

Theory and Practice in Language Studies

ISSN 1799-2591

Volume 8, Number 10, October 2018

Contents

REGULAR PAPERS

- The Romance Advantage — The Significance of the Romance Languages as a Pathway to Multilingualism 1253
Kathleen Stein-Smith
- Constructing Women's Language and Shifting Gender Identity through Intralingual Translanguaging 1261
Eriko Sato
- Analysis of *New Concept English* from the Perspective of Cross-cultural Communication—A Case Study in Book 2 1270
Julong Wang
- Identity, Place and Non-belonging in Jean Rhys's Fiction 1278
Lin Yan
- Tim O'Brien's "Bad" Vietnam War: *The Things They Carried* & Its Historical Perspective 1283
Ramtin Noor-Tehrani (Noor) Mahini, Erin Barth, and Jed Morrow
- Discussion on the Effective Application of Information Technology in Informatization EFL Teaching 1294
Zhaoxi Wei
- Review on Domestic English Writing Research in Senior One 1301
Nana Jing, Yun Zhang, Qiang Huang, and Can Wang
- Biliteracy: A Systematic Literature Review about Strategies to Teach and Learn Two Languages 1307
John J. Ducuara and Hugo A. Roza
- An Assessment of Chinese Adult Learners' English Phonological Awareness 1319
Min Hu
- The Face View of China and Foreign Countries under Cross-cultural Communication 1324
Qian Hong and Gaofeng Yu
- Long Vowels and Nasal-consonant Sequences in Kisa 1329
Emily Ayieta Ondondo
- A Research on Postgraduate English Curriculum Based on the Academic English 1338
Yuan Kong
- Stylistics and the Teaching of *Advanced English* for Senior English Majors 1346
Chuanmei Kang
- The Association between Self-efficacy of Saudi Learners and Their EFL Academic Performance 1351
Fakieh Alrabai
-

An Analysis of <i>Lady Chatterley's Lover</i> from the Perspective of Ecofeminism <i>Ting Bo</i>	1361
On the C-E Translation of Chinese Classics from the Perspective of Thick Translation Theory <i>Yuying Li and Qi Lu</i>	1365
The Role of Using English Newspapers in Enhancing Pre-intermediate Level Learners' Reading Comprehension Skills <i>Ranwa Khorsheed and Joumana Rassoul</i>	1370

The Romance Advantage — The Significance of the Romance Languages as a Pathway to Multilingualism

Kathleen Stein-Smith

Fairleigh Dickinson University, Metropolitan Campus, Teaneck, NJ, USA

Abstract—As 41M in the US speak a Romance language in the home, it is necessary to personally and professionally empower L1 speakers of a Romance language through acquisition of one or more additional Romance languages. The challenge is that Romance language speakers, parents, and communities may be unaware of both the advantages of bilingual and multilingual skills and also of the relative ease in developing proficiency, and even fluency, in a second or third closely related language. In order for students to maximize their Romance language skills, it is essential for parents, educators, and other language stakeholders to work together to increase awareness, to develop curriculum, and to provide teacher training -- especially for Spanish-speakers, who form the vast majority of L1 Romance language speakers in the US, to learn additional Romance languages.

Index Terms—romance languages, bilingual education, multilingualism, foreign language learning, romance advantage

I. INTRODUCTION

The Romance languages, generally considered to be French, Spanish, Italian, Portuguese, and Romanian, and in addition, regional languages including Occitan and Catalan, developed from Latin over a significant period of time and across a considerable geographic area. The beginnings of the Romance languages can be traced to the disappearance of the Roman Empire, along with Latin, its *lingua franca*. Today they are spoken by over a billion native, or L1, speakers around the world (*Ethnologue*), and over 41M in the US (Ryan, 2013).

Yet although significant differences exist among the modern languages today, mutual intelligibility and lexical similarities not only make understanding across languages possible, to varying degrees, but perhaps more importantly, in the globalized and interconnected world, they also facilitate learning additional Romance languages for the L1 and L2 speaker/learner alike.

While there are a number of course offerings designed for Romance language speakers intending to learn an additional Romance language, the impact of building on the commonalities among closely related languages in order to build bilingualism, and even multilingualism, is not always part of the general conversation in the US. The term intercomprehension has been used, generally in Europe, to describe the connections and possibilities among closely related languages and their cultures (APIC; Nadeau & Barlow, 2012; EC).

Encouraging Romance language speakers, heritage language speakers, and proficient learners, to study an additional Romance language, and using intercomprehension and other strategies that maximize the similarities between languages, would be an effective strategy to increase language skills and cultural knowledge. It would also be an effective advocacy strategy to increase interest in the less studied Romance languages, which include Portuguese, an increasingly important language in international business and communication.

II. THE ROMANCE LANGUAGES AT A GLANCE

In addition to being an official language of Spain and throughout South America, Central America, Mexico, and in the Caribbean, Spanish is the language most frequently spoken in the home after English in the US. With over 400M native speakers, primarily in Spain and Latin America, Spanish is an international language and has the second largest number of native speakers in the world, second only to Mandarin Chinese (*Ethnologue*). In addition, Spanish is spoken in the home by 41M in the US, making it the second most widely spoken language in the US. It is also the most widely studied foreign language in the US (ACTFL; MLA, 2015).

French is spoken throughout the world, with 80 members in the *Organisation internationale de la Francophonie*, and is the third most spoken language in the US -- the most frequently spoken language after English in 4 states, and the most frequently spoken after English and Spanish in 11 states altogether (Blatt, 2014). In addition, Canada, which shares the longest border with the US is officially bilingual in English and French. With over 200M first language speakers around the world, French is a global language, spoken on every continent (*Ethnologue*). After English, it is the second most widely studied foreign language in the world (OIF, 2014), and is the second most widely studied language

in the US. In addition, French is considered the third most useful language for international business (*English, Chinese, and French*, 2011). Over 2M speak French in the US (Ryan, 2013). It is interesting to note that French is also the language of medicine in the US, as the most frequent language of doctors after English and Spanish in 16 states (Jones).

In the US, Spanish is the most frequently spoken language after English in 43 states. French is the most frequently spoken language after English in 4 states, leaving only 3 of our 50 states in which a Romance language is not the most frequently spoken language after English (Blatt, 2014).

In addition to French and Spanish, Portuguese and Italian are important languages both globally and within the United States. Portuguese is spoken by over well 200M native speakers, primarily in Brazil, Portugal, and Africa (*Ethnologue*), and by nearly 700K in the US (Ryan, 2013). However, it is interesting to note that it is considered to be among the Less Commonly Taught Languages (LCTLs) in the US. Italian is spoken by 65M native speakers, primarily in Italy (*Ethnologue*), and by over 700K in the US (Ryan, 2013). It is among the most frequently studied languages in the US. Romanian is spoken by another 25M native speakers, primarily in Romania (*Ethnologue*).

According to the Census, over 60M Americans speak a language other than English in the home, and of this 60M, over 41M are speaking a Romance language, with French and Spanish the two Romance languages most frequently spoken. In terms of all languages other than English spoken in the US, Spanish is the most frequently spoken after English, and French/French Creole is the third most frequently spoken (Ryan, 2013).

French is the second most widely studied language in the world -- second only to English, with over 125M learners around the world (OIF, 2014). In the US, Spanish and French are the most widely studied languages. At the college and university level, 3 of the top 5 languages studied are Romance languages, Spanish, French, and Italian. Italian is the fourth most studied language in the world (Edwards, 2016). Latin is among the top 10, and Portuguese showed an increase of over 10% between 2009 and 2013, one of only 3 languages to show an percentage increase (MLA, 2015; *U.S. Demand*). At the K-12 level, Spanish and French are also the most frequently studied languages, with 7.4M and 1.3M enrolled respectively, and Latin is included among the major languages (ACTFL).

It is interesting to note that external advocates, including foreign governments, advocate for their national language and culture worldwide. Among Romance language organizations, these include the *Institut Français* and *Alliance Française*, the *Società Dante Alighieri*, and the *Instituto Camões*, and the *Instituto Cervantes*, intended to promote worldwide French, Italian, and Portuguese, and Spanish language and culture respectively. Recently, French President Macron has spoken of the global role of French, saying that French would be "the first language of Africa, and perhaps of the world" (Smith, 2017).

III. THE CULTURAL AND POLITICAL INFLUENCE OF THE ROMANCE LANGUAGES

The Romance languages have cultural, political, and economic significance, both around the world and in the US. Language also includes economic and cultural dimensions, and the global economic and cultural influence of the Romance languages is considerable. The Francophonie generates 8% of global GDP (OIF, 2014), while France, Italy, Brazil, and Canada are among the top 10 largest economies in the world (WEF, 2017). In terms of cultural influence, the Romance languages have played a significant role, with Spanish, French, and Portuguese demonstrating historical and cultural influence of Spain, France, and Portugal across the globe, and the historical and cultural influence of Italy, home of the Roman Empire and considered by many to be the birthplace of the Renaissance. In terms of global image, France ranks second in the world in a recent survey, with Canada, Italy, and Switzerland also in the top 10 (*Why France*, 2017). In terms of "soft power," France ranks first in the world, with Canada and Switzerland, also French-language nations, also in the top 10 (Gray, 2017).

Romance languages are widely spoken around the world, and the top five most widely spoken Romance languages alone account for approximately 1B native speakers, and 300M additional second language speakers (*Ethnologue*). In the US, more than 41M -- or one in seven -- Americans speak a Romance language in the home (Ryan, 2013). French and Spanish are the most widely studied foreign languages in the US (ACTFL; MLA, 2015), and French is the second most widely studied language in the world (OIF, 2014).

Beyond the languages themselves, the impact of the Romance-speaking world, which has spread well beyond Europe, is a factor in our collective culture and heritage, past and present, and in global politics, economics, and business. Understanding additional Romance languages opens the door to increased intercultural understanding.

In addition to their importance today, both in the US and around the world, the Romance languages have historical significance. Along with English -- French, Spanish, and Portuguese were languages of colonization around the world, and historically, large parts of what is now the US were once part of the French or Spanish colonial empire in North America, clearly visible still today through place names like Saint Louis, San Francisco, and many more. Italian is the modern language of what was once the center of the Roman Empire.

In terms of influence, it is interesting to note that, of the six official languages of the UN, two -- French and Spanish -- are Romance languages, while the remaining represent diverse language families. Two of the ten languages with the most native speakers -- Spanish and Portuguese -- are Romance languages (*Ethnologue*). Three of the top ten most powerful languages in the world -- French, Spanish, and Portuguese -- are Romance languages (WEF). France is considered the world leader in "soft power" (Gray, 2017).

This combination of cultural, historical, political, and economic significance, the large number of native L1 speakers and Romance language L2 learners around the world and in the US, as well as the degree of mutual intelligibility and lexical similarity among them, make it essential for foreign language educators to encourage study of additional Romance languages by both native speakers and proficient/advanced learners.

Romance languages are among the most widely studied in the US, with Spanish and French the most studied foreign languages in K-12 and at the college and university level. Italian and Portuguese have smaller enrollments, but interest in both has increased in recent years, due to demand from students with Spanish or Portuguese ancestry, the worldwide importance of the cultures, and in the case of Portuguese, due to the increasing economic and geopolitical importance of Brazil. Spanish, French, and Italian are among the most frequently studied languages in the US at both the K-12 and college and university level (MLA, 2015). In addition, Latin remains the official language of the Roman Catholic Church.

