants just need to be around other humans who speak in order to learn the language. (Shen, H. , 2013)

To get a better understanding of the said issue, we must discuss the aspects of oral and written language separately since each one has its own role in developing language in human beings.

Oral language is comprised of 4 different levels as described in the table below:

First Level	Phonology	Made of language sound elements called phonemes.
Second Level	Semantics	Made of vocabulary and word meanings.
Third Level	Syntax	Made of grammatical structures.
Fourth Level	Discourse	Made of the way sentences are connected to make meaningful communication.

As it is shown in the above table, the lowest level goes for phonology and the highest level belongs to discourse.

C. *Written Language*

Contrary to the oral language, the human brains are not naturally wired to read and reading skill has to be taught. Children must develop an ability to look at the printed letters and convert them into a phonetic or linguistic code. This ability is called **alphabetic principle** which is a missing part in students suffering from dyslexia. Unless a student can apply the alphabetic principle, the letters are nothing except meaningless squiggles on the paper.

The most significant issue that we need to keep in mind as a language teacher is that we have 44 individual phonemes in English language which can be linked together to form an unlimited combinations of words; however, the total number of English alphabet letters is limited to 26 letters only. Consequently, each letter represents more than one sound in spoken English.

The students who have phonemic awareness-which is explained in the following pages- of spoken words and their breakdown into smaller units of sounds will not encounter any reading challenges. They just link the written letters to the language sounds and then the letters begin to have meaning for the students.

D. *Speech Symptoms of Students with Dyslexia*

Speech symptoms can be one or more than one out of the many signs listed below:

- Subtle delays in speech
- Articulation difficulties (i.e. baby talk)
- Spending long time to recall or give common vocabulary
- Misheard phonemes (i.e. dropping initial or final sounds in a word)
- Substitution of phonemes (Dyslexic student may say **bar** for **bat**)
- Sound combination in multisyllabic words (Dyslexic student may say **aminal** for **animal**)
- Sounding out (The dyslexic students is unable to connect a letter such as **b**, with the sound /b/)
- Decoding problems and unable to sound out and spell CVC words (for example, **bog-dog**)

NOTE: CVC acronym stands for Consonant-Vowel-Consonant combination in which a vowel sound is surrounded by two consonant sounds on either side.

E. *Learning Behavior of Students with Dyslexia*

The learning behaviors can be monitored in early learning environments before school and even at school. These behaviors can be summarized as below:

- Like to listen to stories in class
- Missing story events and fail to unscramble them again
- Not interested in nursery rhymes due to lack of the ability to hear phonemes
- Unable to analyze directional concepts (difference between right and left) or positional concepts (such as up and down)
- Switching from the right hand to left hand when performing a task
- Pretending to feel ill at reading time
- Untidy or dirty handwriting
- Dropping word parts while reading a text
- Failure to do timely homework assignment within a specified timespan
- Less mature motor skills in comparison with others of the same age

NOTE: Motor skills refer to the function of muscle movements in the entire body.

II. METHODOLOGY

Designated lesson plans for dyslexic students

Dyslexic students have average to above-average intelligence. A lesson plan including following components can lead to a higher probability of gaining success in these students: (Flora, Sherrill B.,2008)

- Creative thinking tasks
- Imaginative class activities
- Drama or artistic activities
- Music-related assignments
- Multisensory activities

The above-mentioned components will also help them read faster. If we introduce new concepts to dyslexic students, they always express a high-level of understanding. Some of famous people with dyslexia are named in the table below:

Name	Profession
Henry Ford	Inventor
Thomas Edison	Inventor
Walt Disney	Inventor
Albert Einstein	Inventor / Scientist
Jules Verne	Writer
Orville and Wilbur Wright	Inventors

Phonemic awareness and Q-chart

The ability to put the individual sounds, or phonemes and work with them is called phonemic awareness. When teaching to lower grade students, I usually utilize the following Q-chart (i.e. Question chart) to recognize the students with potential disorders.

Q 1: How many words can you rhyme with the word <i>bag</i> ?	Q 2: What word do you hear when you put the sounds <i>b/i/g/</i> together?
Q 3: What is the final sound in the word <i>tap</i> ?	Q 4: What word would you have if <i>/p/</i> was taken away from the word <i>pit</i> ?

Student status chart

In this phase, try to scrutinize the answers you received from the students and compare them to the chart below in order to pinpoint the students' problems.

Number of correct answers	Student Status
1	Needs immediate support. (Implement all the components of BPMS Hypothesis)
2	Discuss the issue with parents and the school counselor.(Implement in-school and at-home strategies to solve the problem)
3	Try to find the exact weakness area of the student. (Implement a direct instruction plan for that weakness by paying attention to BPMS Hypothesis and components)
4	The student is considered as an ordinary one and has difficulty in learning.


As soon as I recognize dyslexic students who need serious support, I prepare a separate observation sheet for each of them and register my monthly observations in that student specified sheet. These observation sheets can be used in order to prepare designated lesson plans for those students.

The observation sheet can be used for SEN students as well since students with dyslexia can be defined as a subcategory of SEN students but my main paper focus is on providing tips for students suffering from dyslexia.

The term *SEN* refers to Special Education Needs Students and can include a broad range of both quick-witted and dyslexic students.

Observation Chart Sample

A sample of my observation sheet for each student is shown below:

Student Monthly Observation Sheet		
		
Student's Name:		
Class:		
Teacher's Name:		
Class Date	Teacher's Observation	Signature

This observation sheet can be used as an evaluative tool by other school subject teachers to judge the student's progress within a month or even an academic year.

III. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

Designated plan and criteria achievement

Based on my own observation from my own students, I prepared a designated plan for one of them suffering from dyslexia. The prepared plan is given as a sample below:

Teacher's Name: Mohammad Mahdi Mobinizad

Student's Name: Arya B.

Class: Grade 6D

Targets to be achieved	Achievement Criteria	Possible Resources / Techniques
I. Improving communication behavioral skills	1. Engaging in any class program/activity	• Monitor and modify his progress
II. Learning organizational and study skills	2. Teacher always involves him to be part of his job	• Positive behavioral interventions and support
III. Catching his concentration	3. Competing an art activity with peers	• Team activities, team games and problem solving session
IV. Following up the academic instructions at his level	4. Self-management	• Use simple concise instructions with concrete steps
V. Topping up the student level on English skills	5. Listening to the teacher with concentration and following up the relevant instructions	• individual work in every subject and use special worksheet based on his level

Sample school rewards for dyslexic students

Sometimes it may be necessary to provide school-based rewards as a kind of incentive for students with dyslexia. Teachers need to make sure that a child wants one of these potential incentives and will work for it before it is applied. Students should be given a menu of rewards such as the one I prepared below from which they can choose their favorite ones.

- 1) Talk to best friend
- 2) Listen to an iDevice player with headphones
- 3) Applaud the dyslexic student during school morning assembly and in the presence of other students
- 4) Increase the period for PE(i.e. Physical Education) class for the student during the week
- 5) Be teacher's helper / assistant
- 6) Be the class monitor / class president
- 7) Draw a picture or do other artistic activities in class time
- 8) See a movie / footage on the Web
- 9) Decorate the class notice board
- 10) Mark his classmates' exam papers
- 11) Be the class messenger to pass on the teacher's request to the principal assistant
- 12) Have treats in class or out of school
- 13) Be a candidate for the Student of the Day / Month
- 14) Give permission to play board games / card games in class
- 15) Assign a Certificate of Appreciation
- 16) Draw a gift for him from the grab bag (or lucky dip)
- 17) Give the student a special gift in the class

Spelling suggestions for students with dyslexia

Students suffering from dyslexia struggle with spelling problems throughout their lifetimes. As part of their primary and secondary education, they will be expected to take part in various spelling tasks and quizzes some of which are cited below.

Spelling Bee Test:

This is an annual quiz held in most of the countries across the globe and is world-famous one.

In order to get more information about the above test, you can pay a visit to the following website on the Net:
www.spellingbee.com
 This website belongs to *The E.W. Scripps Company* and a variety of spelling bee samples are published on the said website.

Spelling word flash cards:

You can write a word on each card and ask the students to draw an illustration on the back of each flash card. The flash cards can be prepared manually or via computer programs. If the student has difficulty remembering part of the word marked on the card you can highlight that part in a different color or with a highlighter marker. Differing colors can help the student learn the word more easily.

Improving fluency skills in students with dyslexia

Oral reading can be a painful experience for students with dyslexia and they must never be forced to read aloud. The

best time to encourage a dyslexic student to read aloud is during quiet times when nobody is around except you and one of his / her parents.

Fluency improving techniques

There are some remarkable fluency skill techniques such as:

A) Participation in story telling or reader’s theater activities

In storytelling, students are asked to read a piece of writing in chorus but a reader’s theatre task refers to a text that has been formatted for characters to read aloud. Each student can take the role of a character in the story and read the lines for that particular character. Both of these activities bring a lot of fun to whole class including dyslexic students.

B) Beamer / Projector reading

The teacher projects the story onto a screen and the students are requested to read the story lines. The whole class can be divided into different groups with various level of reading. In this technique, the new words of the story are either circled or highlighted no matter whatever times those words are repeated throughout the text.

C) Listening to the audio CD/ DVD

Nearly all of the story books are sold with an audio CD/DVD. The audio CD/DVD will definitely motivate the students in reading and will benefit from hearing stories prepared according to their interest levels. A list of *Children’s Read Aloud and Poetry Book List* is provided in the appendix section of this paper.

Increasing comprehension skills in students with dyslexia

We hereby discuss the major techniques involved to aid the dyslexic students to acquire a higher level of comprehension.

A) Story comics: Prepare a four-panel comic strip of any story read to the students and ask them to illustrate four significant parts of the whole story in each panel. Speech balloons can be used over each panel as well to show the actions of story characters. These panels can be copied and distributed among the class students as a fun reading handout.

B) Big version of a favorite story: Ask your students to prepare an oversized book of a story that is popular among their age group and is liked by most of their peers in other countries. Famous stories such as *Wimpy Kid* and *Harry Potter* can be typical examples of this case.

C) Map-It-out: Ask the students to prepare a T-map as given below and include details of the story in this table:

Setting	Characters
Plot	

Setting: refers to the place the story happened.

Characters: refer to the animals or people present in the story.

Plot: refers to a brief summary of the details and events of the story.

D) Visualize and take a picture: After reading a story is over, invite the students to come to the board and illustrate the most important scene of the story on the board. As students follow the lines of the story, they usually take a picture of the story events and form mental images of the events. These mental images made in the brain are often referred to as visualizations. The students can also add captions to their illustrations on the board.

E) True or False statements: Make a two-sided card out of thick cardboard with the word **TRUE** written on the front side of the card and the word **FALSE** written on the back side of the said card. Then, distribute a copy of each card among the students. Choose an excerpt of a piece of writing and write a list of True or False statements on the board. You can prepare and write your onboard statements in a table format like below:

STORY STATEMENTS TABLE

1.	True <input type="checkbox"/>	False <input type="checkbox"/>
2.	True <input type="checkbox"/>	False <input type="checkbox"/>
3.	True <input type="checkbox"/>	False <input type="checkbox"/>
4.	True <input type="checkbox"/>	False <input type="checkbox"/>

Depending on the size of the selected text and the number of statements, you can expand the total number of statements. The students will respond to each statement by showing either the front or back side of the card and the two-sided card(s) can be laminated for higher durability.

Developing writing skills in students with dyslexia

Fabulous imaginations are the major key to success in dyslexic students and can be regarded as a potential asset in their writing. It is important to tell the students that writing is a two-step process. The first step comes up with “writing ideas” and the second step goes back to proofread and correct what the student has written.

Color books can be the best choice for dyslexic students who are at the beginning level. Sometimes a drawing is worth a thousand words. In the next step, the teacher can motivate the student by making use of some of the writing prompts such as those given below:

- I am the happiest student when -----
- My best adventure ever was -----
- My hero in life is -----
- My toys are -----

- I would like to be -----

An overview of the writing process stages is described under the next heading of this paper.

The writing process steps via a story organizer

- 1. Writing:** Ask students to jot down their ideas by using a story organizer in the shape of ice-cream cone, a spider web organizer, etc. whichever sounds more interesting to them. Let them choose their favorite one freely.
- 2. Drafting:** With reference to story organizer, students can prepare the draft copy of their writing
- 3. Revising:** Tell students to review their draft copies and make the necessary revisions. At the end of this step, remind the students of this fact that anyone reading their work should be able to understand it.
- 4. Editing:** Have students to prepare the final draft of their writing work by paying attention to the writing mechanics including spelling, punctuation and capitalization.
- 5. Sharing (or Publishing):** This is the final step where the whole writing process is over and the students' work are ready to be either published on the school website or posted on the class notice board.

IV. DISCUSSIONS

BPMS Hypothesis and its components

With attention to my previous research on topics related on dyslexia, its diagnosis and the effect(s) brought on language learning skills, I reached to a hypothesis that I called it BPMS Hypothesis. This BPMS Hypothesis covers all learning challenges in dyslexic students and can be used on a large scale as an appropriate solution to such group of students.

The BPMS Hypothesis I suggested is made of 4 components as per following details:

Component Type	Component Definition	Target Zone
B	Backward reading	Reading
P	Phonics booster	Listening(and spelling)
M	Mnemonic words	Speaking
S	Scrabble game	Writing

We have 26 letters in alphabet but these letters represent 44 sounds in English. It means each letter represents more than one sound. Each component concentrates on one zone of language skills. Let's take a look at each component in detail.

Component Type B (Backward reading)

In this component, the students are asked to divide the word into different parts such as prefixes, base word and suffixes and are told to start reading backwards. For example, the student can read a long word such as the word civilization in three simple steps:

Example Word: civilization (civil/iz/ation)

Step No. 1: Say **-ation**

Step No. 2: Say **-ization**

Step No. 3: Say **-civilization**

Note: Here the word breakdown is based on the base word and any probable prefix (es) or suffix (es) that the word may carry.

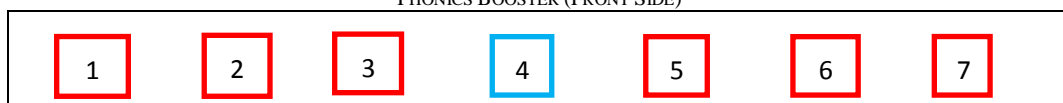
In my own experience, this approach turned out to be very effective for many students holding a different level of English knowledge and language abilities and skills and it was much easier for them to memorize and recite that specified word but it is better to apply this approach for long words that are much more difficult to pronounce than one-syllable words.

Component Type P (Phonics booster)

Phonics is a method of teaching people to read in which they are taught to recognize the sounds that English letters represent. Start assigning activities with one syllable words and then expand it to the longer and more complex words.

Any of the one-syllable words such as cat, bat, pat, pet, etc. can be suitable to be chosen as first choice words. Try to make a ruler-shaped box out of thick cardboard and buy or prepare at least three packs of English alphabet flash cards. The need for three series seems to be more tangible whenever you start teaching more than one syllable word at the same time.

PHONICS BOOSTER (FRONT SIDE)



Cut out 7 squares on the front side of your ruler-shaped box and leave a distance of 1.5 cm between adjacent squares. Finally, assign a number to each square. The total number of the squares must not exceed seven. Cut a narrow opening on the top of each square and along the ruler-shaped box. So that you can slide the alphabet letter flash cards inwards or outwards via the top narrow opening. Most of one-syllable words are made of three English letters. Leave square No. 4

empty and start teaching two words simultaneously in squares 1-2-3 and squares 5-6-7. You can divide the whole class into 2 groups of students and teach the new words to both groups and then ask each group to read the word assigned for another group and vice versa.

The back side of your ruler-shaped box is shown below. It must exclude any cutouts.

PHONICS BOOSTER (BACK SIDE)

Phonics Booster

If you like, you can also mark the Phonics Booster on the back side of the said box you prepared in advance.

Component Type M (Mnemonic words)

This component assists both dyslexic students and ordinary students to form an individual acronym of either long phrases or words and encode those phrases or words in their mind. When there is a must to retrieve those chunks of information, the students can locate and decode the required data previously kept in their memory more easily. In this example, the chunks of information are same as the beads in a rosary that are linked together by a string and the mnemonic word here plays the same vital role of a string which keeps all the information together and in one place.

See the following examples:

What: Who has a treat?

Was: Wally ate spaghetti.

Component Type S (Scrabble game)

Scrabble is a kind of board game in which players try to make words from the separate letters they have been given. Although dyslexic students are creative thinkers, this board game can encourage the students to overcome the writing problems they may face at the preliminary stages of the writing process or afterwards.

In the long-run, this board game along with other supplementary components of BPMS Hypothesis will increase the students' interest in writing and will successfully control their prior fear or doubts that had prevented them from achieving desired results in their writing tasks. The statistical community I chose to try the effectiveness of my Hypothesis consisted of a total number of 500 hundred students in both primary and secondary school of Towheed International School in Dubai where I have gained a great deal of teaching experiences since three years ago up to the moment.

I gathered all the information I needed to verify my Hypothesis based on the student's monthly observation sheet which I provided a copy of that earlier in this paper. In order to scrutinize and analyze the results gained, I also sought for the professional advice of the school counselor.

V. CONCLUSION

In the end, The BPMS Hypothesis seemed to have solved the problem of almost the majority of the students involved in this project. The dyslexia will affect the learning behavior, speaking, reading, spelling and writing skills of the students suffering from this special condition and tips introduced in this appear along with BPMS Hypothesis will be effective for both the teachers and parents to help the dyslexic students tackle the challenges or difficulties they encounter in some or all of their language learning process.

APPENDIX. (CHILDREN'S READ ALOUD AND POETRY BOOK LIST)

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The Metacognitive Strategy in English Listening Comprehension

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Abstract—It is of vital importance that our students should be taught to listen effectively and critically. However, listening is a highly complex, interactive process. This essay focuses the listening comprehension and the metacognitive strategy in listening in order to provide a new angle from which listening teaching is explored to help not only different proficient students but also the English teachers.

Index Terms—English listening comprehension, metacognitive strategy, different proficient learners

I. INTRODUCTION

Contemporary society exhibits a shift from the “exam-oriented education” to “education for all-round development and innovation”. Nowadays, it is of great importance that our students should be taught to listen effectively and critically. National English Curriculum Standards (2001, pp. 3), a syllabus formulated by the Chinese Ministry of Education, rules that English listening is an indispensable part in English teaching and no less than 20% of English test contents should be on it.