Esperanto, perhaps the most famous constructed auxiliary language, draws its vocabulary largely from the Romance languages. It has approximately 2M speakers, 1,000 to 2,000 may be considered native speakers.

IV. THE ECONOMIC SIGNIFICANCE OF THE ROMANCE LANGUAGES

In addition to the historical and cultural significance of the Romance languages, it is also important to consider the economic significance of the Romance languages within the context of a globalized world.

In terms of economic impact, it is interesting to note that, according to Bloomberg, four of the top ten most useful languages for international business -- French, Spanish, Portuguese, and Italian -- are Romance languages (*English, Chinese, and French*, 2011). Four of the top 10 nations in the world ranked by GDP are Romance language-speaking countries -- France, Brazil, Italy, and Canada (Statistics Times). 79 of the Global Fortune 500 are in Romance language-speaking countries, with France leading the group with 29 Global Fortune 500 companies (*Global Fortune 500*).

Former colonies of Spain have a combined GDP of \$3.56T, or 4% of the world total, plus an additional \$1.35T for Spain. Former colonies of France have a combined GDP of \$822.63B, plus an additional \$2.61T for France alone. Brazil, a former colony of Portugal has a GDP of \$2.25T (11 times that of Portugal). The GDPs of Italy, Portugal, and Romania are \$2.01T, \$212.45B, and \$169.40B respectively. This totals almost 13T GDP, demonstrating the economic status of the Romance language world. (*NationMaster*).

In a study of the economic return on foreign language study, estimated to be at around 2% of lifetime earnings (Johnson, 2014), not only were French and Spanish among the top three, but if proficiency could be achieved in more than one of the closely-related Romance languages, the return on investment (ROI) would be even more considerable.

In terms of cultural significance, of Nobel Prize winners in literature, 16 are from France, the largest number from any single country, and of these Nobel Prize laureates, 36 wrote in Romance languages, a total of 32% of the 114 winners 1901-2017 (*List of Nobel Laureates*). 4 of the top 10 countries in terms of the number of books published per year in the world -- France, Brazil, Spain, and Italy -- are Romance language countries (Ha, 2017). In terms of internet use, 3 of the top 10 languages of internet users, and 4 of the top 10 languages of internet content, are Romance languages (*Languages Used*).

12 of the top 100 universities in the world are located in Romance language-speaking countries (QS, 2018), and 3 of the top 5 most visited tourist destinations in the world are Romance language-speaking countries -- France, Spain, and Italy (*World Tourism*).

V. THE ROMANCE ADVANTAGE AS A PATHWAY TO MULTILINGUALISM

The shared history and current similarities among the Romance languages point toward the effective use of the Romance advantage in maximizing learning of additional Romance languages by both L1 and, to some extent, L2 speakers, whether through intercomprehension -- understanding of a second language through its similarity to the mother tongue of the reader or listener, or through specific teaching methods and materials, as well as learning strategies, including cognate recognition strategies, to maximize learning of additional languages. The conversation among proponents of developing proficiency and even fluency across the Romance languages has even gone so far as to include a discussion of whether additional languages should be learned sequentially or simultaneously (McCann, Klein, & Stegmann, 2002).

The key advantage of foreign language study within the Romance language group, or within another group of closely-related languages, is that generally the time and effort required to achieve proficiency and fluency are significantly less than those required for a beginner without prior knowledge of a Romance language.

While French, Spanish, Italian, Portuguese, and Romanian are different languages today, they are all descended from Latin, the language of Rome and the Roman Empire, the global language of the *pax romana*. Even English, a Germanic language, was influenced by Norman French, and much of our vocabulary is of French and/or Latin Romance origin.

Speakers of one Romance language can understand each other to varying degrees and can more easily learn additional Romance languages than those who speak less closely related languages. Mutual intelligibility (Cinobanu & Dinu, 2014), lexical similarity, and linguistic distance are among the terms used to describe the dynamic relationship among closely related languages.

In Europe, the term intercomprehension has been used to describe mutual intelligibility in terms of second language learning within the context of plurilingualism, with learning one language no longer an end in itself, but rather the means to develop multilingual and intercultural skills (APIC; Gooskens et al, 2018). The goal of intercomprehension is to understand the target language based on knowledge of your own closely-related language, and stems from the European concept of plurilingualism based on its core value of multilingualism. However, the limits of intercomprehension in terms of understanding are not yet clear.

The Romance advantage, on the other hand, takes advantage of and builds upon the linguistic knowledge of the learner in order to actually learn the additional language(s). This advantage for native speakers, or those proficient in a Romance language, in the learning of additional Romance languages could even be considered a Romance "bonus," or "discount," in terms of the percentage of the new language that comes easily, or almost effortlessly, due to previous knowledge of another Romance language. It is also possible that even non-native speakers of Spanish or another Romance language, depending on their level of proficiency, may experience at least some of the benefits of building on their knowledge in learning an additional Romance language in written, and also in spoken, forms.

While there are those who would bring back Latin as the global *lingua franca*, or expand the learning and use of Esperanto, students today would benefit from learning at least one modern Romance language, and those who are first-language or heritage speakers of one of those would benefit from achieving business proficiency or fluency, and both groups would benefit from leveraging their existing skills to include one or more additional Romance languages.

Although the idea of learning multiple Romance languages at the same time is not a new one, even though language departments in colleges and universities are often called Romance language departments, there is often little effort made to teach languages together, in a comparative and contrastive manner, but rather they are generally taught separately. The classic *A Comparative Practical Grammar of French, Spanish and Italian*, (Heatwole & Pei, 1976) is an example of using the Romance advantage as a pathway to multilingualism. The potential benefit of study of Latin, and even of Esperanto, in the learning of the Romance languages has often been discussed. In the case of Latin, while approximately 90% of vocabulary in the Romance languages is ultimately of Latin origin, the Romance languages evolved – over a considerable time period and across a significant geographic expanse – only indirectly from the classical Latin typically taught in school, but more directly from spoken Latin, often referred to as vulgar Latin, as it evolved locally across what had been the Roman Empire. While Latin is linked to many academic benefits, and may serve to increase general linguistic awareness, the modern Romance languages are – to varying degrees – quite different from Latin. The potential benefit of beginning foreign language study, or study of the Romance languages, with Esperanto tends to center more on the development of the habits of mind needed by the foreign language learner new to Romance languages or by the new foreign language learner. The Romance advantage can be a pathway to both foreign language skill, greater intercultural understanding, and career success. Initiatives to maximize the Romance advantage can easily be found in Europe and the US, including courses at the University of Washington, MIT, the University of Southern California, the University of Arizona, and a workshop at California State Long Beach. In Europe, there has been research, as well as similar initiatives, including the European Awareness and Intercomprehension Project and Eurocomprehension in Romance Languages (EuroComRom) (Byram & Hu, 2013), as well as numerous initiatives by the *Institut Français*. French also has *une place spéciale* in the Romanian educational system (Government of Romania). In learning a second or third Romance language, learners build on existing knowledge and intuitive skills, emphasizing how specific Romance languages are alike and, importantly, how they differ, with a quick start, a targeted approach, and maintaining momentum key to success. Reading parallel texts, either within a textbook or curriculum, or through an organization that routinely produces texts in a variety of languages can also be helpful in developing confidence and in becoming accustomed to both similarities of the starting language and the target language (Lunn, 2017). If we look at Latin and the Romance languages within the context of language change, it is interesting to note that English, while not a Romance language or descended directly from Latin, has many Latin and Romance elements in its vocabulary, stemming from the historical influence of Norman French on Anglo Saxon during the period following the Norman Conquest, and also stemming from the many scientific and technical terms inspired directly by Latin, as needed. An example of the effectiveness of the Romance advantage as a pathway to multilingualism would be the success of Romance language speakers from around the world as French and Spanish language winners in the Many Languages One World Essay Contest and Global Youth Forum. (MLOW). MLOW is a contest in which college and university from around the world are invited to submit an essay -- in a learned second language, also one of the official languages of the United Nations -- on an assigned topic related to the principles of the UN Academic Impact (2014), and the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), beginning in 2015. Finalists are interviewed via Skype in the learned second language, and winners are brought New York where they spent several days on a US college campus, working in transnational teams on a group presentation, always in the learned second language, in the United Nations General Assembly Hall. Many of the French and Spanish winners have been native speakers of another Romance language and fluent speakers of one or more additional Romance languages. For example, many of the French language winners have been L1 speakers of a Romance language, from Brazil, Mexico, Peru, Romania, and Spain, among many other countries. In order to empower native and heritage speakers, as well as proficient Romance language learners, it is necessary to facilitate learning additional Romance languages through courses specifically designed to build bridges directly from one Romance language to another, without the unnecessary distraction of English as the language of departure and as

part to the process, and to teach additional Romance languages in the spirit of cross-training. The cross-training metaphor is especially applicable in describing the Romance advantage. The regular use of another language has been demonstrated to support mental acuity and to delay the onset of dementia. As the use of one or more additional languages is beneficial to our mental fitness, using the Romance advantage to facilitate learning of more than one Romance language is akin to cross-training, which uses several types of exercise to increase fitness. While the learning and use of more than one language can be considered a form of linguistic cross-training, the additional factor to consider here is that learning an additional Romance language becomes easier with each one learned, the Romance "discount" increasing with each Romance language learned. Courses intended for Romance language speakers learning an additional Romance language already exist, primarily offering French, Portuguese, and Italian for Spanish-language speakers, in institutions around the country, and provide a model for future growth. Teaching methods and materials need to be expanded to maximize the connections between languages, and the Romance advantage. (Carvalho et al., 2010) recommend the use of authentic materials and highlighting of differences between L1 and L2, in this case, Portuguese for Spanish speakers. Although the Romance advantage is the most significant and applicable in the US, it is also necessary to add that a parallel advantage exists for language learners within other closely related language families, including the Germanic and Slavic languages, which are part of the conversation on intercomprehension within the EU.

VI. ROMANCE LANGUAGE ADVOCACY

In order for more students to benefit from the Romance advantage, parents, communities, and -- most importantly -- students and prospective students need to become more aware of both the personal and professional benefits of learning an additional Romance language, and the extent to which that process is facilitated by knowledge of a first Romance language, which in the US, is predominantly Spanish. Once motivation has been created, teacher training and development of specific curriculum and materials to support learning of French, Italian, and Portuguese by Spanish-speakers and by proficient L2 speakers of Spanish. Additional language combinations would follow.

Advocacy, defined as the "act or process of supporting a cause or proposal," by Merriam-Webster, is essential to motivate students to begin foreign language study and to continue foreign language to proficiency and/or fluency. Romance language advocacy, a subset of foreign language advocacy, includes many of the same elements as all foreign language advocacy. However, foreign language advocacy is often either limited to a particular language, or encompasses foreign language learning overall, within the context of professional associations of foreign language educators and other language stakeholders.

What is needed is very specific advocacy to increase awareness of the importance of the Romance language-speaking world to which enhanced access is possible through language skills and more in-depth knowledge of the culture. Once interest and motivation exist, information on the real benefits of the Romance advantage need to be made known to students, parents, and communities, as well as specific information on accelerated pathways to proficiency.

It is important for foreign language educators to reflect on the fact that although teaching additional Romance languages directly to Romance language speakers may seem to break down traditional barriers among teachers of one or more specific languages, it actually builds bridges between foreign languages and between foreign language educators. It also offers not only a pathway to trilingualism, but is in alignment with the goals of "translingual and transcultural competence" and strengthening "the demand for language competence within the university," as stated in the 2007 MLA report, *Foreign Languages and Higher Education: New Structures for a Changed World* (Carvalho, Luna Freire, and da Silva, 2010).

This is, however, not only a conversation about foreign languages, but it is about the future of students, and building support among parents and in local communities is key. Increasing awareness among students and potential students is important, but it is also important to obtain buy-in from parents and family members, who may not always be aware of the relatively shorter pathway to proficiency in a second Romance language and of the benefits that proficiency, and even fluency, in a second or third Romance language can bring. The development of career pathways, partnerships with business, local communities and other language stakeholders, and the development of experiential learning opportunities, as well as relevant recognitions and rewards are all beneficial in developing sustainable motivation.

Collaboration among the professional language education associations representing the Romance languages, bilingual and heritage language groups, along with parents and language enterprise partners is essential.

While this collaborative effort among parents, teachers, and communities may be challenging, the potential benefits to our students and to our society are significant. An early start, beneficial in all foreign language learning, could potentially empower Romance language learners to achieve fluency across all the major Romance languages, bringing the appreciation of all Romance culture as well as career advantages.

VII. FUTURE NEEDS

With over 41M speaking a Romance language in the home in the US, while the US suffers from a foreign language deficit, it is essential to maximize the Romance advantage in order to empower Romance language speakers and heritage language speakers, as well as proficient Romance language learners, to use the lexical similarity and mutual

intelligibility of the Romance languages to learn additional Romance languages and to develop translingual and transcultural competency.

More research is needed on how best to teach additional Romance languages to native, heritage, and proficient speakers through foreign languages courses, both in person and online, for all age groups, and through immersion programs designed to maximize the Romance advantage. Teacher training and development of curricular and support materials will also be needed.

It is also important to reflect on which language(s) to teach and learn. While mutual intelligibility and lexical similarity vary among the Romance languages, largely for historical and geographical reasons, they remain closely related. For that reason, the question as to which language to start with should largely be decided based on personal and professional interest.

It is also important to consider different designs for learning, and it is possible to envision intensive programs, including immersion and short-term, and accelerated programs, as well as online programs empowering Romance language speakers to acquire one or more additional Romance languages. The "bilingual revolution," bringing dual language immersion to students throughout the NYC area and beyond, is an excellent example of dual language immersion, and could serve as a model for Romance language immersion. Other initiatives worth further examination in terms of building bridges among Romance languages include the NYC Bilingual Fair, now also in San Francisco, and the Seal of Biliteracy.

The need is clear. With over 41M speaking a Romance language in the home in the US, it is essential to develop curriculum, programs, and materials, and to train teachers, to empower these students by maximizing the Romance advantage.

Moreover, as the vast majority of these US Romance language speakers are Spanish-language speakers, curriculum, immersion and traditional programs, and teachers are urgently needed to teach Portuguese, Italian, French and other Romance languages to Spanish-language speakers using methods and materials to maximize the Romance advantage.

The number of additional conversations and connections, as well as the opportunity to experience additional cultures directly, without need of a translator or interpreter, and the insights gained about our own language, culture, and history make learning another Romance language a bargain too good to resist.

VIII. CONCLUSIONS

The case for the Romance advantage is clear, with knowledge of one or more additional Romance languages offering a pathway to personal, cultural, and career advantage for learners of all ages. Trans-Romance teaching and learning needs to move from the niche to the mainstream in foreign language education.

The issue is that Romance language speakers may not be aware of the power of both intercomprehension (Donato) and of the Romance advantage in learning another language and in the benefits that knowledge of additional languages will bring them.

Increasing awareness of the relative ease of learning a closely related additional language, along with the benefits of bilingual skills both personally and professionally is an essential first step. It is essential for foreign language educators, advocates, and supporters work together to develop curriculum based on linguistic similarities and emphasizing the strategies that Romance language speakers can use to quickly develop skills in the target languages.

Internships and other experiential learning opportunities, and career pathways to encourage continued study of additional Romance languages and to develop the professional linguistic and cultural skills needed to maximize the Romance advantage as a career and professional advantage are essential next steps. Beyond the personal and professional benefits of knowledge of additional languages, and the role and importance of the Romance advantage in supporting and sustaining linguistic growth, it is necessary to think of the significance of linguistic skills and cultural knowledge in global citizenship. Numerous US initiatives, as well as those in the European Union offer examples of curriculum, and the *Organisation internationale de la Francophonie* offer examples of what can be achieved when a common language is used to support and expand shared values. It would be worthwhile to consider maximizing the shared linguistic, cultural, and historical heritage of Romance-speaking populations around the world through a similar initiative transcending any single language group and spanning the entire Romance-speaking world.

REFERENCES

- [1] American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages. Foreign Language enrollments in K-12 public schools: Are students ready for a global society? <https://www.actfl.org/news/reports/foreign-language-enrollments-k-12-public-schools-are-students-ready-global-society> (accessed 21/5/18).
- [2] American Councils for International Education. (2017). The National K-12 Foreign Language Enrollment Survey Report. <https://www.americancouncils.org/flereport> (accessed 21/5/18).
- [3] Blatt, Ben (2014). Tagalog in California, Cherokee in Arkansas: What language does your state speak? http://www.slate.com/articles/arts/culturebox/2014/05/language_map_what_s_the_most_popular_language_in_your_state.html (accessed 21/5/18).

- [4] Brown, Jennifer. (2017). Macron's France has dethroned Trump's America as the world's top soft power <https://qz.com/1033191/emmanuel-macrons-france-has-topped-the-global-soft-power-index-pushing-donald-trumps-us-to-third-place/> (accessed 21/5/18).
- [5] Carvalho, A. M., Luna Freire, J., & da Silva, A.J.B. (2010). "Teaching Portuguese to Spanish Speakers: A Case for Trilingualism." *Hispania* 93:1 (2010): 70-75.
- [6] Ciobanu, Alina Maria, & Dinu, Liviu P. (2014). On the Romance Languages Mutual Intelligibility. http://www.lrec-conf.org/proceedings/lrec2014/pdf/1183_Paper.pdf (accessed 21/5/18).
- [7] Consolato Generale d'Italia, Los Angeles. (2012). *Teaching Italian to Spanish-speakers through Intercomprehension: new perspectives in Los Angeles*. http://www.conslosangeles.esteri.it/consolato_losangeles/en/la_comunicazione/dal_consolato/2012/11/intercomprehension.html (accessed 21/5/18).
- [8] Donato, Clorinda. The Ties that Bind: Italian for Spanish Speakers in Intercomprehension <http://www.usspeaksitalian.org/ties-bind-italian-spanish-speakers-intercomprehension> (accessed 21/5/18).
- [9] Edwards, Catherine. (2016). Love, food, and music: Why Italian is now the world's fourth most studied language. <https://www.thelocal.it/20161027/love-food-and-music-why-italian-is-now-the-worlds-fourth-most-studied-language> (accessed 21/5/18).
- [10] English, Chinese, French most useful for business. <https://www.language magazine.com/english-chinese-french-most-useful-for-business/> (accessed 21/5/18).
- [11] Ethnologue: Languages of the world. <https://www.ethnologue.com/> (accessed 21/5/18).
- [12] European Commission. European Awareness and Intercomprehension. <http://www.euintercomprehension.eu/index.html> (accessed 21/5/18).
- [13] Fortune Global 500. <http://fortune.com/global500/list/> (accessed 21/5/18).
- [14] La France en Italie. Enseigner le français. <https://it.ambafrance.org/-Enseigner-le-francais-> (accessed 21/5/18).
- [15] French for Spanish Speakers. French for Spanish Speakers Courses at CSU Long Beach. <http://ielanguages.com/blog/french-for-spanish-speakers/> (accessed 21/5/18).
- [16] Gooskens, C., van Heuven, V.J., Golubovic, J., Schuppert, A., Swarte, F., & Voigt, S. (2017). *Mutual intelligibility between closely related languages in Europe*. *International Journal of Multilingualism* 15:2 169-193.
- [17] Government of Romania. Ministère des Affaires étrangères. *L'enseignement en français, en Roumanie*. <http://www.mae.ro/fr/node/12456> (accessed 21/5/18).
- [18] Gray, Alex (2017). The World's 10 Biggest Economies in 2017. <https://www.weforum.org/agenda/2017/03/worlds-biggest-economies-in-2017/> (accessed 21/5/18).
- [19] Gray, Alex (2017). France becomes the world no 1 for soft power. <https://www.weforum.org/agenda/2017/07/france-new-world-leader-in-soft-power/> (accessed 21/5/18).
- [20] Ha, Thu Huong. (2017). China and the US make nearly half the world's books. <https://qz.com/1057240/which-country-publishes-the-most-books/> (accessed 21/5/18).
- [21] Heatwole, O.W., and Pei, M.A. (1976). *A Comparative practical grammar of French, Spanish, and Italian*. NY: Vanni, 1976.
- [22] Johnson: What is a foreign language worth? <https://www.economist.com/blogs/prospere/2014/03/language-study> (accessed 21/5/18).
- [23] Jones, Meghan. This Is the Most Common Language Spoken by Doctors (Besides English and Spanish) <https://www.rd.com/culture/most-common-languages-doctors/> (accessed 21/5/18).
- [24] Languages Used on the Internet. https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Languages_used_on_the_Internet (accessed 21/5/18).
- [25] L'Association pour la promotion de l'intercompréhension (APIC). <http://apic.onlc.fr/3LINTERCOMPREHENSION.html> (accessed 21/5/18).
- [26] List of Nobel Laureates in Literature. https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_Nobel_laureates_in_Literature (accessed 21/5/18).
- [27] Lunn, Patricia V., and Alkhas, Anita Jon. (2017). *Learning French from Spanish and Spanish from French: A Short Guide*. Washington, DC: Georgetown UP.
- [28] Many Languages One World. <https://www.manylanguagesoneworld.org/> (accessed 21/5/18).
- [29] Massachusetts Institute of Technology. Accelerated Introductory Portuguese for Spanish Speakers <https://ocw.mit.edu/courses/global-studies-and-languages/21g-880-accelerated-introductory-portuguese-for-spanish-speakers-fall-2013/> (accessed 21/5/18).
- [30] McCann, W.J., Klein, H.G., and Stegman, T.D. (2002). *The Seven Sieves: How to Read All the Romance Languages Right Away*. Brussels: EuromCom/Shaker.
- [31] Modern Language Association. (2015). Enrollments in Languages Other Than English in United States Institutions of Higher Education, Fall 2013 https://www.mla.org/content/download/31180/1452509/EMB_enrllmnts_nonEngl_2013.pdf (accessed 21/5/18).
- [32] Nadeau B. & Barlow, J. (2012). *Intercomprehension: A New Way of Learning*. <http://nadeaubarlow.com/intercomprehension-a-new-way-of-learning/> (accessed 21/5/18).
- [33] NationMaster. <http://www.nationmaster.com/> (accessed 21/5/18).
- [34] Organisation internationale de la Francophonie (2014). *La Langue française dans le monde*. <https://www.francophonie.org/274-millions-de-francophones-dans.html> (accessed 21/5/18).
- [35] Portuguese for Spanish Speakers. <https://www.language magazine.com/portuguese-for-spanish-speakers/> (accessed 21/5/18).
- [36] QS World University Rankings 2018 <https://www.topuniversities.com/university-rankings/world-university-rankings/2018> (accessed 21/5/18).
- [37] Ryan, Camille. (2013). *Language Use in the United States*. <https://www.census.gov/prod/2013pubs/acs-22.pdf> (accessed 21/5/18).