However, few studies have been concerned with listening comprehension process and listening instruction. Thus, listening remains one of the least understood processes in language learning (Morley, 1991, pp. 75). Thus, this essay will focus the listening comprehension and the metacognitive strategy in listening.

II. LISTENING COMPREHENSION

In 1996, the International Listening Association gave a definition to the listening comprehension: listening is a process of receiving and constructing meaning forms and a process of reacting to verbal and nonverbal information (Carrier, 1999, pp. 73). Date back to 1976, Kenneth thinks listening comprehension constitutes five compositions, and one composition always depends on another one, that is, discrimination, the perception of message, the use or store message, the auditory memory and the decoding message. Besides these compositions, Abbott (1981, pp. 135) advocates that the foreign language comprehension procession has also link with people’s mother tongue. He points out that listening comprehension includes feeling to know, decoding, prediction, and choice. As listening has often been called a passive skill, in 1984, Thomlinson defines listening as “active” which goes beyond comprehending literally to an empathetic understanding of the speaker (Carrier, 1999). Ronald and Roskelly (1986, pp. 243) also define listening as an active process requiring the same skills of prediction, hypothesizing, checking, and revising.

Based on the previous definitions, Michael Rost (2002, pp. 167) comprehensively summarizes the definition of listening comprehension in *Teaching Listening Comprehension*, it shows the four orientations, the receptive, the constructive, the collaborative and the transformative. Metacognitive strategy is mainly based on the orientations of listening comprehension, thus, these four orientations are illustrated in detail.

On the basis of researches by many scholars, O’ Mally and Chamot (1989, pp. 434) state that listening comprehension is an active and conscious process in which the listener constructs meaning by using cues from contextual information and existing knowledge, while relying upon multiple strategic resources to fulfill the task requirement. Vandergrift also holds the same view. He states in detail, "Listening comprehension is a complex, active process in which the listeners must discriminate between sounds, understand vocabulary and grammatical structures, interpret stress and intonation, retain what was gathered in all of the above, and interpret it within the immediate as well as the larger social structural context of the utterance. Coordinating all these involves a great deal of mental activities on the part of listener" (1990, pp. 174).

Receptive listening refers to the fact that the listener receives the utterance the speaker actually expresses. Specially, listening is to catch the words the speaker says, grasp his or her thought, decipher the information, divide the content and get the shift of speakers’ images, impressions, ideas, beliefs, emotions and attitudes. Under this view, listening is conventionally referred to as a receptive skill. Being receptive does not, however, mean being passive. Listening is in fact a highly active process (Ronald& Roskelly, 1985; O’ Mally& Chamot, 1989; Vandergrift, 1997; Michael Rost, 2002). For reorganizing speaker’s intentional message, the hearer has to positively utilize the knowledge linguistically and nonlinguistically. The linguistic source includes the following items such as vocabulary, syntactic and phonetic problems. The nonlinguistic source refers to background knowledge. Hearer can recognize the continuous sound as meaningful units at all only by applying his knowledge of the language, and he can interpret the meaning only by

comparing these units with the shared knowledge between himself and the speaker. In fact, the majority of utterances that we hear in daily life could be seen as carrying different meanings in different circumstances, and it is only because we are actively involved in the communication process that we are generally able to relate them to single appropriate meaning. If the listener failed to process the linguistic signals, he would also fail to understand the meaning. But it is very hard for the hearer to realize his misunderstanding when he continues non-stop to involve himself in the communication, not making him distracted by sense of failure by means of using the linguistic clues and nonlinguistic knowledge. He'd better be aware that some clues are less important than others in the message. Hence, even he doesn't know some pieces of language, he should be told not to be panic as he is capable of making use of other clues to understand the message to achieve his basic purpose better.

In the light of constructive view, listening means constructing and representing meaning. Especially, listening signifies that the hearer should look for interesting things in speaker's words, find out the most relevance, reconstruct the relevant information from speaker's message and understand the strategy of speaker's way of expressing.

In the light of collaborative view, listening means negotiating meaning with the speaker on the choice of a code and a context and responding. In particular, listening refers to the response to the speaker's utterance, the process of sharing ideas or information with the speaker, active participation in speaker's talk and react to the speaker whether you grasp his idea or not.

Transformative listening means the creation of the meaning by means of imagination, involvement and empathy. Especially, listening can not only be understood as the creation of the connection between the speaker and the listener, of the empathy with speaker's motivation as he speaks, of a process of meaning making in the communication, but also as the accomplishment of communication, the consciousness feeling when the hearer pay concern to things and the process of changing the cognitive environment of both the speaker and the listener.

It can be easily seen that in the last three perspectives of listening, the key concept is meaning, the understanding of which is the main purpose of listening comprehension.

III. METACOGNITIVE STRATEGY

Metacognitive strategy are those used to manage, plan and evaluate the use of cognitive strategy. In other words, They ask the listener to make a plan for learning, think about the occurring learning process, monitor the production and comprehension dynamically and evaluate the learning upon the finish of an activity. It has rarely been applied to the research in listening instruction. It is this dearth of such listening instruction research that inspired the present study, which is just where the significance of this study lies.

According to Flavell, metacognitive knowledge plays an important role in many cognitive activities related to language use, e.g. oral comprehension or communication of information, reading comprehension, and writing, to language acquisition, and to various types of self-instruction (Flavell, 1979, pp. 906). Existence of metacognitive knowledge provides basis for metacognitive experience. While for regulation (metacognitive strategy) to happen, the learner is usually aware of being going to be involved in metacognition.

Brown and Palincsar, when commenting in the failure of strategy training to transfer to new learning activities, noted "much of this difficulty could be attributed to the failure to combine metacognitive strategy with cognitive strategy during learning (Brown, 1982, pp. 46)."

In 1990, Oxford made a diagram of metacognitive strategy system. In his system, there are three parts, centering learning, arranging and planning and evaluating, in metacognitive strategy. The first part, centering learning, includes over viewing and linking with known, paying attention and delaying speech production to focus on listening. In arranging and planning process, learner finds out about language learning, organizes, sets goals and objectives, identifies the purpose of a language task, plans for a language task and seeks practice opportunities. The last part, evaluating, is self-monitoring and self-evaluating. Vandergrift (1999, pp. 390) concludes metacognitive strategy include over viewing and linking, setting objectives, planning, monitoring and evaluating. Over viewing and linking means that the learner takes a comprehensive viewing on a key concept, rule, or set of linguistic materials to learn the purpose of the conversation, to memorize vocabulary, and make associations. For instance, before a chapter in an English textbook, the learner should look through the whole chapter about its vocabulary, grammar, purpose, arrangement, etc. This will promote the learner a lot and make the reading more effective and efficient. After objectives are set, a learner can choose objectives, such as short term, mid-term and long-term. Planning is to predict and learn the basic language for an upcoming language task. For instance, before giving a call to the airline ticket agency, one can practice the conversation in advance. In monitoring, the learner will make an effort to notice and correct the mistakes with the language skills. For example, the learner should write down the difficulties with the language and then asks the teacher or native speaker for help. This skill must always be used without killing communication. It is an efficient way to learn from mistakes, rather than avoid mistake-making. Evaluating means evaluating the whole progress or progress in any of the four skills. One can use a tape recorder to evaluate speech or pay concern to how natives are responding to the words to check the understanding.

Based on the researches before him, Zheng Min (2000, pp. 12), puts forward a classification scheme on the basis that many areas involve metacognition, even including social interaction. Her classification scheme emphasizes the significance of metacognitive strategy and clearly suggests metacognitive strategy is of higher order. She claims that

self-monitoring plays a dominant role in human beings' thinking system and many researchers in language learning strategy have confirmed the importance of metacognitive strategy. However, in Zheng's classification, the metacognitive strategy only refers to "monitoring" while metacognitive strategy in O'Malley and Chamot's classification consist of several subcategories such as advance attention, self-evaluation, self-management etc.

However, a number of factors are assumed to affect the use of metacognitive strategy. These factors should not be ignored. With to students of the same cultural background, their use of metacognitive strategy is mainly influenced by the following factors. First is the learner's proficiency of the target language. It shows by some qualitative analyses that effective foreign language students are purposeful in their approach to a task, monitored their comprehension, and effectively used their prior knowledge while working on a task (O'Malley&Chamot, 1990, pp. 140-141). Second factor is task requirements. It has been found that the complexity of a language is related to the frequency of strategy use. When the language task is difficult, learners tend to use metacognitive strategy mostly in order to ensure a success. When the task is too easy learners need not to use metacognitive strategy. For sometimes it does not require a cognitive process, let alone metacognitive process. Next one is the learners' individual differences such as attitude, motivation, age, personality, gender, general learning style, aptitude, etc. Although learners' individual differences also have great effect on the use of metacognitive strategy, some of these differences can not be changed such as age and gender are difficult to change, as well as learning style aptitude and personality. But on the other hand, most studies which test the effect of motivation have found a strong correlation between the motivation and language learning success. In reviewing the effect of different factors on the development of learning strategy, Oxford and Nyikos (1989, pp. 291) conclude that motivation appears to correlate best with strategy and that increased motivation and self-esteem led to more effective use of appropriate strategy and vice versa. So during the strategy training, teacher should try every means to motivate his students so as to ensure the smooth development of students' use of metacognitive strategy.

O'Malley and Chamot give a detailed division of metacognitive strategy. Among the main metacognitive strategy, Advance Organizers refers to the making of a general but comprehensive preview of the organized concept or principle in an anticipated learning activity; Directed attention is decided in advance to attend in general to a learning task and to ignore irrelevant distracters. Selective attention is decided in advance to attend to specific aspects of language input of situational details which will cue the retention of language input. Self-management means understanding the conditions which helps one to learn and arrange for the presence of those conditions. Advance preparation is the preparing for and rehearsing linguistic components necessary to carry out and upcoming language task. Self-monitoring is correcting one's speech for accuracy in pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary, or for appropriateness related to the setting or to the people who are present. Delayed production is consciously decided to postpone speaking in order to learn initially through listening comprehension; self-evaluation means checking out one's outcome of one's own language learning against an internal measure of completeness and accuracy and lastly, self-reinforcement is giving oneself rewards for success.

IV. METACOGNITIVE STRATEGY IN LISTENING COMPREHENSION

Christine (2002, pp. 185) conducts a study in Singapore to examine a group of Chinese ESL learners' listening strategy and the tactics that operationalised these strategy. He collects data by using a retrospective verbalization procedure. The study reveals that both effective and ineffective listeners make use of prior knowledge, text and context but the effective listeners use more inferencing, comprehension monitoring and comprehension evaluation strategy than ineffective listeners. At the same time the study shows the hierarchic relationships between strategy behaviors during listening. Dreyer and Oxford (1996, pp. 145) study the correlation of strategy use of Afrikaans at the Potchefstroom University and ESL proficiency represented by TOEFL score. The study finds significant correlation with metacognitive strategy ranking first ($r=.64$, $p<.001$). Studies focusing on reading, writing and vocabulary acquisition more or less reveal the correlation between metacognitive strategy use and its respective proficiency.

In 1984, Huang Xiaohua finished her postgraduate thesis named "An investigation of learning strategy in oral communication that Chinese EFL learners in China employ"(Huang, 1985). In 1985, she and her tutor published the thesis "Learning strategy for oral communication" in "Applied Linguistics", which is the first paper concerning learning strategy published on the international journal in China. This study reviewed the relation between the use of strategy and the oral level of the senior English-majors. Chen (1990) published on "Language learning" "A study of communication strategy in inter-language production by Chinese EFL learners". This research described the frequency, types and the validity of strategy used by English-majors. In the late 1980's, Wu Yian made a most comprehensive survey on the Chinese English-majors. In this project, they list learning strategy as one of factors that influence the English performance and published "A study of the quality of Chinese English-majors" in "Foreign Language Teaching and Research". In 1995 Wen Qifang studied learning concept and strategy of non-English-Majors. In 1997 she made a both qualitative and quantitative study, titled as "The Change of the Concept and Strategy of English-Majors". In 1996 she published a book named "The Theory of English Learning Strategy". Hu (1997) once reported listening strategy training in Northwest Industrial University. As to the specific procedure, the author only gave very simple description: part of the class time would be made use for strategy training for the experimental class while control class would be made use of the class time listening to the material repeatedly.

There is difference among the different proficient learners. Vandergrift (1997, pp. 387) looked at the strategy used by

learners of different grades in some high schools in Canada learning French. His sample is composed by students in their first, second and fifth years of French language study (called novice) and students in their eighth year of study (called intermediate). He found that novice listeners relied heavily on elaboration, inference and transfer to grasp meaning, and that they overcame their limited knowledge of words by using encyclopedic knowledge. At the intermediate level, he found the students employ metacognitive strategy much than at the novice level in which they use predominant use of cognitive strategy, especially elaboration and inference. In this study, it is found that the largest percentage of the strategy reported by the subjects is cognitive strategy. The results of this study also suggest that the biggest difference between successful and less successful learners seems to lie in the use of metacognitive strategy. The successful listeners are better at employing metacognitive strategy to facilitate their cognitive processing of input information. On the other hand, the less effective listeners lack the regulating control of metacognitive strategy to help them in efficient comprehension. He Xin (2007, pp. 25) found that the high-level learners are good at using such metacognitive strategy as inferring, pre-listening skimming, getting familiar with the different listening material, i.e. using the encyclopedic knowledge to predict the difficult parts and identify the key words to work out the motif; the adjustment of attention, etc. His questionnaire revealed that high level students use metacognitive strategy more frequently than the low level students.

In 1998, Huang Zidong (1998, pp. 46) concluded eight representatives of listening strategy research abroad. In 1987, Murphy found advanced students pay more attention to "individualization", inferring, self-description and making hypotheses than poor students are inclined to use discourse strategy by researching college students enrolled in ESL classes at intermediate level. With the same level of students, O' Malley (1989) concluded that the principal strategic resources students deployed to aid in comprehension self-monitoring, elaboration and inferring differentiate effective students from ineffective ones. Application of strategy is closely related to the phases of listening comprehension. The fourth one is from Laviosa (1991). He studied five proficient students of learning Italian to find that each subject varies greatly in using listening strategy and the strategy used by students are closely related to each other. The sixth is Vandergrift's research on French learners (1990). Elementary level students mainly use cognitive strategy such as elaboration, transfer and inferring; intermediate level students not only use above cognitive strategy but also use other metacognitive strategy. Bacon's study in 1992 is the seventh representative of listening strategy research. The subjects are fifty Spanish learners with English as native language. He found that students' application of listening comprehension strategy changes in accordance with the sequence and difficulty of discourse, but the change doesn't distinctively affect comprehension. Girls are better than boys at using various metacognitive strategy and can adjust better to the difficult discourse. However, girls are more mechanical in using cognitive strategy while boys are quite flexible in using some cognitive strategy. The last representative is Vogely's (1995). By studying eighty-three Spanish students, he concluded that students in first semester are best at recollecting the task and can apply various strategy more effectively, the following groups are students in third and fourth semester, the second semester are worst.

Influenced by the westerners' study, the research in China about metacognition becomes more mature. China National Knowledge Infrastructure (CNKI), which was founded in 1995, is the biggest database in China. According to CNKI, there are about 714 articles about metacognition. 569 articles are in Chinese Journal Full-text Database (CJFD) and 145 are in Chinese Selected Doctoral Dissertations and Master's Theses Full-text Databases (CDMD). The number of articles in metacognition is increasing in five years from 2002 to 2006 and most of them are published in different kinds of journals. Though metacognition is a word in psychology, there are few in psychological journals. Because more and more researchers from different fields take part in research about metacognition, many new thoughts emerge and can be searched. From the perspective of research objects, there are children, pupils, students of high school, successful university students, unsuccessful university students, adults and teachers. However, the focus are still student and many researches bring good effects in improving students' learning and thinking on one's own ability and help to achieve the learning goal. From the perspective of research field, there are metacognitive researches under multi-media condition, metacognitive contrast research, research about the relationship between metacognition and thinking quality and so on. From the perspective of teaching work, there are the researches of metacognition in mathematics, physics, chemistry, Chinese and English.

Li (2002) conducts a research and finds out a significant correlation between language proficiency and metacognitive strategy ($r=.300$). Yang and Zhang (2002) conduct a study focusing on metacognitive strategy in terms of its influence on reading proficiency. Using a self-designed questionnaire, the study shows a significant correlations between metacognitive strategy and reading proficiency ($r =.42, p<.01$). Su Yuanlian (2003, pp. 1) uses a self-designed questionnaire and a training course to investigate the effect of listening learning strategy instruction on Chinese EFL beginners' listening comprehension performance. As to the above mentioned, although there have been a deal of studies on the strategy use and language performance, there is little experimental research with attention to listening strategy, not mention research focusing on metacognitive strategy and the experimental research of metacognitive strategy in primary English listening.

O' Malley and Chamot point out that those students without metacognitive approaches are essentially learners without direction and ability to review their process, accomplishments and failure learning directions (O' Malley, 1985, pp. 557). Brown and Palincsar, when commenting in the failure of strategy training to transfer to new learning activities, noted "much of this difficulty could be attributed to the failure to combine metacognitive strategy with cognitive

strategy during learning (Brown, 1982, pp. 46).” Peter Skehan (1998, pp. 38) notes that reflection, monitoring and evaluation are the key factors in applying learning strategy. Without them what the learners acquire are just some scattered learning techniques which are not helpful in the whole process of learning. It was also revealed in Wen Qiufang’s (1996) individual case study that good learners display extraordinary ability in macro or micro management of their learning process. They frequently reflect upon and evaluate their achievements in learning process. And, the ability of manipulating the cognitive process is one of the essential skills that teachers can teach and help the second language learners develop.

V. CONCLUSION

Listening is a highly complex, interactive process. With the review of the related literature, the success of listening, to a great extent, depends on the use of metacognitive strategy. In conclusion, this thesis provides a new angle from which listening teaching is explored. It is expected that this study could help not only the students but also the English teachers.

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A Study of Pragmatic Functions of Fuzziness in News Reports from the Perspective of Adaptation Theory

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Abstract—Accuracy is one of the biggest features of news reports, but in fact, we often note that news reports will use a lot of fuzziness, which plays an important role in these news reports. Grounded on Verschueren's adaptation theory, mainly choosing the representative news reports of China Daily and USATODAY as an example, this paper analyzes the pragmatic functions of fuzziness in news reports and illustrates the rationality of fuzziness in these news reports and reveals that appropriate use of fuzziness in news reports is conducive to the rigor and accuracy of news reports.