- [38] Smith, Lydia. (2017). Emmanuel Macron vows to make French the World's first language <http://www.independent.co.uk/news/world/europe/emmanuel-macron-french-language-france-president-world-first-africa-burkina-faso-a8084586.html> (accessed 21/5/18).
- [39] Statistics Times. (2018). List of Countries by Projected GDP. <http://statisticstimes.com/economy/countries-by-projected-gdp.php> (accessed 21/5/18).
- [40] United States Census Bureau. (2015). Census Bureau reports at least 350 languages spoken in U.S. Homes. <https://www.census.gov/newsroom/press-releases/2015/cb15-185.html> (accessed 21/5/18).
- [41] University of Arizona. Teaching Portuguese to Spanish-Speaking Learners <http://cercll.arizona.edu/teaching-portuguese-to-spanish-speaking-learners-2> (accessed 21/5/18).
- [42] University of Southern California. Teaching French to Spanish Speakers. <http://www.ccd.usc.edu/francophone-center/teaching-french-to-spanish-speakers/> (accessed 21/5/18).
- [43] University of Washington. Portuguese for Spanish Speakers. <https://spanport.washington.edu/portuguese-spanish-speakers-0> (accessed 21/5/18).
- [44] U.S. demand for Portuguese increasing. <https://www.languagemagazine.com/u-s-demand-for-portuguese-increasing/> (accessed 21/5/18).
- [45] Why France has a better global image than the UK and US. <https://www.thelocal.fr/20171123/france-now-has-a-better-image-than-the-uk-and-us> (accessed 21/5/18).
- [46] World Tourism Rankings. https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/World_Tourism_rankings (accessed 21/5/18).



Kathleen Stein-Smith, PhD, *Chevalier dans l'Ordre des Palmes académiques*, is associate university librarian and adjunct faculty in foreign languages and related areas at Fairleigh Dickinson University—Metropolitan Campus, Teaneck, New Jersey.

As a dedicated foreign language educator and advocate, she is Chair of the AATF (American Association of Teachers of French) Commission on Advocacy. She is a member of the ATA (American Translators Association) Education and Pedagogy Committee, the CSCTFL (Central States Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages) Advisory Council, the NECTFL (Northeast Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages) Advisory Council, and is a SCOLT (Southern Conference on Language Teaching) Sponsor. She also serves as French Language Facilitator at MLOW (Many Languages One World).

She has presented at numerous professional conferences, is the author of three books and numerous articles about the foreign language deficit, has given a TEDx talk, "The U.S. Foreign Language Deficit—What It Is; Why It Matters; and What We Can Do about It", and maintains a blog, "Language Matters."

Constructing Women's Language and Shifting Gender Identity through Intralingual Translanguaging

Eriko Sato

Stony Brook University (State University of New York), USA

Abstract—Japanese has many language varieties based on users' social attributes such as gender, age and occupation. Regardless of whether each variety represents how people actually speak, each of them has a specific set of linguistic features and a socio-psychological group identity of its users. This paper analyzes women's language (*onna kotoba*) and the use of gender-sensitive first-person pronouns (e.g., (*w*)*atashi*, *boku*, *ore*, *jibun*) in Japanese based on the perspective of translanguaging and a multifaceted model of the theory of identity. It shows that women's language in Japanese was constructed by deploying some of the linguistic features of multiple language varieties that have developed in different contexts while being shaped by male-dominant ideology during Japan's modernization process. It also shows how gender-sensitive linguistic boundaries are manipulated moment by moment by language users, affecting their master, interactional, personal, and/or relational identities.

Index Terms—translanguaging, identity, gender, language variety, Japanese, sociolinguistics, pronouns

I. INTRODUCTION

Japanese has many language varieties based on users' social attributes such as gender, age and occupation. Regardless of whether each variety represents how people actually speak, each of them has a specific set of linguistic features and a socio-psychological group identity of its users. The question is how these language varieties evolve, how their group identities are constructed, and when the boundaries between language varieties are manipulated and why. This paper analyzes women's language (*onna kotoba*) and gender-sensitive first-person pronouns (e.g., (*w*)*atashi*, *boku*, *ore*, *jibun*) in Japanese based on the perspective of translanguaging (García and Li, 2014; Li, 2011, 2016, 2018) and a four-way model of the theory of identity (Tracy, 2002; Young, 2017).

Although precise definitions vary depending on the scholar's focus, translanguaging is generally assumed as the use of linguistic features disregarding the boundaries between named languages.¹ However, there is no reason why the boundaries that translanguaging is sensitive to have to be those between named languages. The naming of languages is a relatively recent phenomenon (Li, 2018, p. 19), and thus the majority of languages are unnamed languages or language varieties. Furthermore, as Otheguy, García, & Reid (2015) argue, what we speak are all unique idiolects. Li (2018) redefines translanguaging, with more precision, as the use of "one's idiolect" disregarding "socially and politically defined language names and labels," through which we think "beyond the boundaries of named languages and language varieties including the geography-, social class-, age-, or gender-based varieties," while being fully aware of such boundaries (p. 19).² One of the most important theoretical contributions of translanguaging conceptualized in García & Li (2014) and Li (2011, 2016, 2018) is to reveal the socio-interactional nature of language and to explain how languages evolve through multimodal and multisensory translanguaging instinct.

Language varieties are closely related to their users' group identities. However, how to understand identity is an epistemological question and different researchers have different ways of understanding identities. In particular, how bilinguals conceive, negotiate and construct their identity and how their language use affects their identity are complex questions. Young (2017) presents an in-depth examination of prominent theories of identity in relation to language and argues that a simple theory where one's identity equals his/her native language (Fishman, 1991) fails to describe the complex and dynamic identity of multilinguals (Pavlenko & Blackledge, 2004; Myhill, 1999; Bucholz & Hall, 2004). He hence evaluates theories of identity adopting the multifaceted model of identity proposed by Tracy (2002) and shows how bilinguals' local identities are influenced by hegemonic languages but are also negotiated through creative and strategic language use, drawing concepts of "linguaging" (Chow, 2014) and "polylinguaging" (Jørgensen, Karrebæk, Madsen, & Møller, 2011). Young's (2017) approach towards the identity of bilinguals does not have to be limited to the speakers of multiple named languages given that named languages are nation-state inventions. It can also

¹ See García and Li (2014), Li (2011, 2016, 2018), García (2007, 2009), Otheguy, García and Reid (2015), García and Lin (2016, 2018), Lee (2015), Lin (2014), Baker (2001, 2003), Canagarajah (2011), Blackledge and Creese (2010), Creese and Blackledge (2010), Makoni and Pennycook (2007), Lewis, Jones, & Baker (2012), Sato (2017, 2018a, 2018b), Sato & Sharma (2017) among others for the proposals and applications of translanguaging.

² See Sato (2018a, 2018b) for the analysis of intralingual translanguaging between vocabulary classes, Sino-Japanese and native Japanese.

be applied to the speakers of a language variety. Therefore, I will apply Tracy's multifaceted model of identity to the analysis of the group identity of the users of women's language in Japanese.

Tracy (2002) argues that postmodernists see identity as fragmented, contradictory, competing, and in flux: identities are stable and pre-existing features, and are also dynamic and situated; identities are social categories and are also personal and unique (p. 17). Accordingly, Tracy (2002) proposes four kinds of identities: master, interactional, personal and relational. This is shown in Fig. 1 below:

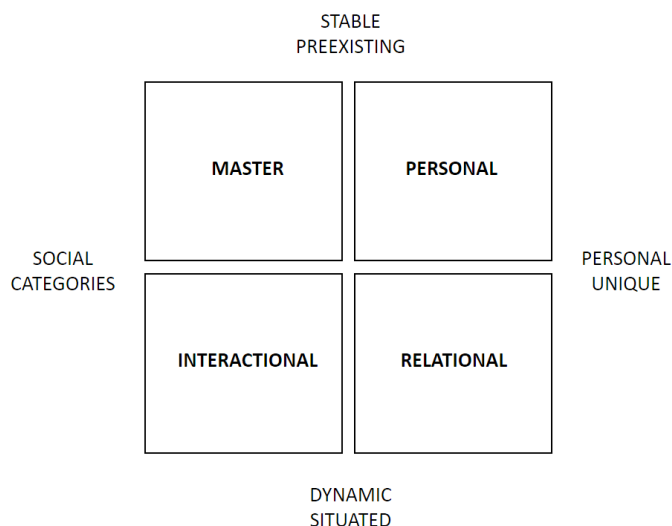


Figure 1. Conceptualizing identities (Source: Tracy, 2002, p. 20)

Master identities refer to a social category one belongs to based on his/her gender, age, race, ethnicity, national and regional origins, etc. Interactional identities refer to one's specific roles in society such as a teacher, a mother, a wife, a customer, etc. Personal identities refer to one's unique personalities such as being honest, hotheaded, gossip, etc. Finally, relational identities refer to the kind of relationship one holds with a particular conversational partner in a specific situation (Tracy, 2002, pp. 18-19).

Based on the four-way model of identity proposed by Tracy (2002), this paper explores the roles of translanguaging (Garcia & Li, 2014; Li, 2011, 2016, 2018) for shaping a language variety and its users' identity by analyzing the data from some of the preceding studies through a translanguaging perspective. Section II provides a socio-historical analysis of women's language in Japanese, where translanguaging plays an important role for deploying linguistic features from different language varieties to form a new language variety, closely reflecting the rapidly modernizing Japanese society during the Meiji period (1868-1912). Section III provides a socio-interactional analysis of gender-sensitive personal pronouns in Japanese, where gender-based boundaries are strategically manipulated through translanguaging by fictional characters, junior high school students, and employees of lesbian bars. Section IV provides conclusions and implications.

II. WOMEN'S LANGUAGE IN JAPANESE

Japanese is well-known for its distinct gendered language called *onna kotoba*, *josei-go*, or *fujin-go*, all of which literally mean "women's language" (Inoue, 2002, 2006; Endo, 1997, 2008, M. Nakamura, 2008, 2014; Okamoto & Smith, 2008; Okamoto & Shibamoto-Smith, 2016; Ide & Terada, 1998). For example, it is easy to see that *ara, neko da wa* is a woman's utterance whereas *are, neko da zo* is a man's utterance although both of them mean "Oh, it's a cat." This is because the interjection, *ara* "oh," and the sentence ending, *da wa* (the copula plus a sentence final particle) are characteristic features of women's speech. Okamoto and Smith (2008) provide a collection of scholarly characterizations of women's language. Frequently noted general stylistic features of women's language are polite, gentle/soft, refined/elegant, verbose, indirect, unassertive, imprecise, emotional, and empathetic (Okamoto & Smith, 2008, p. 92). They also list frequently noted specific linguistic features (Okamoto and Smith, 2008, p. 92):

- first/second-person pronouns (e.g., *atashi*, *anata*)
- sentence final particles (e.g., *wa*, *kashira*)
- honorifics (e.g., *o-Verb-ni naru*)
- beautification prefix *o-*
- high voice pitch, large pitch range, rising intonation at sentence end
- avoidance of particular phonological reductions (e.g., *umē* for *umai* "delicious")
- interjections (e.g., *ara* "oh", *mā* "oh")
- avoidance of "vulgar" expressions (e.g., *kū* "eat," *chikushō* "damn")
- avoidance of Sino-Japanese words

- indirect directive forms (e.g., Verb-*te*)
- incomplete sentences

The history of women's language is not very long. Endo (1997) argues that gender-based linguistic differences cannot be identified in earliest texts created in Japan. For example, *The Kojiki (Records of Ancient Matters)*, the oldest extant chronicle in Japan completed in 712, presents a scene where a male deity (*Izanagi*) and a female deity (*Izanami*) agree to have conjugal intercourse, and then *Izanami* first says to *Izanagi*, “*ana-ni-ya-shi e wotoko-wo* (how good a lad!),” which was followed by *Izanagi*'s saying to her, “*Ana-ni-yashi e wotome-wo* (how good a maiden!).”³ Their utterances differ only in terms of the words, *wotoko* (lad) and *wotome* (maiden) just to refer to each other, and there is no other difference at all, suggesting the absence of gendered language when *The Kojiki* was written (Endo, 1997, p.4).⁴ Endo (1997) also examines *The Man'yōshū (Collection of Ten Thousand Leaves)*, the oldest extant anthology of poetry in Japan, compiled in the latter half of the 8th century. *The Man'yōshū* contains 4,516 poems in 20 books, mostly written from the second quarter of the 7th century to the middle of the 8th century. Its content varies from the elegant banquet verse of aristocrats to the poems of the frontier guardsmen and the rustic poems of the Eastland (I. H. Levy, 1981, p. 3). 106 out of 530 authors who contributed to this collection were women and its editors also included women, but no work in it shows gender-based linguistic differences, suggesting the absence of gendered languages in the Nara period (710-794) (Endo, 1997, pp. 3-13). Literary texts in the Heian period (794-1185) such as *Makura no Sōshi (The Pillow Book)*, 1002) written by Sei Shōnagon (ca. 966-1025) and *Genji Monogatari (The Tales of Genji)*, ca. 1021) written by Murasaki Shikibu (ca. 973-1031) show no specific gender-based linguistic characteristics, although the content of these texts depict gender-based societal differences: Women were excluded from acquiring Chinese literacy, allowed to write only in *hiragana* (cursive syllabary),⁵ and discouraged to use *kango* (Sino-Japanese compound words) (Endo, 1997, p. 23).

What is the origin of the linguistic features that characterize women's language that we recognize today in Japanese? There are two major theories for this: *teyo-dawa* language (schoolgirls' language) and court ladies' language. Inoue (2002) argues that women's language has emerged from so-called *teyo-dawa* language (*teyo-dawa kotoba*) in the late 19th and early 20th centuries. *Teyo-dawa* language is also called schoolgirls' language (*jogakusei kotoba*) because it was predominantly used by secondary school female students, and is characterized by sentence endings such as *te yo*, *da wa*, *no yo*, and *koto* as in *yoroshikute yo* (it is fine), *suteki da wa* (it is wonderful), *oishii no yo* (it is delicious) and *kamaimasen koto yo* (it is not a problem). By “schoolgirls” Inoue (2002) refers to “the daughters of elite families, who could afford to go to secondary schools, the highest education for girls in the Meiji period (1868-1912), which were founded after the Meiji Restoration”; they represented a new social category of female, which was “neither producers (workers) nor reproducers (mothers)” (p. 406). They constituted only less than 0.09% of the female school-age population in Japan in 1890, and only 0.38% in 1900 (Inoue, 2006, p. 38). Inoue (2002) argues that the reason why a speech style of such a small population grew to be women's language is due to *genbun itchi* (speech and writing unification). *Genbun itchi* played an important role in forming the modern literary genre *shōsetsu* (novels), a narrative prose style, in the Meiji period. Because of *genbun itchi*, these novels frequently showed women's utterances as a part of reported speech and circulated them through mass print in a form of newspaper and magazines, targeting the middle class (Inoue, 2002, p. 396-397). As their speech style was cited and printed repeatedly in novels, books and newspapers, an image of a new type of woman and her speech style in the rapidly modernizing country was quickly created. According to Inoue (2002), *teyo-dawa* language was initially perceived as strange and unpleasant by male intellectuals and educators. Some claimed that this speech was originally “part of the vulgar speech used by daughters of low-rank samurai families” and others claimed that these endings were used by those in “pleasure quarters and teahouses” (Inoue, 2002, p. 406). Bohn & Matsumoto (2008) state that in addition to using such *teyo-dawa* endings, which was viewed as “coarse and unladylike,” schoolgirls were “using Sino-Japanese compounds, fewer honorific expressions, and borrowings from English and other foreign languages, i.e., expressions that were normally associated with male students rather than with idealized women” (p. 52). Bohn & Matsumoto show some interesting excerpts of women's reported speech from novels:

- (1) Kuikki mōshon na hito nē.
“She is quick, isn't she?”
(Miyake, 1957[1888], p. 42, cited in Bohn & Matsumoto, 2008, p. 60)
- (2) Oya ano kata wa H (etchi) janai no?
“Oh dear, isn't that person her fiancé?”
(Miyake, 1957[1888], p. 43, cited in Bohn & Matsumoto, 2008, p. 60)
- (3) Kitto anata o enbiru mono no shita koto nan da wa.
“Certainly, someone who was envious of you must have done it.”
(Kosugi, 1930[1903], p. 47, cited in Bohn & Matsumoto, 2008, p. 60)

³ The English translations are from Philippi (1969, p. 51).

⁴ It is also interesting that after each of the deities had finished speaking, *Izanagi* said to *Izanami* that it was not proper that the woman spoke first. Although Endo (1997) interprets it as a sign of male dominance in Japan (p. 4), Philippi (1969) considers that it was influenced by Chinese ideas and doubts that the ancient Japanese had any clear-cut idea of male supremacy (p. 52).

⁵ See Sato (2018a, p. 319) for the analysis of Ki no Tsurayuki's use of *hiragana* in writing *The Tosa Nikki (The Tosa Diary)*, 935) from translanguaging perspective.

The utterance in (1) was made by a female student describing another female student who quickly picked up a piece of cake and ran down the hallway while eating it. The utterance in (2) was made by a female student who was gossiping about the misbehavior of the daughter of a viscount. *H* is an abbreviation for *husband* used as jargon among female students at the time the novel was written. It actually referred to one's fiancé. *Enbiru* in (3) was created from *enbī* (transliteration of "envy"). The above three examples can be seen as the outcomes of translanguaging, but they also involve some word formation. The seemingly noun phrase, *kuikki mōshon* "quick motion," in (1), is not used as a noun phrase in this sentence, but as the stem of a nominal adjective, and thus it is followed by the suffix *na* to create a nominal adjective. *H* in (2) is the outcome of abbreviation, the initial letter of *husband*. *Enbiru* in (3) is the outcome of shortening the transliteration of the verb *envy* (*enbī* → *enbi*) and adding a Japanese verbal suffix *ru* as in *enbi-ru*.

On the other hand, Endo (1997, 2008) argues that what is today called *onna kotoba* or *josei-go* originated from court ladies' language (*nyōbō kotoba*), a speech style that emerged in the 14th century as a women's form of speech within the closed world of the imperial court. After the formation of warrior society in the 13th century, women's social standing declined and more honorific forms started to be used by women toward men (Endo, 1997, pp. 50-51). According to Endo (1997) court ladies' language is characterized by the following linguistic features (pp. 56-59):

- Use of the honorific/beautification prefix *o-* (e.g., *sakana* "fish" → *o-sakana*)
- Abbreviation (e.g., *takenoko* "bamboo shoot" → *take*)
- Addition of the suffix *-moji* to a part of a word (e.g., *sushi* "sushi" → *su-moji*)
- Addition of the abstract noun *mono* "thing" to a notion associate with the referent (e.g., *nabe* "pot" → *kuro-mono* "black thing" to mean "pot")
- Word-formation based on color, shape and associated meaning of the referent (e.g., *iwashī* "sardine" → *murasaki* "purple" to mean "sardine")
- Reduplication (e.g., *surume* "dried cuttlefish" → *surusuru*)
- Avoidance of Sino-Japanese words (*kango*) (e.g., *kaji* "fire (conflagration)" → *akagoto* "red incident" to mean "fire (conflagration)")

Court ladies' language sounded polite due to the frequent use of the honorific/beautification prefix *o-*, noble because of vagueness (e.g., use of the abstract noun *mono* (thing) for referring to varied items along with their partial meanings), elegant because of its unassertiveness (e.g., avoidance of Sino-Japanese compound words), and pleasing to the ear because of the avoidance of Sino-Japanese words that are filled with strong sounds such as voiced obstruents, palatalized or labial sounds (Endo, 1997, p. 59; Endo, 2008, p. 14). On the other hand, court ladies' language sounded childish due to reduplication, abbreviation and clipping. In the Edo period (1603-1867), court ladies' language further expanded its vocabulary for elite women, being joined by another newly emerged variation called "serving-women's language" (*jochū kotoba*) or the language of the women of the court and the Shogun's residence (Endo, 2008, p. 16). Then, it was adopted by "court nobles, the warrior society, and affluent townspeople, as a model of superior women's language" (Endo, 2008, p. 15). Court ladies' language was assigned to serve as the ideal model of women's speech in pre-modern times due to its gentleness, elegance and feminineness, and it "ultimately led to attempts to impose on all women a normative way of speaking in modern Japan" (Endo, 2008, p. 10).

So far, we have seen two possible origins of women's language in Japanese: schoolgirls' language and court ladies' language. Recall the features of women's language listed by Okamoto and Smith (2008), which we discussed earlier in this section. We notice that some features exist in schoolgirls' language, and some other features exist in court ladies' language: sentence final particles such as *wa* is a part of *teyo-dawa* language (schoolgirls' language); beautification prefix *o-*, avoidance of Sino-Japanese compounds, vagueness and indirectness are part of court ladies' language. This shows that women's language in Japanese was formed through translanguaging schoolgirls' language and court ladies' language.⁶ The contradictory area is the use of non-native Japanese vocabulary as pointed out by Bohn & Matsumoto (2008): Schoolgirls' language is characterized by the frequent use of Sino-Japanese and English (neo-)borrowings, whereas court ladies' language is not. However, the use of non-native Japanese vocabulary might have been situation-bound rather than being a contradictory feature between schoolgirl's language and court ladies' language: as Tracy (2002) assumes, the identity is multifaceted and includes relational identity, which changes depending on who one communicates and interacts. In addition, the use of non-native Japanese must have gradually increased among all Japanese speakers as more Western concepts were introduced to Japan during its modernization period. The analysis of women's language in Japanese as the outcome of translanguaging schoolgirls' language and court ladies' language is also supported by Inoue's (2002) observation that linguistic characteristics of schoolgirls' language were combined with elaborate honorifics to construct the voice of new middle- and upper-class women in novels:

By the early 20th century, final particles such as *teyo*, *dawa*, *noyo*, and others, which were once viewed as vulgar, had thus come to be increasingly attributed to new middle- and upper-class women in the novels. In combination with elaborate honorifics, these final particles were thus

⁶ Ide and Terada (1998) argue that courtesans' language (*yūjo kotoba*) that emerged in the 17th century contributed to the origin of women's language in addition to court ladies' language. It is possible that the reason why this speech style spread to middle and upper class in the Meiji period is because the strict social stratification enforced in the Edo period was officially deconstructed in the Meiji period, and marriage between different social classes became possible as we can see some geisha who got married to upper-class men in the Meiji period (C. Nakamura, 2018). This is a very promising research area, but is beyond the scope of the current study, where the focus is the application of translanguaging perspective to the analysis of the development of women's language.

instituted as the voice of those who were depicted as *haikara* (lit., “high-collar,” meaning modern, Western, and stylish).