Index Terms—pragmatic functions, fuzziness, news report, Adaption Theory

I. INTRODUCTION

News report plays an increasingly important role in people's life. It is not only a tool of delivering information, but also as necessary linguistic materials of linguists who can do further study for readers to deeper understand news reports. Fuzziness is one of the most significant writing methods in news reports. L.A.Zadeh was the first one to raise aspects of "fuzzy set". In 1965, he published his famous article *Fuzzy Set* with aspects of the so-called fuzzy set theory. After that, there are many scholars continue to talk about the fuzziness, of course, different scholars have different opinions about the fuzziness. Based on different concepts and different classifications of fuzziness and combined with the theories of cooperative principles and politeness principles, people interested in this field began to do the relevant research. However, this research mainly focuses on the pragmatic functions of fuzziness in news reports based on adaptation theory. To be specific, it aims to answer the following research questions: 1) How is fuzziness used in news reports to adapt to the mental world? 2) How is fuzziness used in news reports to adapt to the physical world? 3) How is fuzziness used in news reports to adapt to the social world? 4) How does fuzziness implement its pragmatic functions in news reports?

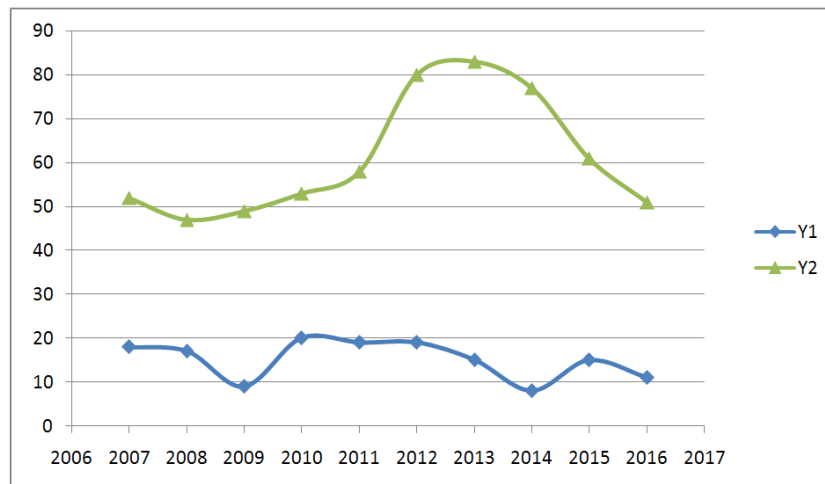
II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Studying of Fuzziness Abroad

L.A.Zadeh was the first one to raise aspects of "fuzzy set". In 1965, he published his famous article *Fuzzy Set* with aspects of the so-called fuzzy set theory which made the foundation of fuzziness research. From his article, we found that not all objects had clear-out boundaries, which played a significant role in realizing the fuzzy language. Lakoff(1972) believed that the concepts of natural language are vague, their boundaries are not clear. With illustrating the variable curves when "very", "sort of", "pretty", and "rather" were added to an original fuzzy word, he concluded that the membership of the original word changed in various degrees when different hedges were used. Hedge is one kind of fuzzy language and Lakoff's study made great contribution to fuzzy language study from semantic and grammatical perspective. In addition, Kempson discussed semantic fuzzy language by writing *Semantic Theory* in 1977. In 1995, Thomas concluded the pragmatic functions of fuzzy language. He pointed out that fuzziness made people's language more or less interesting, besides, he also said that fuzziness can strength the force of one person's message and make more polite and face-saving. What's more, Jueker, Smith and Ludge (2003) also put forward that fuzziness appears in many situations for different purposes in our daily communication, which is almost a common phenomenon.

B. Studying of Fuzzy Language at Home

In order to fully know about the dynamic researches of hedges in recent 10 years at home, I have looked through National Knowledge Infrastructure (NKI). Surprisingly, there are quite a few core journals discussing about fuzziness and not too many articles about fuzziness. For the sake of clear review, I have made a table between core journals and articles from 2007 to 2016.



Y1 stands for the number of core journals about fuzziness researches, while Y2 stands for the number of papers including master and doctor about fuzziness researches.

From the table, we can see that basically there is a stable trend of researches fuzziness, but between 2012 and 2014, especially 2013, the researches of fuzziness reached the summit. Besides, there is no big gap between the lowest and the highest. In contrast, the number of core journals is relatively less.

Next, I will review the studies of fuzziness during ten years at home. About the fuzziness, these researches can be generally classified the several aspects. Grice (1975) stated that remarks used by speakers wanted to be understandable in a particular conversation, speakers must adhere to some maxims: the maxim of quality, the maxim of quantity, the maxim of relevance and the maxim of manner. The Grice called these maxims Cooperative Principle. As the complementary of cooperative principle, in 1978, Brown and Levinson proposed the Politeness Theory, and then developed by G.N. Leech. Based on his observation, Leech (1983) proposed the Politeness Principle, which helped to explain why people tended to use fuzzy language to express their intentions indirectly. Based on these two theories, many scholars have done the relevant research. Wang (2008) analyzed hedges in American Journalistic English in the basic of cooperative principle and conversational implicature. He showed that news requires the expression to be objective, timely and accurately, while hedges get the features of indirectness, cancelbility, markedness and indefiniteness. From the pragmatic perspective, hedges in journalistic English have certain position and characteristics. Zhao(2009) conducted a study of fuzziness in news based on the cooperative principle, relevance theory and politeness theory. She pointed out by violating Grice's cooperative principle in news fuzzy language is in order to follow another principle. Using fuzzy language in news report is also a way of protecting speakers' face and performing some pragmatic functions. At the same time, Li (2009) also did the similar research but the difference is combining the diplomatic language with cooperative principle and speech act theory. Li (2009) said the diplomatic language is normal, conservative and accurate language and it needs to pay attention to the language strategy. Speakers intentionally used some vague language to strengthen the language flexibility and make language expression more political and implicit.

But quite a lot of scholars broke through the previous theories, especially cooperative principle and politeness principle, and found relevant new theories such as the theory of adaption and the relevance theory. In 2008, Zhang Junyi did the analysis about fuzziness in news language and its adaptability. He pointed that accuracy is the important requirement for news report, but Verschueren's Adaptation Theory may offer a sound explanation why fuzzy language existed in news report. Song (2010) attempted to give a detailed analysis of the adaptation of vague language in English news discourse and found that the application of vagueness in English news discourse results from choice making in communication. Her study may provide us some experience to further study. Of course, Zhu(2011), Zhao(2011), Jie(2012), Jiang(2016) also did the different researches based on adaptation theory. Both Jiang (2016) and Jie(2012) conducted a contrastive study of hedges in political aspect.

III. DEFINITION OF FUZZINESS AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

A. Definition

Wu Tiejing, professor in Beijing Normal University, is the founder to introduce fuzzy-set theory into China. In 1979, professor Wu published his famous article *The Elementary Research on Fuzzy Language*, which was the first article about fuzzy linguistics in China. Meanwhile, he has published articles about *fuzzy words*, *fuzzy concepts* and *the relationships between fuzzy words and terminology*, *lexicology*, etc, covering a wide range of the research about fuzziness in Chinese. He paid much attention to fuzzy words, for instances, words indicating time, color, size, age, etc. Based on the previous researches on classification of hedges, professor Wu divided the hedges into the following four types with three standards:

1. The first classification is according to the words they will modify.

- a. Hedges modifying only fuzzy words:
Very beautiful, *essentially* generous
 - b. Hedges modifying both fuzzy words and precise words:
Highly prestigious, *close to* the beginning point, *about* 8 o'clock
2. The second classification is according to grammatical categories or parts of speech.
- a. Words: adv. Very, actually
Adj. regular
 - b. sweetish
 - c. Conjunctions: so...that
 - d. Phrases and clauses expressing subjective ideas: I think, according to...(one's impression, one's address...), etc
3. The third classification is according to upper or lower limit of hedges.
- a. The upper limit is determined, whereas the lower limit is not. For instance: *very* tall
 - b. The lower limit is determined where the upper limit is not. For instance: *a little bit* tall
 - c. Neither the lower nor the upper limit is determined. For instance: *not* tall and *not* short, *not* fat and *not* thin

Professor Wu (1979) introduced fuzzy-set theory into China and had done many researches about it, which offered us a general introduction about fuzzy language in China. Fuzzy theory, hedges and vague language went in to a new era in China. Though the study is still rooted in semantic category, from then on, a lot of domestic researchers have been interested in the study of hedges. It is also the basis for using of hedges in pragmatics and discourse analysis.

B. Theoretical Framework

Adaptation theory was first referred by Verschueren in his thesis "Understanding Pragmatics" in 2000. In the theory, he pointed that the use of language is that speakers make their choices constantly in order to adapt the need of communication because of internal and external language reason. According to Verschueren's theory, it should link linguistic features and other discourse environments because language has three features: variability, negotiability and adaptability. These three features connected with each other. Variability refers to that there are a series of choices can be chosen in language using. Negotiability refers to choose a certain language grounded on some pragmatic principle and pragmatic strategies; while variability and negotiability provides necessary conditions for adaptability that refers to language users can make different flexible choices to satisfy different communicative needs. As an important theory of linguistic theory, adaptation theory has provided a new perspective for studying of language phenomenon.

More importantly, in order to achieve communication purpose, both sides have to adapt both language contexts and communicative contexts. From the perspective of adaptation theory, contextual correlates of adaptation means communicative contexts. In Verschueren's opinion, contextual correlates of adaptability include all the elements in the communicative context which involve aspects of the physical surroundings and of the interlocutors' state of mind as well as social relationships between addressers and interpreters. Then we will talk about communicative from three aspects.

1. The Mental World

Mental world is about the language users' psychological factors, including language user's emotion, characteristics, beliefs, motivations, intentions and so on. Cognitive factors and emotional factors are two main categories of communicative context. The process of language users' choosing language is the flexible process of adapting to the mental world of utterers and interpreters.

2. The Social World

It seems to that the language choice is closely related to social elements. The social world concerned about social environment, social principle and social standards. Verschueren(2000) pointed that some social factors affect linguistic choice, such as nationality, race, religious, education level, age, gender and so on. Besides, linguistic choice can also affects social relation or social power. Therefore, in order to achieve a success communicative purpose, the language users have to adapt the social world by choosing different language.

3. The Physical World

There are two fields were included in the physical world, that is, temporal reference and spatial reference. Specifically, it is a context including time, space, topics and so on. According to Verschueren's theory, the physical world contained factors such as language users, topic, target, gestures, bodily postures, physical appearance, biological property and so on. If any element of them is changed, it will lead to different certain psychological states. Of course, it will influence the language choice and communication form.

IV. PRAGMATIC FUNCTIONS OF FUZZINESS

Adaptation theory attempts to seek the human language communication mechanism and role of society and certain culture background to reveal various phenomena appearing the human language. Fuzziness is the nature of language. Certain fuzziness used in news reports plays an indispensable role which is beneficial to individual, society and even a country to better understand them. Adaptation theory offers a methodology basis to analyze the news reports. It has broad effect in pragmatic field.

A. Adaption of Mental World

1. Adaption of Reader's Interest

Example 1: More than 3,000 Tibetan antelopes stopped under the shadow of the Wudaoliang North Bridge on the Qinghai-Tibet Railway. After a few hesitant minutes, the antelopes passed through the shadow to continue their migratory journey.

(China Daily, Oct. 5, 2017)

As it is shown in example 1, these expressions "more than" and "a few" are fuzzy expressions that are enough to adapt reader's interest. This news report is about the environmental problem of Tibet, however, when readers pay attention to "more than 3,000 antelopes" and "a few hesitant minutes", they may think that what happened with antelopes. Reporters use fuzzy expressions to attract readers' reading need and to get the value of news report. More importantly, news reports like this attain the purpose of calling people to protect environment.

2. Adaption of Reporters' Self-protection

Example 2: The officials said the two wounded were taken to Niamey, the capital, and are in stable condition. The officials were not authorized to discuss the incident publicly so spoke on condition of anonymity.

Example 3: The White House said President Donald Trump was notified about the attack Wednesday night as he flew aboard Air Force One from Las Vegas to Washington. Trump was in Las Vegas meeting with victims of Sunday night's shooting massacre, along with first responders and doctors.

(USA TODAY, Oct. 4, 2017)

Both "The official said" and "The White House said" in example 2 and example 3 are fuzzy expressions. The reporters use these fuzzy expressions to report news, one the one hand, which illustrates that the news is from official or important organizations and it is real and objective; on the other hand, this avoids reporters from any responsibility if information is not correct.

B. Adaption to Social World

A lot of social factors are included in social world. This article just focuses on adaption to political group and adaption to negative influence on society.

1. Adaptation to Political Group

Example 4: We BRICS leaders believe that practical cooperation is the root of BRICS cooperation.... Thanks to our efforts over the past year, we have made new strides toward greater connectivity in trade, investment, currency and finance, and infrastructure. We all stress the need to place more emphasis on innovation, seize the historic opportunities offered by the new round of industrial revolution and improve economic structure at a faster pace so as to secure more resilient, sustainable and quality growth for all.

(China daily, Sep. 5, 2017)

This is about the Xi's remarks at the press conference of the BRICS Xiamen summit. Although it is about of the remarks of Xi's, however, the fuzzy expression "we BRICS leaders believe..." is used, which is a strategic method to achieve the successful communicative purpose. Besides, "the past year" "greater connectivity" "more emphasis" "historic opportunities" "more resilient, sustainable and quality" all of these fuzzy expressions are properly used in political situation, which expresses the high expectations of President Xi standing for China, and adapting the standards of language use in news report.

Example 5: In his message, Xi extended deep sympathy to the US government and people, profound condolences to the victims and sincere solicitude to those wounded, and said he wished for a quick recovery for the injured.

(China Daily, Oct. 4, 2017)

It is about Xi sends condolence to Trump. We know there are complex relationships between countries. President Xi stands for a country sending the condolence to Trump after happening of mass shooting in Las Vegas. By using fuzzy expressions "deep" "profound" "sincere" "quick", it is not only expressing the President Xi's real emotion, but also adapting the national situation.

2. Adaption to Avoid Negative Influence on Society

Example 6: It was happening: A mass shooting that would turn out to be the worst in U.S. history. And she was standing in the middle of it.

The volley of gunshots lasted just 11 minutes. But in that span, Stephen Paddock, 64, a chronic gambler, real estate investor and former mail carrier from Mesquite, Nev., operating from a 32nd-floor perch in a glass-clad high-rise hotel, used a small arsenal to kill at least 58 people and wound more than 500.

Paddock brought with him "in excess of 10 suitcases," according to police. The cases held at least 23 weapons, many of them rifles ranging in size from .308 to .223 caliber, along with two tripods.

(UAS TODAY, Oct. 5, 2017)

It is about Las Vegas mass shooting report. The disaster news is naturally not good news for all of the people. Therefore, proper use of fuzzy language can avoid some negative effect on society. Fuzzy expressions including "mass" "at least" "more than" show that this shooting is so heavy and so bad, but using them can adapt the habits of news report expressions trying to reduce the harm of disaster for people.

C. Adaption to Physical World

Excepting temporal references and spatial reference are included in the physical world, other factors such as physical

appearance, postures, biological property are also included. Spatial reference largely focuses on certain spatial relationship such as south and north, while temporal reference includes event time, reference time, and so on.

1. Adaption to time

Example 7: "(China's) GDP growth is revised upward in 2017 in light of better-than-expected performance in the first half of the year," the World Bank said in its latest East Asia and Pacific Economic Update.

(China Daily, Oct. 5, 2017)

It is about the World Bank now expects China's economy to expand in 2017. In this news report, "*in the first half of the year*" is the fuzzy expression, and as a piece of news it is not necessary to report exactly time, that is not to saying that fuzzy expression like this will influence the accuracy of news report instead of this fuzzy expression giving readers a total conception that China's economy has expanded than before. It is appropriate to use this fuzzy expression in this news report because it adapts the expression of time in news report.

Example 8: Just after 10 p.m. Sunday, Michelle Compton was enjoying herself, listening to the act she'd come all this way to see: Jason Aldean, the night's headliner at the Route 91 Harvest festival.

A few doors down from Paddock, Sonny Morgan, an Atlanta-area businessman in town for a conference, dozed in front of "Sunday Night Football" when he woke to the sounds of gunshots.

The shooting stopped momentarily, but when it picked up again, around 10:21 p.m., one officer reported that he saw a "strobe light" coming from the hotel's north tower.

(UAS TODAY, Oct. 4, 2017)

It is about Las Vegas mass shooting report. In this news report, "*after*" "*around*" are both fuzzy expressions. Because of this report about important shooting event that almost every person will pay attention to, using fuzzy expressions satisfy readers' need. Like this report, no one knows what exactly time it happened. The use of fuzzy expressions is adapting the standards of news report: quick and immediate.

2. Adaption to Space

Example 9: JERUSALEM - A Palestinian gunman killed three Israeli security officers and wounded another outside a West Bank settlement on Tuesday morning before he was shot dead, Israeli police said.

The shootout took place outside Har Adar, an upscale Jewish settlement northwest of Jerusalem, near the seam zone between Israel and the Israeli-occupied West Bank.

(Xinhua, Sep. 27, 2017)

The news reports require to be timely, so if there is an important event, reporters have to report. In this example, maybe reporters don't have accurate address, so they use fuzzy expressions instead, such as "*outside*" "*northwest*". These expressions are not losing news value rather than adapting the news characteristics that people can get the firsthand material quickly.

V. CONCLUSION

Although accuracy is one of the most important features of news reports, however, this article shows that proper use of fuzziness in news reports can adapt pragmatic principles and communicative principles, which can spark a strong performance of news reports, such as simpler, more balanced, more implicit. Analyzing the proper use of fuzziness in latest news reports grounded on adaptation theory is not only providing a new perspective for pragmatics study, but beneficial to people better understanding the news reports.

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Investigating the Interplay between Age Range and Vocabulary Learning among EFL Learners

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Abstract—The present study aimed to examine the relationship between age range and vocabulary learning among pre-intermediate Iranian EFL learners. To this aim, 50 pre-intermediate Iranian EFL learners, male (N= 20) and female (N=30), were selected from a private language institute based on their performance on the Oxford Placement Test (OPT). They were divided into two groups: teenager and adult learners. Before intervention, a pretest of vocabulary was conducted to determine students' vocabulary knowledge. Then, vocabularies were presented in dialog, word power and reading texts using a monolingual dictionary in five sessions interval for the both groups. After the intervention, a post-test of vocabulary was administered to examine the possible improvement. The data obtained from the administration of the pre-test and the post-test were analyzed using SPSS software. The results revealed that there was no significant relationship between the performance of teenager and adult groups in their vocabulary learning; and there was no significant difference between the performance of teenager and adult groups in their vocabulary learning. This research potentially has some implications that may help English language teachers, students, EFL learners and educational syllabus designers.