(Inoue, 2002, p. 408)

The Meiji period was a dramatic turning point for Japan for many reasons. Japan was in the transition from pre-modern to modern, from closed to open, from stratified society to democratic society, from feudalism to capitalism, and more. Japan also needed to make education available to women to “establish a certain kind of equivalency between Japanese women and their female counterparts in the advanced nations of Europe” (I. Levy, 2006, p. 54). However, modernizing women was both beneficial and harmful for the male-dominant nation at the time. Women became vital promoters and consumers of modern culture, new fashion (e.g. *hakama*, long culottes customarily worn by men), new hairstyles, new literary genres, art and mass media, and schoolgirls became an icon of modern womanhood and modern society. These were beneficial to the nation because they could make the nation appear culturally advanced and positively stimulate the country’s economy. On the other hand, the nation’s priority at the time was *fukoku-kyōhei* (rich country and strong army), and thus the purpose of educating women in Japan was not to make them as intellectual, independent and assertive as men, but to strengthen them to effectively serve as *ryōsai-kenbo* (good wives and wise mothers) in the modernized era and to maintain their status as subordinate to men (Inoue, 2002, p. 397; Endo, 1997, p. 109; Okamoto and Shibamoto-Smith, 2016, p. 205). The fact that the Japanese society in the Meiji period had dual values as described above is consistent with the theory that women’s language in Japanese was formed through translanguaging two language varieties in this period, reflecting on the social reality during the modernization period in Japan. The fundamental concept that underlies translanguaging is “*linguaging*,” a dynamic and continuous action that transforms the norms of language use, closely reflecting on the context of language use (García & Li, 2014). When Japan was in the middle of modernization, traditional and modern values were coexisting, and a new language variety was formed through the deployment of linguistic features of both language varieties through translanguaging.

As the construction of a language variety is necessarily accompanied by the construction of its users’ group identity, it follows that the group identity of the users of women’s language in Japanese has inherited the group identities of the users of schoolgirls’ language and the users of court ladies’ language. As discussed earlier, identities are composed of master, interactional, personal, and relational identities (Tracy, 2002). Thus, each dimension of the group identity of the users of women’s language in Japanese was formed by bringing the group identities of the users of schoolgirls and the users of court ladies together. To illustrate this line of analysis, let us map the identities of the users of these language varieties that were discussed earlier in this section to the four sub-identities in Tracy’s (2002) model. First, master identity represents a stable and socio-categorical identity such as age and gender. Schoolgirls were young females, whereas court ladies were both young and old females. Thus, collectively, the master group identity of the speakers of women’s language is predicted to be female, young and old. Second, the interactional identity represents one’s roles in a society such as a teacher and a mother. Schoolgirls are “neither producers (workers) nor reproducers (mothers)” (Inoue, 2002, p. 406), but they are daughters and students. Court ladies are mothers, wives, and servants. Thus, collectively, the interactional group identity of the users of women’s language is predicted to be daughters, wives, mothers, students, and servants. Third, personal identity represents one’s unique personal characters. Schoolgirls are modern, open, playful, and assertive, as we can see from their creative translanguaging practices using linguistic features of English (modern, open, and playful) and from their frequent use of Sino-Japanese vocabulary (assertive). On the other hand, court ladies are traditional, polite, elegant, noble, soft, and unassertive, as we can see from their extensive use of honorifics (polite) and beautification prefix *o-* (elegant), vagueness due to abbreviation and abstraction (noble), avoidance of Sino-Japanese words (unassertive and soft), and the lack of linguistic elements from the West (traditional). Accordingly, the personal group identity of the speakers of women’s language is dual in nature, and it varies depending on the communicative contexts: they may be modern, open, playful and assertive when talking with their female classmates at school, but traditional, polite, elegant, noble, soft, and unassertive when talking with their fathers, for example. Finally, the relational identity constructed by court ladies is subordinate to men, including their fathers and husbands, and later, their elder sons, as discussed earlier. On the other hand, schoolgirls are not subordinate to men as long as they are in school although they need to be subordinate to their fathers when they are at home. These collective facts and predictions are summarized in Fig. 2, where SG represents the group identities contributed by schoolgirls and CL represents the group identities contributed by court ladies:

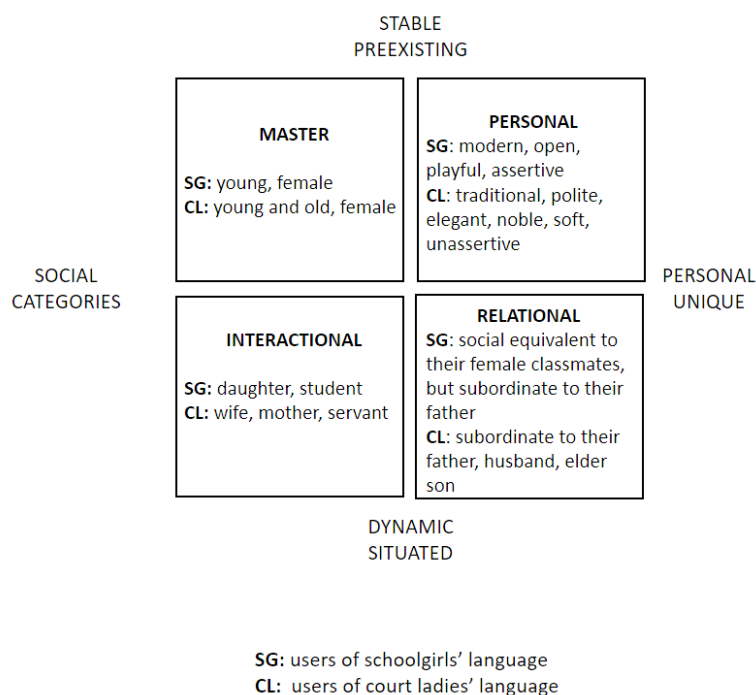


Figure 2. Identities of the users of women's language in the Meiji period

The collection of representative identities seems to adequately cover the overall group identity of upper- and middle-class women in the Meiji period, who may be playful and assertive when interacting with their female classmates at schools but may be mostly polite and unassertive when interacting with men. They are also consistent with the linguistic features of women's language in Japanese as well as schoolgirls' language and court ladies' language as we discussed earlier based on the information and data presented by Inoue (2002, 2006), Endo (1997, 2008), Okamoto & Smith (2008), Okamoto & Shibamoto-Smith (2016), and Bohn & Matsumoto (2008). Most importantly, the theory of women's language as deriving from schoolgirls' language and the theory of women's language as deriving from court ladies' language are not in contradiction in Figure 2, but they complement each other and jointly capture the collection of linguistic features that support multifaceted identity of the users of women's language and the complex socio-historical environment that fostered it during Japan's rapid modernization process.

III. USE OF GENDER-SENSITIVE PERSONAL PRONOUNS

The previous section presented how translanguaging facilitates the construction of a unique gender-based language variety by deploying multiple linguistic features from different language varieties, closely reflecting on the surrounding dynamic socio-historical contexts. This section presents how translanguaging facilitates the manipulation of a gender-based boundary by using gender-sensitive personal pronouns in Japanese, closely reflecting on the surrounding socio-interactive contexts.

The use of personal pronouns is gender sensitive in many languages. In Japanese the first-person pronouns for males include *boku*, *ore* and *washi*; those for females include *atashi* and *atai*. *Watashi* and *watakushi* are dominantly used by females, but are also used by males especially in formal contexts. *Jibun* is a gender-neutral reflexive pronoun that means "oneself," but is commonly used as a first-person masculine pronoun. However, Nishida (2011) discusses interesting fictional characters, *boku-girl* (*boku-shoujo*), a girl character who addresses herself with *boku*, a first-person masculine pronoun, and *ore-girl* (*orekko*), a girl character, who addresses herself with *ore*, a blunt version of *boku*, as a part of his study of "role languages" (*yakuwari-go*) pioneered by Kinsui (2003). Role languages are language varieties assigned to certain types of fictional characters in anime, comic books, games and light novels, and each of them has a distinct set of linguistic features such as sentence final particles, choice of personal pronouns, pronunciation, intonation and vocabulary.⁷ According to Nishida (2011), *boku-girls* do not use stereotypical female speech styles. Instead, their speech is quite gender-neutral except for the use of *boku*, and they do not give any violent impressions. On the other hand, *ore-girls* speak vulgarly, and are often self-centered and aggressive (Nishida, 2011). This shows that a unique speech style and its associated group identity can be constructed by manipulating the gender-based linguistic boundaries. Producers of anime, games, and even foreign films with Japanese dubbings are extremely sensitive to subtle differences in characters' behaviors, appearances (e.g., hairstyle, clothing, body size), personalities, and biographic background,

⁷ Kinsui (2014) lists over 50 role languages including realistic language varieties such as *onna kotoba* (women's language), *wakamono kotoba* (young people's language), and *yakuza-go* (gangsters' language), as well as language varieties for unrealistic characters such as *kami-sama kotoba* (gods' language), *yūrei kotoba* (ghosts' language) and *uchūjin-go* (space aliens' language).

and they instruct their voice talents to deploy specific linguistic elements to form a unique speech style for each character. If a specific style is repeatedly used for a certain type of characters, we expect it to become a well-recognized language variation. The fictional characters, *boku*-girls and *ore*-girls, were evidently constructed through intralingual translanguaging, by manipulating the boundary between gender-sensitive pronouns and shaping their idealized group identity with specific sets of linguistic features.

Whether girls who actually address themselves with *boku* or *ore* exist in reality is a next natural question. Miyazaki (2004) studies the use of first-person pronouns by students in a junior high school in Japan and reports that the first-person pronoun *ore* was used by a group of female students in the school. This group had “a distinctive subculture and language that both its members and other students considered *gehin* “vulgar” (Miyazaki, 2004, p. 262). They invented dances to express their disdain for the uniforms that they were required to wear. The students in this group obviously did not behave or speak like typical traditional female students. Their intralingual translanguaging in terms of the choice of gender-sensitive personal-pronoun was their tool to redefine their unique identity: The use of *ore* helped them shift their identities so they could free themselves from their society’s expectation on how girls should behave.

The use of first-person pronouns is even more complex for LGBT people. Abe (2004) conducts research at lesbian bars in Tokyo to examine the relationship between gender-identity and language use. She recognized three types of people at lesbian bars: Transsexuals, lesbians and *onabe* (literally, “pan”). Transsexuals in this context are female-to-male transsexual/transgender people. Lesbians are women who feel comfortable with their biologically female sex and choose a woman as a partner, but unlike straight women, their female identity is constructed through a relationship with another woman. *Onabes* are women who love women and choose a woman as a partner, but their social and emotional identity is male. Abe (2004) observed the use of first-person pronouns found in a magazine transcript of a panel discussion among two transsexuals, two lesbians and two *onabes*. She found that the transsexuals used *boku*, the lesbians used *watashi*, and the *onabes* used *jibun*, to address themselves, almost uniformly (p. 213). This shows that intralingual translanguaging facilitates the shift of their non-biological master identity.

However, Abe (2004, p. 214) finds that the choice of pronouns also varies depending on the situational context even with the same person. For example, a 20-year-old employee at a lesbian bar was constantly addressing herself using *jibun* (oneself) when speaking with her female supervisor, her coworkers and customers. She stated that she did not want to sound too feminine by using *watashi* or *atashi*, and did not want to sound too masculine by using *washi*, which is used by her boss. Thus, *jibun* was the least gender-explicit option for her. However, she suddenly started to use *ore*, a first-person masculine pronoun, when her female customer telephoned her. This customer of hers caused an enormous problem and pain to her on the previous night at the bar. In this case, the employee’s shift from *jibun* (oneself) to *ore* (first-person masculine pronoun) was triggered by her emotion: she was angry at her customer for her misbehavior on the previous night. It is possible that this shift occurred because she failed to maintain her gender-neutral stance due to her anger. As a result, her interactional identity as an employee who serves her customer at the lesbian bar was suddenly interrupted and her relational identity as a subordinate to her customer became void.

Abe (2004) reports another case of a change of the first-person pronoun. A lesbian speaker who usually addresses herself with *atashi* confessed that she uses *boku* when she makes a false show of power, for example, when she confronts her male boss, who may suspect that she is a lesbian, at work. According to her, this helps her “situate herself at the boss’s level” (Abe, 2004, p. 215). The shift from *atashi* to *boku* in this case was deliberately made based on her belief that maleness implies power and strength, and facilitated the temporary construction of her new relational identity, where power imbalance between her and her male boss was eliminated and her and her male boss’ levels were equalized. This also shows a fluid language use disregarding the boundary between two gendered language varieties in Japanese, a case of intralingual translanguaging, which can effectively and momentarily construct, shift or adjust one’s identities.

IV. CONCLUSION

This paper explored the role of translanguaging (García & Li, 2014; Li, 2011, 2016, 2018) for constructing a language variety and its associated group identity reflecting the communicative context and the surrounding socio-historical and socio-political ideologies as well as shaping them depending on the space, time, and purpose of communication. Gender-based language varieties in Japanese were analyzed, both diachronically and synchronically, to reveal how master, interactional, personal and relational identities (Tracy, 2002, Young, 2017) are formed and altered depending on the context of language use. The historical development of women’s language and the use of first-person pronouns in multiple context in the current society were analyzed.

Women’s language in Japanese was societally constructed rather than resulted from the language users’ physiological and psychological nature. It absorbed all in-betweenness in the male-dominant society at a major turning point in the Japanese history, where dual-values were prevailing. This paper has argued that the linguistic features from schoolgirls’ language (Inoue, 2002, 2006) and court ladies’ language (Endo, 1997, 2008) were deployed for collectively constructing women’s languages and its group identity. Importantly, this process was facilitated by both intra- and interlingual translanguaging, showing that the division between named and unnamed languages is irrelevant to translanguaging practice (Li, 2018).

In addition based on some preceding studies of the use of gender-sensitive first-person pronouns in fictional characters (Nishida, 2011), among junior high school students (Miyazaki, 2004), and at lesbian bars (Abe, 2004), this paper also demonstrated that intralingual translanguaging is sensitive to each communicative context and allows language users to reveal or manipulate their master identity, to conform to or resist social norms, to void or adjust existing interactional and relational identities, and even to create a new personal identity. Translanguaging perspective provides segment-by-segment image of Bakhtinian view of language as emerging from and evolving in the context of language use.

The application of a translanguaging perspective to the study of historical development of languages is extremely useful to see the connection between languages and their surrounding societies as well as the nature of languages and language use.

The current study is based on the data and facts presented by the limited number of preceding studies. Thus, further research is needed to explore the language users' creative and critical mindset that triggers translanguaging practices through a wider variety of primary and secondary data in order to explore language users' intentions and feelings.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This work was supported in part by a grant from FAHSS at Stony Brook University. The author appreciates two anonymous reviewers for giving helpful comments, criticisms and suggestions.

REFERENCES

- [1] Abe, H. (2004). Lesbian bar talk in Shinjuku, Tokyo. In S. Okamoto & J. Shibamoto Smith (Eds.), *Japanese language, gender, and ideology: Cultural models and real people*. New York: Oxford University Press, 205-221.
- [2] Baker, C. (2001). *Foundations of bilingual education and bilingualism* (3rd ed.). Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- [3] Baker, C. (2003). Biliteracy and transliteracy in Wales: Language planning and the Welsh national curriculum. In N. Hornberger (Ed.), *Continua of biliteracy*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters, 71-90.
- [4] Blackledge, A. & A. Creese. (2010). *Multilingualism: A critical perspective*. London: Continuum.
- [5] Bohn, M. & Y. Matsumoto (2008). Young women in the Meiji period as linguistic trendsetters. *Gender and Language* 2.1, 51-86. doi:10.1558/genl.v2i1.51.
- [6] Bucholtz, M. & K. Hall. (2004). Language and identity. In A. Duranti (ed.), *A companion to linguistic anthropology*. Malden, MA: Blackwell, 369-394.
- [7] Canagarajah, S. (2011). Codemeshing in academic writing: Identifying teachable strategies of translanguaging. *The Modern Language Journal* 95, 401-417. doi:10.1111/j.1540-4781.2011.01207.x.
- [8] Chow, R. (2014). *Not like a native speaker: On languaging as a postcolonial experience*. New York: Columbia University Press.
- [9] Creese, A. & A. Blackledge. (2010). Translanguaging in the bilingual classroom: A pedagogy for learning and teaching? *Modern Language Journal* 94.1, 103-115. doi:10.1111/j.1540-4781.2009.00986.x.
- [10] Endo, O. (1997). Onna no kotoba no bunka-shi [Cultural history of the women's language]. Tokyo: Gakuyō shobō.
- [11] Endo, O. (2008). The role of court lady's language in the historical norm construction of Japanese women's language. *Gender and Language* 2.1, 9-24. doi:10.1558/genl.v2i1.9.
- [12] Fishman, J. A. (1991). *Reversing language shift: Theoretical and empirical foundations of assistance to threatened languages*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
- [13] Garc á, O. (2007). Foreword. In S. Makoni, & A. Pennycook (Eds.), *Disinventing and reconstituting languages*. Clevedon: Multilingual matters, xi-xv.
- [14] Garc á, O. (2009). *Bilingual education in the 21st century: A global perspective*. Malden, MA: Wiley-Blackwell.
- [15] Garc á, O. & W. Li (2014). *Translanguaging: language, bilingualism and education*. Houndmills: Palgrave Macmillan.
- [16] Garc á, O. & A. M. Y. Lin. (2016). Translanguaging in bilingual education. In O. Garc á, & A. M. Y. Lin (Eds.), *Bilingual and Multilingual Education*. Dordrecht: Springer.
- [17] Garc á, O. & A. M. Y. Lin. (2018). English and multilingualism: A contested history. In P. Seargeant, A. Hewings, S. Pihlaja (Eds.), *The Routledge Handbook of English Language Studies*. London: Routledge.
- [18] Ide, R. & T. Terada. (1998). The historical origins of Japanese women's speech: From the secluded worlds of "court ladies" and "play ladies." *International Journal of Sociology of Language* 129, 139-156.
- [19] Inoue, M. (2002). Gender, language, and modernity: Toward an effective history of Japanese women's language. *American Ethnologist* 29.2, 39-422.
- [20] Inoue, M. (2006). *Vicarious language: Gender and linguistic modernity in Japan*. Berkeley, Calif: University of California Press.
- [21] Jørgensen, J. N., M. S. Karrebæk, L. M. Madsen, & J. S. Møller. (2011). Polylinguaging in superdiversity. *Diversities* 13.2, 23-37.
- [22] Kinsui, S. (2003). *Vuācharu nihongo yakuwarigo no nazo* [The mystery of virtual Japanese role language]. Tokyo: Iwanami.
- [23] Kinsui, S. (2014). "Yakuwarigo" shōjiten [Small dictionary for "role languages"]. Tokyo: Kenkyūsha.
- [24] Kosugi, T. (1930 [1903]) *Makaze koikaze* [Magic Wind, Love Wind]. In Meiji Taisho Bungaku Zenshuu: Kosugi Tengai [The Complete Works of Literature from the Meiji and Taisho Periods: Kosugi Tengai] vol. 16. Tokyo: Shunyōdō, 1-300. (Cited in Bohn & Matsumoto, 2008).
- [25] Lee, T. K. (2015). Translanguaging and visibility: Translingual practices in literary art. *Applied Linguistics Review* 6.4, 441-465. doi:10.1515/applirev-2015-0022.
- [26] Levy, I. (2006). *Sirens of the western shore: The westernesque femme fatale, translation, and vernacular style in modern Japanese literature*. New York: Columbia University Press.