Index Terms—interplay, age range, vocabulary learning, pre-intermediate, EFL learners

I. INTRODUCTION

Learner's differences as well as age, gender, proficiency level and so on have a considerable role in the process of language teaching and learning. Theoretically and practically, learners' age is determined as one of the influential and crucial issue in the area of second or foreign language learning (Munoz, 2010). He also mentioned that the age impacts have been the research object basically in natural contexts where the immigrants' proficiency level in the target language has been considered on the foundation of their age of arrival in the ESL and EFL communities. According to Torras, Tragant and Garc á (1997), the general idea relating to the age at which children should start learning a foreign language in schools is impressively affected by findings gained in naturalistic language learning contexts. The effects of age on different fields of language learning as well as main skills and sub-skills have been taken into account (Sadeghi&Taghi Attar, 2013; Shoshtari, Samian & Khazaei, 2013). In the present study, the effect of age range on vocabulary learning was examined.

Learning vocabulary is one of the most important aspects of acquiring a language without which communication would be impossible. Actually, vocabulary is no longer regarded "an ignored dimension of language learning" (Meara, 1980, p. 221) but rather than has transformed into section and parcel of successful English language teaching and learning (Coady & Huckin, 1997). Learning vocabulary items is the key to learn a foreign language and this is received by great attention from the side of both the learners and instructors. According to Richards and Renandya (2002), vocabulary is regarded as a key element of language proficiency and supplies much of the basis for how well students speak, listen, read and write. Increasing vocabulary knowledge, as Sadeghi (2013) assert, is considered the basis of language learning. Inadequate knowledge of vocabulary has been the source of problem for many students in the process of language learning (Maftoon, Hamidi, & Sarem, 2012).

Acquiring a vast knowledge of vocabulary items has been the main concern a foreign language learner faces (Ebrahimpourtaher & Eissaie, 2015). In other words, vocabulary learning is a complicated, gradual and time-consuming process. The optimal age for learning vocabulary may be an important issue in accelerating this process. To fill the gap, this study attempted to examine the possible relationship between age range and vocabulary learning among pre-intermediate Iranian EFL learners.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Different scholars defined vocabulary differently. Some of these definitions are provided. Kamil and Hiebert (2005) regard vocabulary as the knowledge about words as well as words meaning which might be presented in receptive and productive forms. Kamil and Hiebert (2005, p. 2-3) use it to refer to "the kind of word that students must know to read increasingly demanding text with comprehension."

Knowing a word, as Harmer (1991) puts it, entails knowing about word use, meaning, and word formation as well as grammar. Stahl (2003) defines the vocabulary as the knowledge of words in the both productive and receptive forms. Moreover, Nunan (1999) defined vocabulary as a list of target language words and they should be acquired in the process of language learning. In similar vein, Adger (2002) believes how people use and store words are important in addition to how they learn words and the relationship between them.

The role of vocabulary learning is prominent in the process of language teaching and learning. As Lewis (1993) claims that "lexis is the core or heart of language" (p. 89). In order to learn an L2/ FL second or foreign language, vocabulary seems the most central and critical to the typical language learners (Zimmerman, 1997). Vocabulary items are the basic building blocks of any language and the meaning components forming larger structures like phrases, clauses, sentences, paragraphs, and the whole text (Read, 2000). Specifically, Schmitt (2010) points out that as learners enhance greater fluency and expression in English, it is important for them to learn more productive vocabulary knowledge and to improve their own personal vocabulary learning strategies. Having good knowledge about various types of vocabulary learning strategies and applying them in appropriate situations, students can expedite the process of vocabulary learning (Ranalli, 2003). Applying strategies independently of a teacher is the most influential method to learn vocabulary (Nation, 2001).

Vocabulary plays an important role in foreign language learning. Knowing vocabulary items has a key role in the success of language learning. (De Bot, Paribakht, & Wesche, 1997). EFL learners should consider the development of rich vocabulary the crucial element of language learning (Nunan, 1991, p. 118). Vocabulary becomes an essential part in foreign language learning. Schmitt and McCarthy (1997) have drawn attention to the fact that vocabulary learning has been regarded as one of the most important components of L2 acquisition. Similarly, Rubin (1987) points out that at the heart of mastering a foreign language is vocabulary learning. In line with that, as Rubin and Thompson (1994, p. 79) argue, "Without knowing a lot of words, mastering the target language is quite difficult". Many researchers believe, vocabulary knowledge is not a single but rather a multifaceted and complex construct that involves understanding of a wide range of word knowledge and aspects (Nation, 2001; Read, 2000). Wilkins (1972) argues that "Without grammar, very little can be conveyed and without vocabulary, nothing can be conveyed" (p.11). According to Nation (2001), learners' final attainment in learning a foreign language depends on whether they can master a certain amount of vocabulary. The objective of the course determines the amount of vocabulary items to be taught.

Age is one of the many individual difference types which has its role in language learning. As Ellis (2008) asserts, younger language learners are more successful in the process of language learning. Proponents of the Critical Period Hypothesis stress the fact that language acquisition should occur before puberty in order to have optimal language learning on the part of the learners (Sarem & Hamidi, 2010). This optimal age is said to be within the first ten years of life, when the brain retains its plasticity (as cited in Ellis, 2008).

Researchers have concentrated on the need for language learners in order to improve the vocabulary learning, especially in second language acquisition (Schmitt, 2000). Researchers have proposed various vocabulary learning strategies for different situations. For example, Schmitt (2000) mentions the following two purposes: (1) strategies for discovering the meaning of a new word consisting of determination and social strategies, and (2) strategies for consolidating a word including social, memory, cognitive and metacognitive strategies. In determination strategies, learners use the guessing technique to discover the meaning of the words in the context. In social strategies learners ask for others' help to discover the meaning of the new words. Learners also need to use a variety of social, memory, cognitive and metacognitive strategies to consolidate their vocabulary knowledge. An instance of the use of social strategies for consolidating is cooperative learning in groups practicing the words with each other. Relating the word to some items which have been previously learned is an example of memory strategies. In cognitive strategies learners try to learn the new words through repetition and using mechanical means such as word lists, flash cards, and vocabulary notebooks. Finally, through the use of metacognitive strategies learners control and evaluate their own learning (Schmitt, 2000).

At first, this period, as claimed by Lenneberg (1967), was the same as the period accounted for the concept of lateralization of the language function happening mostly to the left hemisphere of the brain. Research on cases who suffered brain injuries showed that damage to this particular hemisphere (left side) caused few speech disorders; however, fast repair was witnessed in the case of children but not adults (as cited in Lenneberg, 1967). Nevertheless, later work by Whitaker, Bub, and Leventer (1981) did not seem to agree on the exact age of lateralization, leading to doubts concerning the neurological foundation of the CPH. This controversy emphasizes on both whether there are significant differences in L2 learning due to age, and also on the theoretical elaborations for those distinguishes which investigators argue to have found. Supporting this fact, Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991) claim that age is only a basic matter for theory building in SLA research studies, and also for policy-making in educational settings.

Different studies have been conducted about the role of age in second or foreign language learning. Chen (2014) examined strategies in language learning employed by (EFL) learners at different educational settings and investigated the impact of age on strategies in language learning. His findings indicated that meaningful relationships existed between the use of memory strategies, compensation strategies, metacognitive strategies, and affective strategies and age groups and. In one particular study done by Riazi, Sadighi, and Zare (2005) it turned out that there was a positive relationship between students' proficiency level and their use of vocabulary learning strategies, especially those

strategies that were cognitively deeper. Age is also another factor affecting students' use of vocabulary learning strategies. In another study which was done by Riazi, Sadighi, and Zare(2005), it was found that as the age of the students increased, their use of cognitive strategies increased as well.

Research Questions and Related Hypotheses

This research was aimed to find out the relationship between age range and vocabulary learning among pre-intermediate Iranian EFL learners. The research questions were as follow:

RQ1. Is there any significant relationship between the performance of teenager and adult groups in their vocabulary learning?

RQ2. Is there any significant difference between the performance of teenager and adult groups in their vocabulary learning?

In accordance with the research questions mentioned above, the following null hypotheses were formulated.

H01. There is no significant relationship between the performance of teenager and adult groups in their vocabulary learning.

H02. There is no significant difference between the performance of teenager and adult groups in their vocabulary learning.

III. METHODOLOGY

Participants

To research the purpose of the study, 50 out of 65 pre-intermediate Iranian EFL learners, male (N= 20) and female (N=30) were selected from a private language institute in Amol, Mazandaran based on their performance on the Oxford Placement Test (OPT). Afterwards, they were divided into 2 groups based on their age: teenagers (13 to 16) with the average of 12.8 and adults (18-22) with the average of 21. The learners' experience in language learning was at least 1 year. The sampling procedure was non-random and purposeful.

Instruments

There were two instruments in this study. The first one was an Oxford Placement Test (Syndicate, 2001). This test was applied to homogenize language learners in the present study based on pre-intermediate level. This test consisted of 60 items in three areas: vocabulary, reading and grammar. The OPT is a highly reliable test. The reliability of the OPT has been reported by Hamidi (2015) to be .82 using KR-21 formula having seventy students studying New Interchange 3 and .86 using a test-retest method with a 2-week interval having ninety students almost finishing Four Corners 4, both of which show high reliability index.

Two 30-item tests which were applied to measure the learners' vocabulary knowledge served as the second instrument of this study. The tests format was multiple choice items and they were teacher-made tests. They were used as pre- and posttests. The frequent words were selected from second interchange by Richards (2005). The reliability of pre- and posttests were calculated, using Kr-21 formula, in pilot tests were about 0.72 and 0.69, respectively. The time limit for doing each of the vocabulary test was 25 minutes.

Data Collection Procedure

The whole procedures of this study were performed in 8 sessions. The first step was to explain the purpose and whole procedures of this study orally. Then the OPT was administered to homogenize the participants. 50 pre-intermediate EFL learners were selected and they were divided into two groups: teenager and adult. Afterwards, a vocabulary pre-test was administered. In the next section, the teacher taught the vocabularies in dialog, word power and reading texts through using a monolingual dictionary in five sessions. Both groups performed this procedure. In the last step, the vocabulary posttest was administered.

Data Analysis

Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) version 21 was used in analyzing the data. The descriptive statistics (mean and standard deviation) and inferential statistics were calculated. To examine the relationship between two variables, the Pearson Product Moment was used. To examine the meaningful difference between two variables, an Independent t-test was used.

IV. RESULTS

Table 1 indicates the correlation between teenager group and vocabulary learning. The sig value (2-tailed) reveals that there is no correlation between the two groups as $p=.61$ is greater than the required .05. In this regard, it can be stated that there is no significant relationship between the performance teenager group and their vocabulary learning.

TABLE 1
PEARSON CORRELATION OF TEENAGER GROUP AND VOCABULARY SCORES

		Teenager group	Vocab scores
Teenager group	Pearson Correlation	1	.036
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.618
	N	25	25
Vocab scores	Pearson Correlation	.036	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.618	
	N	25	25

Table 2 reveals the correlation between the adult group and vocabulary learning. The sig value (2-tailed) reveals that there is no correlation between the two groups as $p=.58$ is greater than the required $.05$. In this regard, it can be stated that there is no significant relationship between the performances of adult group in their vocabulary learning.

TABLE 2
PEARSON CORRELATION OF ADULT GROUP AND VOCABULARY SCORES

		Adult Group	Vocab Scores
Adult Group	Pearson Correlation	1	.034
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.583
	N	25	25
Vocab Scores	Pearson Correlation	.034	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.583	
	N	25	25

Table3 indicates the result of independent sample t-test of the two groups in the pre-test. The p value (.789) in the sig (2-tailed) is greater than $.05$, so it can be stated that there is no statistically significant difference between the performance of teenager and adult groups in the vocabulary learning pre-test.

TABLE 3
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST OF PRE-TEST

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances	t-test for Equality of Means								
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Pretest	Equal variances assumed	.014	.908	-.271	28	.789	-.20000	.73894	-1.71365	1.31365
	Equal variances not assumed			-.271	27.978	.789	-.20000	.73894	-1.71370	1.31370

Table 4 indicates, the sig value (2-tailed) for equal variances is $.058$ which is lower than the required cut-off of $.05$. Therefore, it can be said that there is no statistically meaningful difference between the performances of teenager and adult groups in vocabulary learning. In this regard, the first hypothesis of the study is accepted.

TABLE 4
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST OF POST-TEST

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances	t-test for Equality of Means								
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Posttest	Equal variances assumed	.419	.523	2.567	28	.058	1.60000	.62335	.32312	2.87688
	Equal variances not assumed			2.567	27.618	.058	1.60000	.62335	.32232	2.87768

Discussion

Age is a remarkable variable in language teaching and learning. After analyzing the data, different findings have been taken. The first finding was that there was no significant relationship between the performance of teenager and adult groups in their vocabulary learning. Another finding was that there was no significant difference between the performance of teenager and adult groups in their vocabulary learning.

These findings of the present research are in line with some previous research studies. For example, Izura and Ellis (2002), and Schwartz and Katzir (2012) found the educational environment to be a more important factor than the age factor for vocabulary acquisition on the part of learners. Unless attention is also paid to the educational environment,

including materials, facilities, and teacher quality, commencing EFL education earlier may not have appreciable impact, at least in terms of vocabulary development.

Also this finding was consistent with Shoostari, Samian and Khazaei's (2013) study. They resulted that age range did not have any significant relationship with vocabulary learning.

V. CONCLUSION

As mentioned earlier in this paper, age has been considered a key factor in learning a foreign language. In this regard, the present study attempted to empirically examine the possible relationship between age range and vocabulary learning among pre-intermediate Iranian English as foreign language learners. The results of this study were based of two folds: a) there was no significant relationship between the performance of teenager and adult groups in their vocabulary learning; and b) there was no significant difference between the performance of teenager and adult groups in their vocabulary learning. Although there was no significant relationship between age and vocabulary, according to Ellis (2008), age appears to be a clear factor influencing language learning procedures. The present study shed more light on the concepts of age as an individual factors and vocabulary learning which is considered a skill domain. Iranian EFL teachers and students might find the results of the study beneficial in their process of teaching and learning the English language.

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An Analysis of Vivie in *Mrs. Warren's Profession* Using Narrative Theory

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Abstract—Bernard Shaw (1856-1950) is one of the world famous playwrights, is a household wordsmith for his good humor and satire. In his masterpiece *Mrs. Warren's Profession*, Shaw depicts a literary figure Vivie who embodies new women's yearning for their independence and aspirations of self-values. This paper analyzes Vivie's image through approaches of narrative theory. By using narrative voice reflected in the scene, involvement of implied author in portrayal description, application of feminism in narratology, and dualistic construction in subtext, readers can have a more profound understanding of Vivie's image. Instead of a mouthpiece of "new women", the nature of Vivie's image is just sketched out on the basis of an ideal man under the male-dominated capitalist society. This paper concludes that in the capitalist society women were under the control of patriarchal discourse.

Index Terms—Vivie, narrative theory, narrative voice, implied author, subtext, patriarchal discourse

I. INTRODUCTION

A. Theoretical Significance and Practical Significance

The critics generally believe that in Bernard Shaw's masterpiece *Mrs. Warren's Profession*, Mrs. Warren's daughter Vivie embodies new women's yearning for independence and aspirations of their social values during the period of Victorian age. In fact, only through the analysis of the narrative methods in *Mrs. Warren's Profession* can we help readers to deepen their understandings of Vivie's image. Studies have found that the essence of Vivie's image is just an ideal male model under the patriarchal discourse system rather than a new female's spokesperson. Modeled on the male image, Vivie's image still reflects that the patriarchal discourse controls women.

This paper will deeply analyze the root of double oppression—character repression and economic oppression, suffered greatly by women. It is through analyzing the capitalist mode of production and its greedy nature of pursuing the maximized interests, we can explore Shaw's insights into the oppression and discrimination undergone by women as well as the problem of prostitution; and use this as a trigger to explore the initial views of feminism showed in Shaw's plays.

B. Current Researches

Narrative theory has now become an important perspective in the use of analyzing literary works. Narrative theory is originated in the west, and is famous for its formal criticism. In recent years, with the advance of globalization, it has become one of the vibrant and popular academic thoughts all over the world. Aristotle's *Poetics* is the earliest narrative work. In the eighteenth century discussions of narrative methods (especially in the novels) reached a more adequate and comprehensive stage: from the content of the novel to the form of the novel, and then to the novels' function and the position of readers, etc. In recent years, studies of narratology bring about not just the rapid increase of its research results, and more importantly, it is greatly expanded in the depth and breadth, from the classical narratology which focused on discourse to multivariate narratology in the early 1990s. Today, people become keen to discuss some of the narrative categories, such as the viewpoint, sound and distance involved in narrative theory.

C. Structure of the Thesis

This paper is divided into five parts:

The first part is the introduction, introducing theoretical and practical significance, current researches and structure of this paper.

The second part is literature review, including introduction to the author and introduction to the novel.

The third part is narrative theory, consisting of general introduction, background and three research types of classical narratology, and basic characteristics of post classical narratology.

The fourth part is a detailed analysis of Vivie from the perspective of narrative theory, involving narrative voice reflected in the scene, involvement of implied author in portrayal description, application of feminism in narratology, and dualistic construction in subtext.

The fifth part is the conclusion. By analyzing Vivie's image, it can be safely concluded that the social root of this phenomena lies in the exploitative nature of the capitalist production mode, and only the male discourse can create Vivie's kind of "superwoman".

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Introduction to the Author

Bernard Shaw (1856-1950) is one of the world famous playwrights, winner of Nobel Prize for literature in 1925. As a public speaker, Shaw gained the status of one of the most sought-after orators in England, and is world famous for its good humor and irony language master. Shaw was a freethinker, defender of women's rights, and advocate of equality of income. The life of Bernard Shaw is closely related to socialist movement. He had a careful reading of the *Das Kapital*, and openly stated that he is a socialist. The Norwegian playwright Henrik Ibsen had a great influence on Shaw's thinking. His range of subjects is very broad, of which there are many boutiques. During his long career, Shaw wrote over 50 plays. He continued to write them even in his 90s. Most of his works are known for their interesting and twisting plots, witty dialogues, and vivid characters. The author had always been opposed to literary works with the aim of "art for art's sake" and vulgar and boring fashion dramas, and advocated to write major social problems. Shaw held that art should serve social purposes by reflecting human life, revealing social contradictions and educating common people.

In his works, Shaw acutely mocked hypocrisy and sin in the capitalist society; ruthlessly disclosed the contradictions in its political, economic, cultural, social and other aspects and irrational social phenomenon, therefore his works can always win a good social repercussion. As to Shaw's works, they can be classified into the following four categories based on different features:

Firstly, his earlier plays were generally concentrated on social issues and headed for the repudiation of the contemporary economy, religion, society, morality and sins. *Widower's House* is an irrationally realistic and merciless disclosure of landlordism in the black inner cities where all lands were owned by the landlords. *Mrs. Warren's Profession* is a masterpiece about the economic oppression against female.

Secondly, Shaw did not write many plays on historical topics, through which he watched closely on the contemporary world. The significant and representative plays of this type contain *Saint Joan* published in 1923 and *Caesar and Cleopatra* in 1898.

Thirdly, Shaw created several other plays as well, expounding on the thoughts of "Life Force" which would produce brilliant merits that are equal with God and aim to settle every moral, metaphysical, and social issue in the world. The most representative one of this category is *Man and Superman* came out in 1904.

Fourthly, Shaw also wrote many plays upon various topics: for example, *John Bull's Other Island* describes racial issues; *The Doctor's Dilemma* narrates innocence, incapability, arrogance and stubbornness reflected in the medical community; *Misalliance*, *Getting Married*, and *Fanny's First Day* depicts the family and marital issues; *Pygmalion* is on art and culture; *The Apple Cart* makes a portrait of politics; *Too True to Be Good* is a really good work in Shaw's late stages, containing his nearly suspicion of misery about the themes of the ruthless and insaneness of the First World War and the young's wandering and disillusioning sort of feelings towards life. Nowadays large number of Shaw's plays are always showed around the world, moreover, studies of his plays are frequently been put into effect.

B. Introduction to the Novel

This novel is a screenplay written by British dramatist Bernard Shaw from 1893 till 1894. Mrs. Warren has a 22-year-old daughter, Vivie, the top students of Women's College at Cambridge University, who is one of the few educated women in this community. She is honest, full of self-thought, and works in a law firm in London after graduation. Vivie made friends with Frank on her holiday. One day, Mrs. Warren with her two friends, the Reverend Samuel and Baron George Crofts come here, which makes Vivie feel like a fool by some force. In Vivie's view, George makes her very disgusted because he always puts on a pair of gentleman style, artificially speaking and acting. Mrs. Warren is very rich, but her daughter Vivie does not know her story. Vivie lived in school from primary school to university, and occasionally lived together with her maid who was taking care of her. She rarely met her mother, so she knows nothing about her mother's life. She does not know who her father is and what her mother is doing. Later, Vivie finds that her mother relied on a prostitute hall to accumulate wealth, so she is very dissatisfied with her mother, and angrily swearing her mother's degeneration. Mrs. Warren has to tell her daughter about her personal story, representing that she was forced to that behavior. Her mother's words make her believe that there are more profound reasons behind the surface area of career choice, so she expresses admiration for her mother. She thinks that her mother is a remarkably great woman and has an enterprising courage than anyone else.

The very next day in their house, Vivie is positively asking Praddy about her mother's history when Mrs. Warren and Jazz George Crofts come. Mrs. Warren, George, Reverend Samuel, and Frank chat together, talking about Vivie's marriage. Frank spots on Vivie's money and makes gallantly attempt to her. At the same time, Baron Crofts, five years older than Vivie, also asks her to be his wife. During his pleading, Crofts says that Mrs. Warren is still engaged in a brothel act, and he is one of the shareholders. Mrs. Warren desperately tries to defend for her, saying she had explained that before. Upon hearing, Vivie feels very angry, and she refuses to marry Crofts. For revenge, on his leaving occasion,

Crofts reveals that Frank and Vivie are actually the son and the daughter of the same father; they are brother and sister, and previously Samuel priest and Mrs. Warren had an affair. In extreme pain, Vivie dashes out of the door and leaves her mother. And before leaving, she says she would struggle to live a righteous, moral life relying on her own efforts. She leaves the country cottage and returns to London. From that moment, Vivie never has any pity; she would not find a husband, nor does she need her mother; getting rid of all the entanglement, she put her entire body and mind into the work.

III. NARRATIVE THEORY

A. General Introduction

Narratology is a science of narration. Narration is defined as representations of a series of events whose relationships between time and causality are significant. Therefore, the narrative includes not only novels, but also films, dramas, comic books, news clips, diaries, chronicles and so on. Meanwhile, narrative can be constituted by a variety of symbolic medium, such as written or spoken language, visual image, posture and movement as well as combinations of these actions. Although the narrative is a kind of activity which had existed long after human appeared, narrative theory can be traced back to Aristotle's *Poetics*, but the emergence of the term narrative is only 30 years. In the year 1969 the French critic Tzvetan Todorov used the term narratologie in his *Grammaire Du Decameron* for the first time. Narratology is the study of narrative theory impacted by structuralism; it can be divided into classical and postclassical factions. Classical narratology aims to construct narrative grammar or poetics, meanwhile makes scientific research on components, structure relationships and operation laws of narrative works, and to explore the differences between works within the same structure framework. Post-classical narratology turned their attention to the structural characteristics and the interpretation to the readers about the law of interaction, to the discussion of the significance of specific narrative works, focusing on interdisciplinary research and the reciprocal actions of the author, the text, the reader and the social and historical context.

B. Background and Three Research Types of Classical Narratology

1. Background of Classical Narratology

Classical narratology is usually known as structuralism narratology. The West has a long history for the study of narrative structure, and Aristotle's *Poetics* is the earliest narrative work. Saussure's structural linguistics appearing in 1857 and lasting till 1913 changed the diachronic linguistic research into synchronic linguistic research; he believes that the focus should be the symbol system of language's internal structures rather than the history of these respective components in each their own process of evolution. Saussure laid the cornerstone for the theory of structuralism. In contrast with the traditional novel theory, structuralism narratologist will shift their attention away from the external text to the internal text, and strive to explore the internal structure rules and the relationship between the various elements in a narrative work. In the 1920s Russian formalism (which itself is subject to the influence of structural linguistics of Saussure) is also a source of narrative. An important ingredient of the narrative academic background is Anglo-American new criticism.

2. Three research types of Classical Narratology

Classical narratology can be divided into three types based on the object of studying.

The first category is narratologists directly affected by the Russian formalism scholars Propp. They focused on the narration of the story, tried hard to construct the story grammar, and to explore the function, structure rules, and even developing logics and so on in a story. Propp's book *Folktale Morphology* rated one of the most influential works of Russian literary in the 1920's, which is generally considered a book which opened a precedent in structuralism narratology. After Propp, narratologists in France and other countries made a systematic study of the deep and surface structural relations of a story, and constructed several story grammar patterns. Some of them focus on the relations between the static structures of the event, while others focus on the plot of the dynamic development process.

The second category which represents Genette as the typical representative concentrated on narrative discourse. In short, the narrative discourse is the way of storytelling. Kenan (2002) summarizes different narrative point of view from different narratologists in his book *Narrative Fiction* and he proposed that the story be independent from narrative discourse in three aspects: independent of the writers' styles as different styles can express the same story; independent of the language (English, French or Chinese); and independent of different medium or symbol systems (languages, movie images or dancing moves). In addition to the narrative point of view and speech forms, narratologists generally did not pay much attention to lexical features, syntactic features, writing (or voice) characteristics and the cohesion between sentences and other linguistic phenomena. This is probably because the narrative techniques are often not the selections of language (for example, to narrate event A first or event B first is not a matter of language choice), and narratologists usually just figuratively make use of linguistic model. In the study of discourse layer, narrative scientists focused on the expression mode and the structural relationship between objects and made systematic classification of various narrative techniques so as to construct a narrative grammar or narrative poetics.

The third type of studies, regarding Prince and Chatman (Chatman S.) as the representatives, holds that the story structure and discourse skills are both very important, so we should balance both during the research. Since the late 1970s narrative monograph generally belong to the third type.

C. *Basic Characteristics of Post Classical Narratology*

Since the 1980s, attacking from both post structuralism and historicism, the research momentum of classical narrative was gradually declined (especially in the U.S.). Conforming to the readers' response and critic, cultural studies and other new emerging school, and paying attention to post classical narratology which takes the reader and context into account also came into being. Based on our research objective, we can divide postclassical narratology into two categories: one is to explore common characteristics (of different genres) in narrative works. Compared with classical narratology, this kind of postclassical narratology focuses on at least the following 5 different aspects of change. First, it turned from the work to the process of the readers' interpretation. Postclassical narratology is concerned with the readers' construction of the logic of the story and focuses on the exploration of the interaction between the reader and the text structure. Second, literary phenomenon swings from the compliance of the protocol ones to the deviated protocol ones, or from inside-literary narrative to outside-literary narrative. Third, in order to investigate the structure of the law, postclassical narratologists borrowed some new analysis tools from other fields. Fourth, from the narrative structure common to the diachronic narrative structure, we should pay attention to how social historical context influence or cause the development of narrative structure. Fifth, represented by feminism narratology, post classical narratology sway its concerns from the formal structure to relation of form structure and ideology. But this concern often needs a specific work to interpret it. (For some social and historical reasons, a writer in a work will choose a narrative form). Another kind of postclassical narratologists take the interpretation of specific meaning of the work as the main purpose, which is characterized by admitting the stability of narrative structure and the effectiveness of narrative conventions, and using the classical narrative patterns and concepts to analyze the works (sometimes revise and supplement in combination with the analysis). At the same time, while focusing on readers and social historical context, postclassical narratologists pay attention to interdisciplinary research, consciously absorb the theoretical concepts, critical perspectives and analysis models from other factions, so as to expand the scope of the study and overcome its limitations.

IV. A DETAILED ANALYSIS OF VIVIE FROM THE PERSPECTIVE OF NARRATIVE THEORY

A. *Narrative Voice Reflected in the Scene*

One of the special methods of studying narrative methods is to regard the script as a narrative text so as to explore the narrative voice outside the text because narrative voice is one of the most important parameters to measure the subjective and objective degrees of a narrative text. The deeper involvement the narrator, the stronger the narrative voice and the higher subjective narration are. Narratologist Chatman S. (1978) believes that public narration is always omniscient narrative voice of the author, which establishes the author's authority. In the script *Mrs. Warren's Profession*, in addition to the dialogues, objective descriptions of scenes can be considered as a public omniscient narrative perspective and the narrative voice stems from the scene describer. The scene layout in the first act of Mrs. Warren's Profession made an important cushion on Vivie's appearance.

"...A big canvas umbrella, stuck in the ground, keeps the sun off the hammock, in which a young lady is reading and making notes, her head towards the cottage and her feet towards the gate. In front of the hammock, and within reach of her hand, is a common kitchen chair, with a pile of serious-looking books and a supply of writing paper on it." (Shaw, 2005, p.29)

In the British Society hundreds of years ago, riding a bike and reading and writing characteristics are strong social symbol of men, and they represent the independence, freedom and knowledge. When these symbols are attached to the female body, they will naturally form a strong contrast with the British social reality in which women were in a disadvantaged position, so the readers will focus more on these non-female symbols. These pre-narration symbols not only constitute the tone of Vivie's image, but also show the narrator's voice, and thus the narrator's authority has been established in the guidance of readers and viewers. Bal M. (2009) believes that the sender of the narrative voice is the narrator, not the author of the narration, and the narrator is "the actor who expresses the language symbol to compose of this paper" (p. 254). In dramatic narrative scenes introduction, the voice of the narrator and the author are in a high degree of unity. Once the dual authority of the narration acting on to the reader, it implants the reader a male symbol, intervenes readers for their previously experienced social female image at that time, thereby affects the readers' reading and thinking of the dramatic text.

B. *Involvement of Implied Author in Portrayal Description*

For Vivie's appearance, there is not any description in her first showing up, but the narrator deliberately made a detailed depiction on her clothes and temperament.

"She proffers her hand and takes his with a resolute and hearty grip. She is an attractive specimen of the sensible, able, highly-educated young middle-class Englishwoman. Age 22. Prompt, strong, confident, self-possessed. Plain business-like dress, but not dowdy. She wears a chatelaine at her belt, with a fountain pen and a paper knife among its pendants." (Shaw, 2005, p.30)

In the story level, the narrative voice given by Vivie is stronger than other characters', but this statement has a default in the description of her dress and appearance and does not match very well with her strong narrative voice. The narrator does not describe Vivie's appearance, clothing color and texture, but only works heavy with her men kind of

clothing. Compared with the later description of Mrs. Warren, there is a huge difference on Vivie's depiction at this point. For Mrs. Warren, when she first appears, the narrator not only introduces her hat and skirt, even mentions her "fashionable sleeves", the narrator has also done a detailed description of her figure, appearance, temperament and clothing for peer Crofts. This unbalanced descriptive method is clearly a deliberately unconventional narrative approach to tell Vivie's unique temperament, leaving a space for readers to define Vivie's image themselves. In this part in the level of narrative expression, the narrator intervenes in the narration relying on their own authority, resulting in some narrative blank about Vivie's image, and the result is to allow the reader to self-construct the missing gaps, which makes the great distance between Vivie and the readers. Wayne. C. B. (1991) stated, "the so-called 'implied author' is implicit in the works of the image of the author; it is not relied on the author's real existence or historical data, but based on the text; from reading perspective, the implied author is the author's image derived from the entire text by readers" (p. 71-77). In this section, the implied author holds on a critical attitude toward the new femininity; he or she not only seeks deliberately Vivie's masculine qualities but affirms the strong position of masculinity as well. Shen D. (2000) holds that if the implied author holds critical view on patriarchal ideology, then there would appear distance between the implied reader and Vivie. In this part of narration, there exists a great distance between the reader and Vivie. The missing gap image of Vivie makes it difficult for readers to accept, but they cannot construct it themselves. Therefore, the implied author is critical of Vivie's patriarchal position. The narrator's male discourse is established in the process of female discourse narration. Vivie's story expresses the struggle for independence of the new female's rebellious attitude towards patriarchy society. After large quantities of work, Weintraub (1977) thinks that Bernard Shaw himself also declared that women do not reasonably do the chores and women have the ability to undertake the important task of promoting the progress of mankind, and they should completely participate in social change in practice. The implied author's critical attitudes toward the narrator's male discourse confirm that the nature of the implied author in the text is the male. Hence, Vivie's image-shaping cannot jump out of the scope of patriarchal discourse and her words and deeds are not so much full of characteristics of "new women" but rather sketched out in accordance with an ideal male. Thus, in the male-dominated Vitoria times, a writer's description of women is very difficult to break through the limitations of the mainstream discourse mechanisms, but only to peel the spirits involved in a new woman under the framework of male and repeat the mistakes of Adam's rib transforming into Eve.

C. *Application of Feminism in Narratology*

The theory aims to introduce the feminist perspective into the narrative research, so that the latter has some degrees of change, or in other words, it can sexualize and contextualize narratology which purely analyzes characteristic forms. Although feminist narratology took a similar attitude to feminist criticism -- to change women's objectified and marginalized situation, its intention does not mean to contend and confront with male consciousness represented by narratology with feminist critique of ideology and does not firmly want to create a female narrative theory opposed to traditional narrative theory, because a female narrative theory criticizes and practices under the theoretical framework of classic narrative theory. On the contrary, the traditional narrative theory obtains human values in text meanings while sacrificing some accuracy and science. From Vivie's point of view, Mrs. Warren and Crofts represent not only powerful money which can direct people's lives, but also a reality principle behind it and the rules of a game. It requires great courage to resist this reality principle.

"Now once for all, mother, you want a daughter and Frank wants a wife. I dont want a mother; and I dont want a husband. I have spared neither Frank nor myself in sending him about his business. "(Shaw, 2005, p.95)

Vivie's declaration shows up her characteristics:

"But there are two subjects I want dropped, if you dont mind. One of them [to Frank] is love's young dream in any shape or form: the other [to Praed] is the romance and beauty of life, especially Ostend and the gaiety of Brussels. You are welcome to any illusions you may have left on these subjects: I have none. If we three are to remain friends, I must be treated as a woman of business, permanently single [to Frank] and permanently unromantic [to Praed]. "(Shaw, 2005, p.85)

Even today, this declaration also requires great courage, and is humbling. Vivie's characteristics of a clear occupation planning, unwillingness to show weakness to the man, smoking cigars in her pastime, and domineering to men endow Vivie with features of a new woman. She represents a "new women" image which is popular in London and Europe in the late nineteenth century. With the processing development of episode, her decision helps her finish the new women's inner transformation. Instead of being driven to distraction and rushing out the door, Vivie just turns toward the door as if she suddenly finds a new purpose in life after she hears that she is priest Samuel's illegitimate daughter—that is to say, she may be her lover Frank's half-sister. When Frank asks her where to go, she clearly replies: "At Honoria Fraser's chambers, 67 Chancery Lane, for the rest of my life" (Shaw, 1894, p.79). Shaw suggests here with a highly symbolic stage prompt: "She goes off quickly in the opposite direction to that taken by Crofts" (Shaw, 1894, p.79). She completely abandons the emotional things, turns herself into a realist, and cheers herself up to deal with reality, with the aim of taking up the cause. This new women, as Bernard Shaw has been launched in his dramatic creation of "unwomanly women", completes her metamorphosis thoroughly. He (Cheng, 1997: 28) states that while men have no hope, female are the carrier of "Life Force". She sacrifices her desires for the ideal, discards all her weaknesses of women, and arms herself with a strong will as well as an outstanding talent into the society. "Bernard Shaw once

proposed, "Women have the ability to bear the responsibility of promoting the progress of mankind; They should participate in the practice of social change" (Weintraub, 1977, p.75). Although this play is named as *Mrs. Warren's Profession*, the focus is clearly on the character Vivie. Shaw indirectly condemns other people, including Mrs. Warren, but he devotes all his tenderness to Vivie, lest the insufficient motive and input. This kind of careful attention is a rarity of rarities in Bernard Shaw's "concept drama". Of course, the rationality and ruthlessness in Vivie's character shocks the male audience; it strikes me that most women also cannot completely agree with Mrs. Warren's attitude toward Vivie. In weighing the perfect female image and "Life Force", obviously Bernard Shaw shows more interest in the latter. To emphasize the work's intention to serve to reflect the reality of social problems, we weaken female appeals, and this method indeed plays a positive role in the development of feminism, changes people's views of the natural status of men and women, sweeps away stereotyped lady images at theater stages in Elizabeth era stage that a female should be delicate, gentle, and fair-skinned, accordingly provides a fresh template for the twentieth Century British literature to shape a female image and results in a far-reaching impact.

D. Dualistic Construction in Subtext

In the narrative structure of *Mrs. Warren's Profession*, the author brilliantly constructed several binary oppositions between characters, and showed varieties of contradictions in the play in this method. Among them, Vivie and Mrs. Warren's dualistic structure is the most contrasting one. Mrs. Warren is born poor and belongs to a working class. In order to rush to make a living, she and her sisters are almost the typical representatives of women of that period in the British Society. Mrs. Warren's success is entirely along the footsteps of the men down the way so that she opposes Vivie's combination with Frank and asks her daughter to marry with businessman Crofts who is thirty years older than Vivie due solely to his wealth. Although Vivie is highly educated, she lacks experience and is straightforward and robust, and consequently refuses to be controlled by others. In the story level, this kind of antagonistic relationship leads Vivie to a more independent, courageous, self-confident and rebellious spirit compared to British women of the same period.

There are three kinds of narrative perspectives after the age of Brecht: watch type, fixed type and split type. Split type is a kind of multi-perspective narration... several characters in the play separately act as a narrator in different periods of time... narrator's identity and attitude will directly affect the expression of the dramatic significance. The play takes exactly the third kind of narrative perspective. In the play, Mrs. Warren and her daughter's confrontation moves forward gradually along this split narrative structure. Mrs. Warren is a narrator for her own life and sense of values, while her daughter Vivie's view of the world is largely dependent on the play's action or expression design, and sometimes the omniscient narrator even expresses Vivie's ideas directly in the play instead of Vivie herself. On the surface level of *Mrs. Warren's Profession*, the essence of Bernard Shaw's expression is also his own society creation evolution, which challenges the traditional gender roles and temperament mode in a drama, and creates vital female with independent thinking and rational beauty. However, should we still define Vivie's kind of "independent" woman according to the male social standards? Or in other word, should men have the ability and discourse power to establish a vital female following their standards? The hidden text in the play tells the reader: the male is the world's leading power; women can only submit to it to survive, and "new women" self-speaking is ultimately meaningless, so it cannot be expressed by women themselves, therefore only the male discourse can create Vivie's kind of "superwoman". As a thinker and social reformer, in his dramas, Bernard Shaw emphasizes too much on works serving to the ideology, but this weakens the character's artistic appeal, causing intellectual and emotional imbalance in his female image and contributing to the hidden text's indication of his standpoint, that is the androcentrism, when he tried to show his intention to focus on woman's social rights and interests.

V. CONCLUSION

This paper analyzed Vivie's image in *Mrs. Warren's Profession* through approaches of narrative theory. By using narrative voice reflected in the scene, involvement of implied author in portrayal description and application of feminism in narratology, it shows that due to social relations, Vivie cannot get rid of low social status of women's fatalism even though she always dresses and acts like a man to manifest her new woman image. Vivie, as a top student of women's college at Cambridge University, is one of the few highly educated women in female community; she is also a typical representative of "new woman image" in the capitalist society. She is honest, full of great integrity and self-reliance, and dares to fight against decadent forces and asked for the liberation of personality.

The paper made a sharp contrast between Vivie and her mother Mrs. Warren by applying dualistic construction in subtext. However, at the time of capitalist society, men are in the world's leading position, so the image of both Vivie and Mrs. Warren could not get out of patriarchal discourse areas, and only under a larger male framework can it be possible to "peel" a "new woman image". This play showed the condemnation and criticism of traditional moral values and false ethical standards, as well as his concerns about real life and revelations of social misfortune. The social root of women's tragic fate lies in the exploitative nature of the capitalist production mode.

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A Contrastive Analysis of Word Formation of English and Chinese Neologisms

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Abstract—Neologisms refer to the words created to express new things, new concepts and new ideas in written and oral communication. Since the 1980s, the world has entered into an information age. The world has witnessed great changes in political, economic, cultural field. At the same time, China has been carrying out a series of political and economic reforms, which have brought about amazing changes in all social aspects. As a result, a great deal of neologisms have appeared both in English and Chinese. There are three sources of neologisms both in English and Chinese: creating new words with native word elements, adding new meanings to existing words and borrowing new words from other languages. This paper focus on the first one of these three sources: word-formation, and analyzes the similarities and differences of three major ways of word-formation of neologisms in both English and Chinese: compounds, affixations, shortenings.

Index Terms—neologism, word formation, compounds, affixations, shortenings

I. INTRODUCTION

Language is a symbol system which acts as a kind of social communicative tool. It is composed of voice, vocabulary and grammar, “vocabulary is the most sensitive constitute of language”(Chenyuan, 2000, p.209). Neologisms are new words and expressions. There are different definitions about neologisms. Such as: Zhang Yongyan(1982, p.87) think that “At first, neologisms maybe are used by minority of people, but gradually more people are familiar with the things which the neologisms refer to, they will be used in a large scale.” Fu Haiqing(1985, p.171) also pointed “Neologisms are created in order to adjust to society. Through the authenticate of practical usage, they are accepted by language.” Language is a social phenomenon and changes with the development of society. Among the three language elements, pronunciation and grammar are relatively stable and vocabulary is sensitive to social changes. Since the 1970s, China has been implementing the policy of opening to the outside world and a series of reforms at home, which lead to great changes in all aspects of social life. Across the world, great changes have also taken place in political, economic and cultural fields. Neologisms are being invented or introduced every day to express new things and new ideas in society.

English has established itself as an international language, and more and more people in the world begin to learn English as a second language or foreign language. In order to communicate with people all over the world efficiently, Chinese English learners need to keep up with the latest vocabulary both in English and Chinese. English neologisms are a great challenge.

Although English and Chinese belong to different language families, they play the same social function, serving people’s communication. Comparing English neologisms with Chinese ones helps us to know better both similarities and differences between them, which is of great significance for foreign language teaching and foreign language learning.

II. ELEMENTS OF GENERATION OF NEOLOGISMS

With the development of technology and society, people’s life has changed a lot. Therefore, a large deal of neologisms appeared. The generation of neologisms is not only the result of language itself continuous development, but also the need which meet people’s demand to express new things and new ideas.

A. *Development of Science Leads to the Generation of Neologisms*

Since the 1980s, scientific technology has been developing fast, which impulse the production of neologisms. Digital technology brings these words: digital audio broadcasting, digital compact cassette, digital compression, digital compact disc. With the popularization of computer technology, a series of relevant new words were accepted. For example: Internet, cyberspace, website, E-mail, e-commerce, multimedia, firewall, software, mouse, modem, explorer, home page, menu, file, hacker, virus, virus-killer, etc. Also the development of medical science and genetics stimulate the production of new words: test-tube baby, genetic code, DNA, clone, genetic engineering, keyhole surgery, paternity test, etc. In scientific field, some new words created for interdisciplinary subject, for example: chemical ecology, eco-geography, genetic engineering, geotechnical engineering, mechatronics, social ecology, space biology, bionics, etc.

B. *The Changes of Politics and Economy Arouse the Generation of Neologisms*

In recent years, political and economic situation all over the world have a great change, which attribute to the

production of relevant new words. "Global strategic policy, collapse of Soviet Union, anti-Terrorism War, political pluralism, Multifold World, APEC, Clintonomics, Bushnomics, trade war, Euro, Euro-zone, Petrodollar, cyclic economy, bubble economy" are all typical examples.

Since the reform and opening-up policy, China has carried out a series of political and economic structural reform. Then, there are new words which are talked about by people. For example, market economy, joint ventures, solely-foreign-owned enterprises, privately-owned enterprises, contract responsibility system, One country-Two systems, annual salary, bull market, iron rice bowls, etc.

C. *Diversity of People's Life Impulses the Generation of Neologisms*

With the development of society, people's life becomes colorful and various. What happened as a result was that many new words appear in life. In present time, almost everyone use "mobile phone" to "call" or "text message" to communicate with each other who are not by their sides. They can also "send E-mail" to greet someone they miss or inform important information. If they want to buy something, they can go to "shopping mall", "supermarket" or even they needn't go outside but buy what they need "online". In order to keep slim and fit figure, they will do "yoga", "body building", "slimnastics", "aerobic dancing", "isometrics" "bikecise" and "step training", etc.

What was talked about above is just a simple and rough classification of elements of generation of neologisms. In fact, almost every day there are new words which we never heard before appear and will appear in the future with the development of world.

III. CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS OF WORD FORMATION OF CHINESE AND ENGLISH NEOLOGISMS

Although English and Chinese belong to different language family, the generation of their neologisms are almost same, which is produced by three ways: creating new words with native word elements - word formation, adding new meanings to existing words and borrowing words from other languages. Of these three ways, word formation is the most main and important way, which is consist of three main methods: compounding, affixation and shortening. Now, the writer will compare these three ways of neologisms between Chinese and English.

A. *Compounding*

Compounding is the way which combines at least two words into one word according to certain order. Words created by compounding are called compounds. Compounds can be divided into different types. According to word class, it can be divided into compound nouns, compound verbs, compound adjectives, etc. Among them, compound nouns have the largest proportion. According to inner structure, compounds can be divided into noun+noun, noun+verb, verb+verb, etc. According to semantic logical relationship of each constituent, compounds can be divided into the joint type, partial formal, subject-predicate type, predicate-object type, etc.

In English, there are more and more new words which just combined by putting two words together simply, which makes English new compounds looks more like expressions. For example, couch potato, chat room, best practice, call center, zero tolerance, web designer, global economy, etc.

Sometimes, two words combine into one single new compound. Such as: jobseeker, webpage, website, aftermarket, bankroller, etc.

Otherwise, some new compounds consisted of two words with a hyphen between them: virus-killer, baby-sit, bottom-down, Euro-zone, low-rent, post-modern.

More and more new words are consisted of three or more words, such as: video on demand, pull-down menu, predict and provide, personal electronic device, pay-as-you-go, meet-and-greet, home health aide, etc.

Chinese compounding ability is strong. Compounding is the most important way of creating modern Chinese new words. For example: 白领, 出炉, 冲浪, 上岗, 美体, 扶贫, 跳楼价, 地球村, 信用卡, 心理障碍, 新新人类, 知识产权, 工薪阶层, 调制解调器, etc.

Most of modern Chinese words are double syllable words, but in new words created at present, more and more multi-syllable words appear. Even there are many new words consisted of five words. This show a trend which multi-syllable new words become more and more frequent. Such as: 安乐死, 有机食品, 搬家公司, 博士后流动站, 菜篮子工程, 开放式基金, 网站管理员, 数字化电视, 豆腐渣工程, 技术密集型产业, 现代企业制度, 住房公积金贷款, 有中国特色的社会主义, 卫星跟踪定位系统, 高新技术开发区, etc.

From these examples, we can make a conclusion that both in English and Chinese, the structure of neologisms become more and more complex, which lead to the unclear confine between words and expressions.

1. Grammaticality of English Compounds

English compounds show certain syntactic relation. They are the simplified form of fixed phrase and sentence. Therefore, English emphasize the structure relation of linear combination, which means their constituents must be combined according to certain grammatical rule. Grammaticality of English compounds lies on the grammatical relation of constituents of compounds (Chu Xiaoning, 2004).

The first one we talk about is subject-predicate relation. The relationship of two constituents is subject-predicate relation, which can form a subject-predicate sentence. For example: answering service - a commercial service that answers telephone calls for its clients, poverty stricken - Poverty strikes the place. In form, compounds of

subject-predicate type are consisted of a noun and a verb. The meaning can be showed through recovering the relation of subject and predicate.

In addition, there are compounds that show other grammatical relation:

Predicate-object relation: assisted area - to assist the area, peace loving - to love peace.

Joint relation: consisted of two words which have same, resemble, relevant or opposite meanings. Such as: transmitter-receiver - transmitter and receiver, amplifier-inverter - amplifier and inverter.

Partial formal: the former root used as modifier to confine the latter root which is the main meaning of this compound: aftermarket - the market for products that people buy after they have bought another related product, airport fiction - books, especially ones that are not very serious, that people buy at airport to read while they are traveling on planes.

Therefore, the meaning of compounds can be gained by analyzing the relation of their constituents. We can get another finding from above examples: when consisting of compounds, the constituents may have changes in form. For example: "answer" in "answering service" is changed into "answering".

2. Semantic feature of Chinese compounds

Xu Tongqiang once pointed "The prominent feature of Chinese is semantic, however the Indo-European language is grammatical. So we can call Indo-European language grammatical language, and Chinese semantic language." (Xu Tongqiang, 1998, p.52). The constituents of Chinese compounds don't have grammatical relation internally, but have the lexical structural relation which combined with the conceptual meanings of two morphemes. (Liu Shuxin,1990). Now, we will talk about something of semantic feature of Chinese compounds.

The semantic feature of Chinese compounds is decided by the self-sufficiency of their basic components-Chinese characters. As fundamental components of Chinese compounds, Chinese character is not only phonetic unit, but also semantic unit.

Chinese compounds don't have any changes in form and don't have obvious word classification. For example, the same Chinese word can be used as both noun and verb sometimes.

Chinese compounds don't have obvious external morphological characteristics and evident classification of parts of speech. The combination of the two constitutes rely on semantic relation, but not grammatical relation. "The combination of compounds is of parataxis-prominence. The so-called parataxis means that there is no symbols of words form in the combination of compounds, which counts on the bonds of meanings." (Su Xinchun, 1994, p.26).

Chinese compounds based on the fundamental unit(key word) with the help of explanation and ornament of other word. Usually, the latter word represent the meaning genre, and the former word confines and modifies the latter word. Such as: 吧: 吧台, 吧女, 吧娘; 酒吧, 网吧, 水吧, 奶吧, 氧吧, 迪吧, 书吧.

B. Affixation

Language can be divided into isolating language, agglutinative language, inflectional language and polysynthetic language. Although there are some words in Chinese which show synthetic feature, in general, Chinese belong to isolating language. Contrast with Chinese, English is called synthetic language. The feature of synthetic language is that there are many affixes. Therefore, affixation plays an important role in creating new English words. Shao Zhihong pointed out that affixes in Chinese are closed, comparatively, affixes in English are open. With the development of society, some new affixes are created. (Shao Zhihong, 1997). In terms of Chinese and English, affixes in Chinese are not more abundant than that in English and the proportion of English affixations is about 30 percent to 40 percent. (Zhang Weiyou, 1997).

Affix can be divided into prefix, infix and suffix according to the place of word-forming affixes; it can also be divided into nominalizing affix, verbalizing affix, adjective affix and adverbial affix according grammatical function; otherwise, it can be divided into affix which individually express people, express verb and express property according to the semantic meaning of affixes, etc.

1. Affixation in English compounds

Affixation refers to the way that add an affix to a certain roots to create new words. Affixation is a traditional way to form new words in English, which not only enlarge the quantity of English words, but also enrich the expressive forms. In general, English affixes can be divided into prefix and suffix. Generally speaking, prefix only change the meaning of word, but not change the word class. For example, when "happy" was added with "un-", it becomes "unhappy", which change the meaning of it, but not change the class of word. Nevertheless, there are a little exceptions, for example: force-enforce, large-enlarge, rich-enrich. Suffix changes not only the meaning but also the class of a word. Here we take "invent" for an example. "Invent" is a verb, when add a suffix "-or" to it, it becomes "inventor", which changes into a noun and refers to the people who responsible for the verb "invent". In English, suffix can be divided into four types according to word class: nominal suffix, such as: -age, -hood, -ship, -ism, -er/or, -ee, -ment, -ist, -ation, -ity, -ness,etc; verbalizing suffix: -en, -fy, -ize, -ate, etc; adjective suffix: -y, -ish, -ful, -less, -like, -ive, -able, etc; adverbial suffix: -ly, -ward, -wise, etc.

In English, some traditional affixes still play an important role in creating new words. Such as, super: supercat, supersize, superstar, superdelegate, supergravity, superminicomputer, supermolecule, superstring; de-: delist, demerge, deindustrialization, deorbit, deplane, depowerment, deprofessionalization, derecognize, deselect, destatization, etc.

There are some affixation which gain new meaning in the process of creating neologisms. For example, “cyber-” means computer, but now have the meaning “use Internet”: cybercafe, cybercrime, cyberforensics, cyberland.

Also some affixes are created in recent decades, such as, “-speak”, which means a kind of speech style or a kind of language: netspeak, computerspeak, artspeak, sportspeak, college-speak, businessspeak; “-holic”, which means someone who have a certain preference: alcoholic, workholic, movieholic, teleholic, webholic, etc.

2. Affixation in Chinese Compounds

Lu Shuxiang(1979) thinks that there are not many typical affixes in Chinese. In Chinese, “阿, 第, 初, 老, etc” and “儿, 子, 头, 性, 者, 化, etc” are usual traditional prefixes and suffixes individually. These kind of traditional affixes have a strong ability of creating new words. For example, “性”: 一次性, 实质性, 伸缩性, 技术性, 预见性, 可读性, 可行性, 可塑性, 趋同性, 政策性, etc. Some of these traditional affixes have changed the meaning in the process of creating neologisms, which means their usage become more active and extensive. Such as, “老”: 老外, 老美, 老广(广东人), 老记(记者), 老编(编辑), 老妈, 老姐, 老爸, etc.

Zhou Qiqiang(2001) pointed that since reform and openness, the popularity of analogical word formation weakens the meanings of some Chinese words, Chinese word formation present the tendency of new affixation, which have been called quasiaffix. For example: 出国热, 电脑热, 英语热, 地产热, 股票热, 旅游热, 足球热, 健美热, etc. The character “热” is in the certain place of these neologisms, which show that the class of this word is noun. Otherwise, “热” does not mean “hot” in these words, but means that something is very popular at certain period. So as following examples:

盲: 科盲, 法盲, 股盲, 电脑盲, 电影盲

反: 反腐败, 反恐, 反季节, 反弹反倾销, 反走私, 反文化

超: 超编, 超值, 超负荷, 超短裙, 超一流, 超人, 超动感

软: 软件, 软广告, 软实力, 软科学, 软环境, 软包装, 软资源

族: 上班族, 追星族, 背包族, 单身族, 打工族, 有车一族

3. Conclusion

Comparatively, ability of affixation to create new words in Chinese is not as flexible as English. Characters in Chinese are all independent units, and the structure of Chinese character is closed, which means we can not increase or decrease the character components to create new words. However, to the contrary, we can add affixes to an English root to make a new word. In addition, the process of English word formation is more complex than Chinese. For example, “superlongleggedness” include prefix “super-”, suffix “-ed” which show adjective property and suffix “-ness” which change the word class into noun. But, we must admit that tendency of affixation strengthen the ability of Chinese word formation.

C. Shortening

Shortening is another method used usually to create neologisms. Language is a important tool to communicate. Social communication demand us to express abundant contents with the most concise and simple way. Shortening is the best method to meet this requirement. For example, FBI is the abbreviation of Federal Bureau of Investigation, ADIS is the abbreviation of Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome, and OPEC is the abbreviation of Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries. In Chinese, “浙大” is the abbreviation of “浙江大学”, “人代会” is the abbreviation of “人民代表大会”, “入市” is the abbreviation of “进入世界贸易组织”. The quantity of Chinese abbreviation is not as much as English, but it will be enlarged with the development of scientific technology.

1. Abbreviation in English Neologisms

1.1 Initialism

Initialism is a way which picks up the first letter of each word in phrase to represent that phrase. There are some examples: BBS-bulletin board system, GPS-Global Positioning System, PDA-personal digital assistant, ADHD-attention deficit hyperactivity disorder, OCD-obsessive compulsive disorder, EU-European Union, AI-artificial intelligent, PC-personal computer.

1.2 Acronym

Acronym is a way we read the abbreviation which organized with the first letter of each word in phrase as a word. Such as: AIDS-acquired Immune Deficiency, ROM-read only memory, TOEFL-Test of English as a Foreign Language, CALL-computer-assisted language learning.

1.3 Clipping

Clipping refer to the way that clip the certain part of a original word. For example: cell-cellphone, dino-dinosaur, AD-advertisement, mini-miniskirt, expo-exposition, net-Internet, Info-information, script-prescription, pacifist-pacifist, daily-daily paper, pop-popular music, taxi- taximeter cab.

1.4 Blending

Blending means that we organize the certain part of each word of a compound into its abbreviation. Such as: modem-modulator + demodulator, Medicare-medical +care, infowar-information + war, autoindustry-automobile + industry.

2 Abbreviation in Chinese Neologisms

There are two types of abbreviation in Chinese neologisms: extraction and generalization with number. Extraction

refer that key part or morpheme of original or phrase be elected to form new word. Such as: 超市-超级市场, 环保-环境保护, 外交-外籍教师, 福彩-福利彩票, 大本-大学本科, 成教-成人教育, 私企-私营企业, 红股-红利股票, 危房-危险房屋, 影星-电影明星, 寿险-人寿保险, 空姐-空中小姐, 租金-租赁资金, 外长-外交部长, 通缩-通货紧缩, 通胀-通货膨胀, 考研-参加研究生考试, 立交桥-立体交叉桥, 外企-外商投资企业奥申委-奥林匹克运动会申办委员会.

The second abbreviation of Chinese neologisms is generalization with number. Such as: 三讲-讲学习, 讲政治, 讲正气; 三个面向-面向现代化, 面向世界, 面向未来; 三资企业-中外合资企业, 外商独资企业, 中外合作企业; 四乱-乱收费, 乱罚款, 乱摊派, 乱检查; 两个文明-物质文明和精神文明. Although this way have strong generality, can not express clear meaning and confined by time, field and place.

3. The Differences between Abbreviation of English and Chinese Neologisms

1. Abbreviating Principles

The formation of English abbreviation based on abbreviating the meaningless syllable, which means there is just phonetic relation between original words and new words. However, in Chinese, we usually choose morpheme that can represent the main meaning of original word based on the consideration of meaning, which can help us to understand and explain it.

2. Abbreviating Features

The relation of English neologisms is not close in form, sound and meaning. There are many examples show that one abbreviation can represent more than one meaning. Such as, CV is not only the abbreviation of curriculum vitae, but also the abbreviation of calorific value. Lu Xiaoming (2003) said that it is very difficult to recover the original meaning according to abbreviation sometimes in English. However, Chinese abbreviation is the unity of form, sound and meaning of each Chinese character, which made the Chinese words stable. So it was not easy to be distorted the meaning. In addition, it's easy to restore the new abbreviations in Chinese words. Usually, according to the sense of a dictionary entry, we can infer the meaning of it in an expression. That means that we can understand the meaning of abbreviation according to explain each character.

IV. CONCLUSION

According to the contrastive analysis above, we have following findings: There are three main ways of generating of English and Chinese neologisms: creating new words with native word elements (word formation), adding new meanings to existing words and borrowing new words from other language. And there are three main methods of word formation: compounding, affixation and shortening.

The compounding ability of Chinese is strong and the most important way to create Chinese neologisms is compounding. English compounds have a tendency of consisting of more words, and in Chinese there appear more and more polysyllabic neologisms.

Affixation is the tendency of both English and Chinese neologisms. But in quantity, the number of Chinese affix is much less than English. Nevertheless, we must admit that tendency of affixation strengthen the ability of Chinese word formation.

Because of the fast development of scientific technology, a demand which we should use concise and simple words to express complex meaning is needed. Then a lot of abbreviation appeared in both English and Chinese. The formation of English abbreviation based on abbreviating the meaningless syllable. However, in Chinese, we usually choose morpheme that can represent the main meaning of original word based on the consideration of meaning, so they have essential differences, for example: abbreviating principles and abbreviating features.

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Indonesian Literature, Trans-species, Post-humanism Aesthetic: Interpreting Novel *O*, Animal Studies Perspective

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Abstract—This study aims at exploring the animal characters that can interact with human in Novel *O*, a semi-fable novel by Eka Kurniawan, using the perspective of animal studies. Results show that Eka Kurniawan makes animals as the major characters in his novel, of which are able to interact with human. According to the notion of socio-politics, animal is simply an illustration of recent human beings either in Indonesia or in a more universal context. In addition, based on Sartre's philosophy, animal and human have freedoms including but not limited to freedom of thinking and acting. They also have a right to transform into anything as long as they are responsible for any possible consequences. In connection with the law of human relation, human beings must respect among others, animals and nearby environments, due to the fact that the three of them are interlinked components of life.

Index Terms—Indonesian literature, novel, animal studies, trans-species, post-humanism

I. INTRODUCTION

In literature study, the use of animal integrated within various genres of literary works such as novel, short story, poem, or drama, no longer becomes a trending issue. In approaching to the 21st century, animal study in literature lets the use of animal as a character in a literary work, or just animal as a metaphor. To cope with that, for examples, there are numbers of literary scholars whose works involve animals, namely Shakespeare, Kafka, Budi Darma, Sartre in *Les Mouches*, Djenaar in *Mereka Bilang Saya Monyet*, George Orwell in *Animal Farm* and Herman Melville in *Moby Dick*.

Furthermore, there are some literary scholars whose works deal with the perspective of animal in literature. First, Boehrer's work (2002) entitled *Shakespeare among the Animals* showed Shakespeare's *Midsummer Night's Dream* (a script of a comedy drama) that also emphasized the use of animals within the story. The drama points out Titania's love with an animal found in the forest and, besides, also reveals some metaphors related to animals. Second, Geier's work (2006) entitled *Kafka's Nonhuman Form* showed that Kafka in *The Metamorphosis* raised an aesthetic narration related to animals (the nonhuman) and human beings. The work tells about Gregor-Samsa who used to be humans metamorphosing into cockroaches. Third, in Indonesia, Budi Darma, in a short story entitled "Derabat", shows a story of human being represented thorough a character named Matropik, fighting against a bird called Derabat. The bird is believed to be a thief, the one who likes to steal any persons' property. In the end of the story, Matropik transforms into Derabat, so that, Derabat and Matropik are two interchangeable characters. The three literary scholars mentioned above have a similar tendency in portraying animal in a literary work. The difference lays on the diverse characteristics had by the animal used as the characters.

After being successful in his previous works such as *Cantik itu Luka* (2002), *Lelaki Harimau* (2004), *Seperti Dendam, Rindu Harus Dibayar Tuntas* (2014), Eka Kurniawan launched novel *O* (2016) that involved an aesthetic narration about animal and human being. This respected novel can be found in Google for about 203,000 entries and get 4.1 stars in *goodreads* with 567 ratings and 175 reviewers. In accordance with reviews done by several literary scholars, this novel gets variously good exclamations. For instance, Yulistianti said that novel *O* "portrays Eka Kurniawan's intellectuality in the world writing". Moreover, Batubara also argued that *O* is "a semi-fable story in a form of novel recently composed by Eka Kurniawan. I said it is as a semi-fable story because it is still inappropriate to call it a fable".

At last, Djenar said *O* –a novel that tells a monkey which wants to marry Dangdut Emperor- this novel is outstanding in delivering a fable story with laminar stories.

Animal studies is an interdisciplinary study exploring on a certain landmark habitable for animals, of which is emerged in a socio-cultural context of human's world involving the interactions. The prominent point of this studies is to explore how animal lives and interacts with human beings (DeMello, 2012, p. 4). DeMello (2012) gives a main classification related to this study, covering animal's construction, categorization, behavior, imagination, knowledge about environment and aesthetic. In addition, the born of an animal studies is due to the fact that many exploitations, defacements, and violence done by human being to animals (ReCarte, 2017:32). Besides, animal studies is a medium to widen human and nonhuman relations, as animal-human relations in life (Waldau, 2013, p. ix). If the relationship between animal and human is well-preserved, the nature balance can also be well-maintained.

Besides relying on animal studies proposed by DeMello (2012), this study also refers to Johnson's (2009), Mierek's (2010), Geier's (2016) and Gadene's (2014). Animal studies can be said as the one that has a key to (1) unpack the notion of animal thru self-perspective (known as an insider's view), (2) reveal animal's existence that conveys different functions for the world especially for human beings, (3) unsealed any metaphors in animal, including its interactions with human and vice versa. Previously, animal studies is included in anthrozoology, but now developing into literature study. In a literature study, animal studies can be included in a dimension of (1) author's creative processes relating to characterization and symbolization of animals in a literary work, (2) animal characters found in a literary work and animal metaphors in literature, and (3) reader's perception in a such literature.

II. METHODOLOGY

This study explores novel *O* written by Eka Kurniawan using the perspective of animal studies. This study uses a qualitative approach because it uses data descriptions. Stake (1994) argue that a qualitative approach leads more to interpretative studies. Therefore, in this study used a qualitative-interpretative approach to expose the research data. The research instrument is the researcher who also becomes the key instrument. The data is in the form of words, phrases, sentences, and paragraphs that are relevant to the research focus.

Through its application, the animal classification, the animal-human relations, and the animal metaphors portrayed in novel *O* are in depth explored. This qualitative-narrative study aims at describing and explaining animals in novel *O* (2016) written by Eka Kurniawan as the source of the data. The data obtained, then, are analyzed qualitatively using six phases, namely (1) identification, (2) classification, (3) reduction, (4) explanation, (5) verification, and (6) conclusion.

III. RESULT AND ANALYSIS

A. Animal Classification in Novel *O*

Novel *O*, known as a semi-fable novel, shows many animal characters that involve monkey, dog, fly, maggot, parrot, cockatoo, dove, rooster, and python. However, the dominant animal appearing in novel *O* is only a female monkey named *O*, also being a main character in this novel. In her lifetime story, she tries to crush on her dreaming male monkey named Entang Kosasih. Moreover, there are many animals being figurants in the novel.

B. Trans-species Animals: Human-like Animal and Animal-like Human

Portrayed in novel *O* (2016), Eka Kurniawan shows several trans-species animals. Trans-species related to the similarity relationship between humans and animals. Humans and animals have similarity in instinct or survival. therefore, humans and animals can exchange 'territory'. Humans enter the world of animals and animals into the human world.

Human-like Animal. According to novel *O*, animals can exhibit what named by affection. For example, an affection given by a female monkey *O* to a male monkey named Entang Kosasih, revealed in a part of the novel as follows.

...mereka selalu bertemu setiap hari, sebagaimana monyet-monyet muda yang dilanda cinta. Setiap sore ketika waktunya monyet-monyet belia harus menemui monyet tua dan mendengarkan dongeng mereka (p. 2).

(...they always met every day, commonly as what young monkeys did when feeling in love. Every evening, a time for them to meet the older ones and to listen their story (p. 2)

Sebelum ini, ketika mereka bicara tentang perasaan cinta dan masa depan mereka, Entang Kosasih pernah mengatakan, mereka akan menikah di bulan kesepuluh (p. 3).

(Previously, when they talked about affection and feeling in love, Entang Kosasih had ever said that they wanted to get married in the tenth month (p. 3)

Mereka saling berpegangan tangan, saling bersandar, dan saling mencium. Melupakan perdebatan mereka (p. 5).

(They held hands, leant on, and kissed each other. Forgetting all their debates (p. 5)

Both *O* and Entang Kosasih feel how impressive feeling in love. They want to be together ever after, plan further marriage, and share affective intimate in a form of holding arm-in-arm, leaning on shoulder, and kissing each other. They actually experience trans-species as they can feel the feeling of falling in love, which generally only human can feel it.

In today's woman daily trend, they are obsessed by something called as a strict and healthy diet, also a full diet proposed by Hughes (2017). All the diet types are only for the sake of being beautiful and ageless. To cope with that, one of the way is by eating fruits. Interestingly, O in this novel also wants to behave like a woman.

Jika ia memakan buah, ia berpikir buah ini akan membuatku sehat sehingga di bulan kesepuluh, aku akan menjadi betina paling berkilau di seluruh alam raya Rawa Kalong (p. 3)

(If she ate fruits, she thought that the fruits would make her healthier in the tenth month, then, she became the most shining female monkey in the whole world of Rawa Kalong (p. 3)

It is amazing that O can think in such a way. She thinks that she can be a healthy and beautiful monkey by consuming fruits. What O thinks reflects a trans-species behavior, in which she can think like a young woman usually does. As an animal, monkey may also imitate what human beings can do, similarly what happened in this novel.

Entang Kosasih pernah melihat orang-orang yang mengisap kretek. Ia mengingat-ingat bagaimana caranya (p. 16).

(Entang Kosasih had seen people smoking a cigar. He recalled his memory how to do it (p. 16).

Entang Kosasih is a male monkey which has an intellectuality in imitating any human behaviors, i.e. imitating the way how human smokes a cigarette. However, he can reach the higher level of memorizing which can be compared to human's memorizing level. To cope with consistent developments of memorizing skill, he may perceive the same thinking level as those *homo sapiens*, i.e. acting and using revolver like a human.

"Monyet kau tak tahu apa yang kau lakukan! Lepaskan diriku!" teriak si Revolver kepada si monyet (p. 10).

("Monkey, you do not understand what you've done! Release me!" shouted the revolver to the monkey (p. 10).)

Untuk kedua prajurit, O memerankan seorang ibu rumah tangga yang pergi berbelanja ke pasar. O mengenakan daster, menenteng keranjang di satu tangan, dan payung di tangan yang lain. Ia harus membayangkan dirinya berjalan di lorong-lorong becek, digoda preman pasar, bokongnya dijawail kuli angkut, dadanya bisa dibilang rata, diremas penjual beras (p. 29).

(For the two soldiers, O acted as a housewife who went to market to shop, wearing a long dress, carrying a market basket on one of her hands, while an umbrella on the other hand. She imagined walking in a small shaft, teased by beggars, touched on her ass and boobs by market couriers and rice sellers (p. 29).

Based on above quotations, the female monkey, O, is not only able to imitate human's ways of thinking, but also the ways of acting or behaving. For instance, she can fully imitate the way how a housewife goes to a market. She also can imagine that, as a housewife, she may be teased by mashers. Last but not the least, she has already mastered of using revolver.

As an animal, a monkey can transfer knowledge to other animals. It also can apply any knowledge gotten from human, not being stuck in the imitating level. In accordance with novel O, Entang Kosasih is a self-taught being that learns how to become a human completely.

"Jika tidak ada pawang sirkus monyet yang akan mengajarku menjadi manusia, aku akan mengajari diriku sendiri," kata Entang Kosasih, di suatu hari yang penuh gelora (p. 14).

("If there is no a circus guard who teaches me to be a human being, I will do it by self." Said Entang Kosasih in one dazzling day (p. 14).)

In a higher level of learning, an animal does not only independently learn how to be a human, but also is able to teach knowledge to others. This is the fact that O teaches a cockatoo how to behave like a human.

Si monyet mengajari si kakatua berperilaku sebagai manusia. Kamu ingin melihat seperti seorang polisi? O berdiri dan memeragakan bagaimana seorang polisi ketika sedang bekerja, meskipun dalam beberapa hal, apa yang dilakukan oleh O lebih meyerupai tukang parkir daripada seorang polisi (105).

(The mongkey taught a cockatoo to behave like a human. You needed to be looked as a police? O stood and showed how to be a policeman in a duty, even in some cases, it seemed O showed how a parking guard did his job, rather than imitating a police's job (p. 105).)

Above quotation portrays how O can show explicitly how to be a working policeman to a cockatoo. Moreover, a monkey also can be so emotional about something touching a heart. In connection with a sensitive feeling, the following quotation tries to personify O as one who is able to feel sadness and cry when listening to a sad song. She also feels bad when imagining that her peer, a dog, is death terribly.

Kali ini, demikian sedihnya lagu ini, O ikut menangis (p. 3).

(Now, the song is too much sad, then, O cried (p. 3)

Ia mulai berpikir tentang segerombolan lalat yang mengerubungi bangkai anjing di satu selokan Jakarta. Hatinya terasa meleleh, matanya menjadi lumer (p. 58)

(She began to think that a group of flies crowd around one moat in Jakarta. Her heart and eyes are melted (p. 58)

For the climax of this novel, there are two roles animals want to do. First, they indeed want to transform themselves into human beings even though being a human is not that easy.

"Aku tak mungkin meninggalkan Betalumur dan sirkus topeng monyet ini. Di sini aku belajar banyak tentang manusia (p. 48).

("I don't want to leave Betalumur and this monkey mask circus. Here, I learn so many things about humans (p. 48)

Banyak monyet mulai berpikir bisa mengikuti jejak Armo Gundul untuk menjadi manusia (p. 5).

(Many monkeys thought to follow where Armo Gundul left for being a human (p. 5).)

...mengikuti jejak Armo Gundul berarti berikrar untuk menjadi manusia (p. 5).

(...following Armo Gundul means that promising to be the real human (p. 5).

Being a human is not as easy as what the animals expect as many animals, especially monkeys, die during the metamorphosis process of being human.

Second, animals against on human's violence done to them and the nearby environment. This is something unique found in novel *O* as, at first, all animals were under human's dominance, but now, they turn to rebel humans when they feel physically and psychologically tortured.

Wulandari melompat ke arahnya dengan rahang menganga, dengan taring terbuka, mengarah ke lehernya. Jarwo Edan terkejut dan mencoba melindungi dirinya dengan tangan kiri. Rahang Wulandari langsung mencengkeram tangan Jarwo Edan, dan lelaki itu terdorong ke belakang, berguling, dengan si anjing kuat menancapkan taringnya ke lengannya. Kulit tangannya seketika koyak (p.71).

(Wulandari jumped in his direction with an opening mouth, a clear fang directing to his neck. Jarwo Edan was surprised and tried to protect himself by his left hand. When Wulandari directly bit Jarwo's hand, then, he was pumped back and rolled over and over. He felt his skin ripped (p.71).

Kematian Jarwo Edan di tangan Wulandari... (p.129).

(The death of Jarwo Edan was in Wulandari's and ... (p.129).

In this novel, it is revealed that Wulandari, a female dog, makes against human when she feels insecure or tortured by assembling her all efforts. This part is similar to G. Orwell's novel entitled *Animal Farm* (1946/2003) that tells about a rebellion done by animals in an animal farm. Based on the novel, Napoleon, a pig, gives revolutionary and rebellion supports in the farm (Orwell, 1945, p. 70) "even revolutionary in the outlook of himself and his colleagues. They had been credited with attempting to stir up rebellion among the animals on neighboring farms. Nothing could be further from the truth!" and the speech related to the change of the farm's name from Animal Farm into Manor Farm (p.71).

In accordance with the ending in novel *O*, human and animal are described unclear as there is a blur barrier to differ between them. In other words, it can be said that there is a human transforming into an animal, and vice versa. In *Animal Farm*, the ending of novel *O* can be seen about the similarity "the creatures outside looked from pig to man, and from man to pig, and from pig to man again; but already it was impossible to say which was which" (Orwell, 1945, p. 71).

Animal-like Human. As previous explanations, if an animal can be a trans-species into human category, a human also can do in reverse. In other words, a human can act like what animals usually do. This animal-like human's characteristic has been confirmed its notion by Freud's (1910a; 1910b; 1955) *id*-theory and never separated from it. *Id*, a survival energy to live, is an indigenous-instinctive soul which is equally possessed by both human and animal.

Di kota ini, siapapun bisa memakan apa pun. Setiap hari ada manusia yang memakan anjing, sebagaimana Sabtu barangkali ada yang memakan kelelawar dan biawak (p. 41-42).

(In this city, anyone could eat anything. Every day human could eat dog, as on Saturday, there is someone who ate bat and lizard (p. 41-42).)

Human who is habituated to live in a low economic level will be hard to survive in a big city. Henceforth, those who are less-religious and lack of moral and thought may permit any possible efforts to still survive, regardless either thinking bad or good ways. Besides, suburban society who tends to more assert their *id* do anything selfishly, i.e. consuming meats from animals which are basically categorized as forbid to consume. However, some people may feel satisfied after consuming the forbidden meats such as dog, bat, and lizard.

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(In this city, anyone could eat anything. Every day human could eat dog, as on Saturday, there is someone who ate bat and lizard (p. 41-42).)

Dan di saat Betalumur menangkap si anjing kecil serta berniat menjadikannya hidangan makan malam, satu telokan di timur Jakarta, seekor anjing tak perlu datang untuk memakan bangkai manusia. Tapi, siapa yang peduli? Semua manusia dan binatang dan benda-benda dan kenangan dan harapan berebut hidup di kota ini.

(And when Betalumur caught the small dog and planned to make it as a dinner dish, in one corner at East Jakarta, a dog does not need to come to eat human carcass. But, who cares? All humans and animals, also other things and memories and hopes are snatching one another.)

Mereka hanya perlu saling memakan (p. 42).

(They only needed to eat each other (p. 42).

Humans, in general, much rely on their animal instinct than the human's sense. Thus, they can eat the forbidden meats. Moreover, in this novel, it is also described about a man who does a sexual harassment to an animal.

Aku janji akan membikinmu bunting, memberimu lebih banyak anak. Kamu ingin kawin? Anjing macam apa yang kau inginkan? Aku janji akan memberimu nanak anjing paling ganas yang bisa cepat membikinmu bunting.

(I promise to make you pregnant, give you many babies. You want to have a sex intercourse? What kind of dog do you want? I promise to give you the most dangerous pub which can make you pregnant fast.)

"Wulandari, sayang, jangan begitu dong. Jangan melihatku dengan cara yang seperti itu."

("Wulandari, babe, come on, don't be looking that way.")

Si anjing masih mengeram.

(The dog is roaring.)

Jarwo Edan jongkok, lalu membuka kait pintu kandang. Membukanya. Tangannya terulur untuk merengkuh tubuh Wulandari, seperti sering dilakukannya. Ia akan memeluknya erat, membelai tubuhnya, terutama bagian leher. Sesekali menciumnya (p. 70).

(Jarwo Edan, then, got down and opened the cage's door. Opened it. His hand caught Wulandari, as usual as he did. He wanted to hug and care her, especially in her neck. Moreover, once, he kissed her (p. 70).

Jarwo Edan, a character revealed in above quotation, is a man categorized as bestially or zoophilic. Miletski (2009) explains that both bestially and zoophilic are kinds of human's sexual activity that do sexual intercourse with animals. Those categories are believed to happen in a prehistoric era for about 40,000 years ago. In the psychology of personalities, those two sexual categories are said to be aberrant even there are too many such a practice today in many layers of lives.

According to the novel, Jarwo Edan does a sexual intercourse with a dog named Wulandari, a name retracted from Jarwo's ex-girlfriend. Miletski (2009, p. 42) shows one of causes of bestially and zoophilic is that animals are assumed to be a surrogate of losing someone loved. In this context, Jarwo Edan makes Wulandari, the dog representing his ex-girlfriend named Wulandari, as a sexual surrogate.

The climax of this animal-like human story portrayed in novel *O* is a human who dreams to be an animal. Based on Freudian, humans will always try to go out from the comfort zone or habits. Meanwhile, Fromm argues that humans will always try to go away from a bored feeling, so that makes them isolated and strange.

Sebagian besar penduduk desa bisa mengubah dirinya menjadi binatang apapun yang mereka inginkan. Kucing, babi, anjing, kelelawar, buaya, ular, monyet, sebut binatang apapun (p. 377).

(Most people in the village could change themselves into any form of animals, such as cat, pig, bat, dog, crocodile, snake, monkey, and soon (p. 377).)

"Aku ingin kita melompat ke sungai. Berenang bersama-sama. Jika kita berubah menjadi ikan, berarti kita saling mencintai. Dan cinta kita tulus." (p. 387).

("I want to jump to the river. Swimming with others. If we change into a fish, then, it means that we love each other. A pure love." (p. 387))

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("I want to jump to the river. Swimming with others. If we change into a fish, then, it means that we love each other. A pure love." (p. 387))

Based on above quotations, humans start to feel bored and frustrated with their daily lives that make them transform into a trans-species as animals. They think that they will feel happier by being a form of animals, i.e. they wish they could swim like fish or fly like birds, or being scary and annoying like snakes.

C. *Spiritual Animals*

According to novel *O*, cockatoo is categorized as a spiritual animal as he always reminds people to pray. He always utters something about reminding to pray, regardless annoying people or not, he remains doing the same.

"Dirikanlah salat! Dirikanlah salat!" (p. 86).

("Perform prayers! Perform prayers!" (p. 86).)

"Kampret!" Betalumur memungut asbak dan melemparkannya ke arah si burung kakatua (p. 86).

("Shucks!" Betalumur took an ashtray and threw it to the cockatoo (p. 86).)

Tapi burung itu bisa bicara. Mengingatkan kita untuk salat (p. 87).

(But, the bird could talk. Reminding me of having to pray (p. 87).)

Unfortunately, people may response bad of what the cockatoo does. Thus, Betalumur, a character revealed in this novel, is angry when the cockatoo says "*Dirikanlah sholat!*" (Perform the prayers!), as what cockatoo does annoys his nap. Surprisingly, Betalumur almost wants to kill the cockatoo if he never stops being annoying.

Interestingly, the cockatoo seems taking no heed of Batalumur's threats. He always reminds people to pray to God. This situation becomes an allegory of a religious proselytizer who always gets mocked and rejected by other people because those proselytizers are stereotyped as too-knowing persons, or too pure to have a sin. During cockatoo's spiritual journey, he learns knowledge to one of religious master, called Syekh, to deepen his religion mastery.

Kini, setiap Syekh dan murid-muridnya datang ke bawah pohon itu dan membuka pengajian, satu muridnya bertambah. Murid itu bertengger di satu dahan, menyimaknya penuh perhatian. Si kakatua (p. 158).

(Now, every Syekh (a teacher) and his students came to the tree and conduct a religious talk, one student came. The student was in one of branches in that tree and seriously learn about what Syekh said (p. 158).)

Saat itulah ia melihat seekor kakatua dan kakatua itu kembali mengucapkan satu kutipan ayat (p. 160).

(That was the time when he knew a cockatoo and it said one of verses (p. 160).)

Cockatoo is a highly spiritual animal that deeply learns religion, i.e. learning how to properly read God's verses. This condition is also said to be an allegory that a human may religiously perform better as he or she learn the religion well.

D. *The Insulted Animal: The Perspective of Animal Ethics*

Ethics (*ἠθικός* [Yunani]) is a study related to a problem of distinguishing good and bad concepts, or true or wrong ones (Deigh, 2001:1). Theoretically, the word ethics was found in Ancient Greeks era, especially in Socrates, Plato and Aristotle era. Socrates defines ethics as a virtue ethics, while Plato says it is a standard to differ goodness and badness (Cavenagh, 1999, p. 6). Then, it is more well-known when Aristotle writes that every human behavior leads to any goodness. Through it, a human can reach his eudemonia, a happiness, (*εὐδαιμονία* [Yunani]) (Aristotle, 2000, p. 1). Based on Plato and Aristotle, ethics contributes to perceiving a better civilization (Brown, 1990, p. 405) in either individual or communal context.

In the context of this novel, animal ethics is more related to how human insults or defaces animals. The insulting activities may be in the form of both physical and psychological violence, of which is not in line with any animal ethics. Even people know that the animal ethics has not been formally written, they need to serve animals as well as among human beings. In this novel, an animal insult appears as the following quotation.

Seuntai rantai kecil melingkar di lehernya. Dari rantai itu, terjulur tali agak panjang yang berakhir di kaki si pawang, terikat di sana. Jika ia berjalan terlalu jauh, tali itu akan menghentikannya, dan ia akan segera sadar untuk kembali mendekati si pawang... (31).

(There was a small necklace in his neck. From that necklace, there was a bit longer string ended in the owner's foot. If he moved too distantly, the string would stop him, and he consciously would come back to the owner... (31).)

For instance, a monkey is possibly used in a circus in which he also experiences an insult done by the boss. Betalumur is the boss of the circus who regards monkeys unethically. He ties the monkeys to prevent from a self-escape. Moreover, when the monkeys take a rest due to tired exploitation in the circus, Betalumur performs some unethical acts.

Seperti manusia, tentu saja ia juga bisa lelah. Melihat si pawang tidur, ia naik kegerobak perkakas mereka, mencari posisi duduk yang nyaman. Matanya terasa berat. Angin yang berhembus di celah jalanan membuainya. Kelopak matanya mulai turun. Dunia terasa menyempit. Ia hampir tertidur, tapi bentakan si pawang di telinga mengejutkannya (p. 31).

(As human beings, indeed he also felt tired. Looking at the sleeping owner, he went to a mini cart, finding a cozy seat to sit. His eyes were too hard to open. The wind blew slowly from a small space. His eyelids went down and almost closed. However, his owner's shout made him surprised and, then, awoke.)

"Bangun, tolol!" Si pawang mengacungkan pecut. "Siapa suruh kamu tidur?"

("Wake up, fool!" The owner slapped a whip and said again, "Who told you to sleep?")

Dan pecut menghajar tubuh si monyet (p. 31).

(And, the whip also violated the monkey's body (31).)

The tired monkeys get whipped by Betalumur on their backs. He wants them to always work to get much money from the visitors without any rest. As a result, they get injured on their backs and still get whipped by the boss.

Tiga utas lidi setengah kering, dengan ujung kepala diikat oleh karet gelang. Cukup tiga utas untuk membuat si monyet takluk, untuk memberinya jahanam, untuk memberinya pengetahuan siapa tuan dan siapa hamba, untuk membuatnya gemetar, untuk membuatnya melakukan apa yang diminta dan tidak melakukan apa yang diinginkan (p. 44).

(Three bundles of half-dried palm leaf ribs were bundled by a rubber bracelet. Just three of them would make the monkey loyal, to give him a lesson, to show him who is the boss and the slave, to make him tremblingly frightened, and to force him doing what is demanded and wanted (p. 44).)

Tiga utas lidi meninggalkan jejak baru di punggung O. Enam garis luruh, merah gelap. O merasa dirinya terangkat ke udara, dan ia melihat orang-orang, kendaraan, jalanan, gedung-gedung menjadi terbalik. Lalu kosong dan senyap (p. 45).

(The three bundles of half-dried palm leaf ribs left terrible and painful wound on O's back. Six dark red lines. O felt herself as flied and saw many people, vehicles, streets, buildings were flipped over. Then, empty and too quite (p. 45).)

Cahaya lampu yang remang menyiram si monyet yang tampak berusaha berdiri tegak, lalu melangkah perlahan. Kedua tangannya terlipat ke belakang, untuk menahan mereka agar tak jatuh ke lantai. Betalumur yang mengajarkan hal itu. Dulu, ketika ia baru memulai, Betalumur akan mengikat kedua tangan yang terlipat ke belakang tersebut. Itu satu-satunya cara agar dia bisa berjalan dengan kaki dan tubuh tegak lurus. Jika ia sedikit saja membungkuk, tiga utas lidi akan berdesing ke arahnya (50).

(The dusky light of a bulb lightened the monkey who struggled to stand up, then tried to stand up. Both hands were bound on her back, to hold back from falling down to floor. Betalumur taught it to her. Ago, when she would start, Betalumur bound her two hands back. That was the only way to make her walk using her feet with a stacked posture. Once she bended down, the three bundles of half-dried palm leaf ribs she got (p. 50).)

Based on above quotation, an insult done by the boss of the circus to the animals has broken the rules of animal ethics by violating and harassing them. Further, in this novel, a sexual harassment is also revealed when Jarwo Edan wants to rape his female dog namely Wulandari.

Jarwo Edan jongkok, lalu membuka kait pintu kandang. Membukanya. Tangannya terulur untuk merengkuh tubuh Wulandari, seperti sering dilakukannya. Ia akan memeluknya erat, membelai tubuhnya, terutama bagian leher. Sesekali menciumnya (Kurniawan, 2016, p.70).

(Jarwo Edan, then, got down and opened the door hook. Opened it. His hand caught Wulandari, as usual as he did. He wanted to hug and care her, especially in her neck. Moreover, once, he kissed her (Kurniawan, 2016, p. 70).

Jarwo Edan –based on the above quotation- performs a sexual intercourse with his dog. He actually has been defaced the dog as an animal that has freedom to do sexual intercourse with those the other dogs. Thus, Jarwo Edan has broken an animal ethics by raping Wulandari.

IV. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

The occurrence of animals in novel *O* actually shows an allegory in post-humanism, covering allegory of monkey, cockatoo, dog, and fish man.

First, an allegory of monkey conveys that monkeys that work in a circus show proletarian human work for the boss, those who are in the high level of wealth. Those in proletarian category are obliged to work non-stop and all efforts are only for the sake of the boss' interests. Moreover, a monkey is also an allegory of villagers who dream to work in a capital to pursue wealthier. However, searching opportunities and surviving lives in a big city are difficult and tend to occur layers of problems. A monkey holding a revolver may show humans who use a revolver frivol and arbitrarily. Thus, it is now much happening on misdirected shootings and several violence done by those in charge of using a revolver.

Second, an allegory of cockatoo shows that some people may misinterpret to those who spread and engraft religion values as those who annoy and spread social disruption. However, as the ones who teach religion, they never give up in still spreading and teaching religion to other people.

Third, an allegory of dog shows the life style of suburban people that is characterized as lacks of wealth. They indeed lack of food, place to live, and job. As a result, they become a thief or other crimes because those are the things they can do to survive. This condition shows a satire on the ramshackle government which neglect middle up to lower society level. Thus, numbers of violence become a response of such condition.

At last, an allegory of a fish man reveals that modern humans are now experiencing bored feelings about themselves. Thus, they change themselves into another form, i.e. an animal. Today's fact shows some people change their face as tiger-like or transform their tongue as similar to a snake's tongue.

All above allegories come to two major phenomena. First, an allegory of Indonesian societies' lives reveals a broken living structure that demands a good leader who never promotes violence, sadism/bestially, corruption, and egoism. Second, it an allegory that portrays the minimum cares of environmental safety, especially for animals which still let amounts of animal abuses to happen.

Some allegories shown in novel *O* by Eka Kurniawan are a manifestation of post-humanism aesthetic symbolized with letter *O*, because he transforms all human kinds to animals, and vice versa. In a trans-species framework, human beings may transform being animals, and animals also have the same opportunity to be human beings. The cycle represents *O* letter, as *ouroboros*, of which meaning an endless cyclical process of transformation. Human beings may act as an animal, and vice versa. Darwin (1871/1981) argues that both animal and human have no essential differences based on behavioral and morphological theories. In this context, the strongest creature will always survive in any situation, called *homo homini lupus* –those who are stronger, those who will win. In this universe, human beings should be able to harmonize any form of cycle. They should love either human beings, or non-humans such as animals, plants, and nearby interlinked environments.

Based on previous explanations, it can be concluded that Eka Kurniawan mostly constructs the interaction between animal and human portrayed in novel *O*. As in a socio-political context, the occurrence of these animals is a symbol related to modern living style where most Indonesian people try to pursue and possess. Moreover, philosophically, animal and human have freedom to think and to act, essence and existence, *etre-pour soi* based on Sartrean, to determine whoever they actually are. They may become any form as long as they can be responsible to any consequences attached afterwards. In relation with an environment, human should love among others, also including but not limited to plant and animal. Thus, it can be said that human and environment elements are parts of life which are interconnected and difficult to separate.

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