- [27] Levy, I. H. (1981). *The ten thousand leaves: A translation of the Man'yōshū, Japan's premier anthology of classical poetry*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.
- [28] Lewis, G., B. Jones & C. Baker. (2012). Translanguaging: Origins and development from school to street and beyond. *Educational Research and Evaluation: An International Journal on Theory and Practice* 18.7, 641–654. doi:10.1080/13803611.2012.718488.
- [29] Li, W. (2011). Moment analysis and translanguaging space: Discursive construction of identities by multilingual Chinese youth in Britain. *Journal of Pragmatics* 43, 1222–1235. doi:10.1016/j.pragma.2010.07.035.
- [30] Li, W. (2016). Epilogue: Multi-competence and the Translanguaging Instinct. In V. Cook & L. Wei (Eds.), *The Cambridge handbook of linguistic multi-competence*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 533–543. doi:10.1017/CBO9781107425965.026.
- [31] Li, W. (2018). Translanguaging as a practical theory of language. *Applied Linguistics* 39.1, 9–30.
- [32] Lin, A. (2014). Hip-hop heteroglossia as practice, pleasure, and public pedagogy: Translanguaging in the lyrical poetics of “24 Herbs” in Hong Kong. In A. Blackledge, & A. Creese (Eds.), *Heteroglossia as practice and pedagogy*. Heidelberg: Springer, 119–136. doi:10.1007/978-94-007-7856-6_7.
- [33] Makoni, S. & A. Pennycook. (2007). *Disinventing and reconstituting languages*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
- [34] Miyake, K. (1957 [1888]). *Yabu no uguisu [Warbler in the grove]*. In Meiji shōsetsu shū: Gendai nihon bungaku zenshū [The collection of Meiji novels: The complete works of modern Japanese literature] vol. 83. Tokyo: Chikuma Shobō, 35–53. (Cited in Bohn & Matsumoto, 2008).
- [35] Miyazaki, A. (2004). Japanese junior high school girls' and boys' first-person pronoun use and their social world. In S. Okamoto & J. Shibamoto Smith (Eds.), *Japanese language, gender, and ideology: cultural models and real people*. New York: Oxford University Press, 256–274.
- [36] Myhill, J. (1999). Identity, territoriality and minority language survival. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development* 20.1, 34–50.
- [37] Nakamura, C. (2018). How is the Japanese Women's Language used today? manuscript, Stony Brook University.
- [38] Nakamura, M. (2008). Masculinity and national language: The silent construction of a dominant language ideology. *Gender and Language* 2.1, 25–50. doi:10.1558/genl.v2i1.25.
- [39] Nakamura, M. (2014). *Gender, language and ideology: A genealogy of Japanese women's language*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- [40] Nishida, T. (2011). “Boku-shoujo” no gengo hyougen: jouyousei no aru zokusei hyougen to yakuwarigo no setten [Linguistics expression of “boku shoujo”: The relation between “attributive expression” and role language]. *Kounan Women's College Journal* 48, 13–22.
- [41] Okamoto, S. & J. S. Shibamoto-Smith. (2016). *The social life of the Japanese language: Cultural discourses and situated practice*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- [42] Okamoto, S. & J. S. Smith. (2008). Constructing linguistic femininity in contemporary Japan: Scholarly and popular representations. *Gender and Language* 2.1, 87–112. doi:10.1558/genl.v2i1.87.
- [43] Otheguy, R., O. García & W. Reid. (2015). Clarifying translanguaging and deconstructing named languages: A perspective from linguistics. *Applied Linguistics Review* 6, 281–308.
- [44] Pavlenko, A. & A. Blackledge (eds.). (2004). *Negotiation of identities in multilingual contexts*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
- [45] Philippi, D. L. (1969). *Kojiki*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.
- [46] Sato, E. (2017). Translanguaging in translation: Evidence from Japanese mimetics. *International Journal of Linguistics and Communication* 5.2, 11–26. doi:10.15640/ijlc.v5n1a2.
- [47] Sato, E. (2018a). Sociocultural implications of the Japanese multi-scripts: Translanguaging in translation. In H. Pae (ed.), *Writing systems, reading processes and cross-linguistic influence: Reflections from the Chinese, Japanese and Korean languages*. Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins, 313–332. doi:10.1075/bpa.7.15sat.
- [48] Sato, E. (2018b). Translanguaging in translation: Manipulation of an intralingual boundary between vocabulary classes, Paper presented at TLANG (Translation and Translanguaging) Conference, Birmingham, U.K.
- [49] Sato, E. & A. Sharma. (2017). Translanguaging in translation: A case study of an English translation of a Hindi novel “Godaan.” *International Journal of Language and Literature* 5.2, 132–145. doi:10.15640/ijll.v5n2a14.
- [50] Tracy, K. (2002). *Everyday talk: Building and reflecting identities*. New York: Guilford.
- [51] Young, R. F. (2017). World languages, world Englishes and local identities. *World Englishes* 36.4, 488–508. doi:10.1111/weng.12249.

Eriko Sato is Assistant Professor of Translation Studies and Japanese Linguistics at Stony Brook University, where she serves as the Director of Asian languages. She authored *Contemporary Japanese* (Tuttle), *Japanese Demystified* (Wiley), *Complete Japanese Grammar* (McGraw-Hill) and many more Japanese textbooks and grammar books.

Analysis of *New Concept English* from the Perspective of Cross-cultural Communication—A Case Study in Book 2

Julong Wang

Department of English and German, Faculty of Philology, Translation and Communication, University of Valencia, Spain

Abstract—*New Concept English* (NCE) is a series of English language textbooks, four volumes in total, which have gained national popularity and wide acceptance by English teachers, learners and parents in China. In the academic circle, apart from the analysis of the contents of NCE, which has been mostly discussed, many contrast studies between NCE and other English course-books are not new topics either. This paper focuses on the analysis of NCE from the perspective of cross-cultural communication and develops a detailed study on the second volume based on eight parameters: norm, value, art, custom, religion, language, ways of life, material culture. Hopefully, the current study will shed new light on NCE researches in China and arouse the attention of the academic world, because language teaching and learning is the combination of language skills and culture.

Index Terms—*New Concept English*, textbook, cross-cultural communication

I. INTRODUCTION

At the age of information explosion, when it comes to the field of English language teaching (ELT), textbooks or teaching materials we use in class have been regarded as an important element and future of a nation. Teachers rely on textbooks in selecting the contents of their lessons and the methodologies to teach the contents.

Cao (2009) has termed “the books say about themselves”. Further, she remarks that what sets us against one another is not our aim—they all come to the same thing—but our methods. This can easily explain that EFL textbooks written in different countries have displayed their different methods or cultures. Hu (1997) states that our lives are closely connected with cultural influence. Culture is regarded as the keystone in each civilization and the medium of cross cultural communication.

In the history of ELT in China, we could find some English textbooks which were very influential and are very popular even nowadays. *New Concept English*, edited by British author of EFL course books, Louis George Alexander, first published in 1967, is especially worthwhile to talk about here, which has been exerting a prevailing influence on Chinese English language learners.

As one of the most authentic English learning materials, *New Concept English* has been republished quite a number of times due to its national popularity and wide acceptance by English teachers, learners and parents in China. However, most of the English training centers or autonomous learners solo focus on the vocabulary, grammar and sentence structure. Only if we truly understand the knowledge of cultural background in each lesson can we fully master the core of English language. Meanwhile, the learners can communicate with foreigners inter-culturally.

The purpose of this study is to analyze the text book *New Concept English* not only from the contents, most importantly, from the aspect of cross-cultural communication. Meanwhile, the author is going to show more details of cross-cultural aspects in Book 2 to help teachers, researchers and learners to achieve good understanding of such a widely used course book. The author believes that both the academic values and cultural values of the book are of great importance for all the users because it makes people fully master the target language which in turn facilitate the cross-cultural communication skills.

II. RESEARCHES ON COURSE-BOOKS AND CULTURE

Course-books play a vital role in any teaching and learning process and course-books are considered as the most basic resources in achieving teaching objectives to fulfill learners’ need. Furthermore, course-books always reflect authors’ beliefs concerning the nature of language and learning. At the same time, language has a close connection with culture in the sense that language teaching and learning inevitably involves the culture teaching and learning. In the following chapter, the author is going to briefly study how to evaluate one course-book and the interactions between languages and culture.

A. Studies on Foreign Language Course-books

Hu regards course-book evaluation as “a matching process: matching needs to available solutions” (Hu 1997). The criteria for good textbooks can be illustrated below:

Course-books Should Correspond to Learners’ Needs.

Selected course-books must help the learners attain the objectives reflecting learners’ needs in terms of both language content and communicative abilities. More importantly, good course-books always facilitate the learning progress and help learners fulfill their language objects. Ultimately the content of the course-books corresponds to learners’ needs in many aspects, such as key and important language points, language skills and communicative strategies.

The author has found out that some basic needs might be experienced by the language beginners when it comes to textbooks:

- the need to communicate effectively;
- the need to be familiar with the language systems;
- the need for challenges;
- the need for cross-cultural awareness.

The author gives special mention that good course-books should also have cultural knowledge of the target language, which is the meaning of this study.

Course-books Should Have a Clear Role as a Support for Learning.

Course-books, just like language teachers, may be used to mediate between the target language and the learner. Meanwhile, course-books could also facilitate learning in which they bring the learner and the target language together in a controlled way. In this sense, course-book writers could be regarded as participants in the learning-teaching process. Course-books are supposed to support the learners in the way that offering linguistic knowledge that fits students’ language proficiency. Meanwhile, the scientifically-designed exercises and activities from the course-books would promote the learners’ fluency in language use. Explanations or contextualized examples from course-books will help learners to better understand how the target language works.

Course-books also embody certain learning styles and strategies, which can influence how individual students go about their own learning. Learning strategies contained in the course-books might not be that explicit. Anyhow, any good course-book may include certain learning styles and learning strategies explicitly or implicitly. And it is the language teachers or course-book evaluators who must identify what they are, how they are put forward, and how they could facilitate students’ language learning.

B. Studies on Culture and Foreign Language Teaching

World outlook and values have always been dealt with when we talk about cross-cultural communication.

World outlook refers to people’s fundamental views on the world, including the position of people in the universe, the relationship between human and nature and so on. From the perspective of the relationship between human and nature, oriental and western cultures have completely different views. Western culture considers human beings should dominate nature. Nature is the conquest object of human. Human beings can utilize science and technology to transform nature and conquer nature. Correspondingly, oriental culture thinks human and nature have harmonious relationship. Human and nature are closely related. Human beings should not transform nature, but adapt to nature and utilize conditions of nature to serve for human being.

Value refers to the standards to judge the right and the wrong. It will guide human behaviors. So, value consists of the backbone of culture and social structure. For a person attached to a culture, their behaviors are dominated by the value. Value is an abstract concept. It is difficult for people to grasp it. But the value of a culture can be seen from linguistic or non-linguistic behavior patterns.

When it comes to foreign language teaching, we usually discuss cross-cultural communication at the same time because foreign language teaching is not only about language knowledge, but also cultivate students’ communicative competence and cross-cultural communication skills as well. In this sense, it is more appropriate to regard foreign language teaching as a part of cross-cultural education. As early as the middle of 1980s, college English education in China formulated teaching program uniformly. CET-4 and CET-6 were carried out in late 1980s. All these propose higher requirements for English application ability of college students. However, universal exam-oriented education gives rise to quite large negative effects. Besides, traditional foreign language education concept also deeply constrains us. From the primary school, Chinese students have been learning English for more than 10 years. Most of their time and energy are spent in looking up words in the dictionary, remembering words and analyzing sentence pattern. They can easily deal with examinations, reading and writing, but often have many problems in cross-cultural communication.

To sum up, good textbooks should meet the learners’ needs and have a clear role as a support for learning. Cross-cultural awareness is one of the fundamental needs for the foreign language learner too. In this sense, we should find out the world outlook and values from textbooks and make the learners understand the different cultures in the process of language learning.

III. ANALYSIS OF *NEW CONCEPT ENGLISH*

As a distinctive learning material, *New Concept English* has been popular with Chinese learners for more than forty years. Moreover, it has been used as a supplementary teaching material by a lot of teachers from the English academies

and institutes. In the following sections, the author is going to analyze NCE from the aspect of academic function and its cross-cultural value.

A. *Academic Values of New Concept English*

1. Contents and Topics

Book One *First Things First* is an integrated course for beginners. It is divided into 3 parts: lesson 1-72; page 1-72 are the basic sentence patterns in British people's daily life. After that there is a test. There are situational conversations from Lesson 73 to Lesson 144. Series of cartoon pictures display the daily life of the British people. This book involves the common topics such as transportation; clothing; schooling; buying, etc.

Book Two *Practice and Progress* is an integrated course for pre-intermediate students including ninety six lessons. There are four units (twenty-four lessons in each) in the book. Four pre-unit texts are designed as searching tests, in which students are able to find out their own level to start learning at any point of the book. The passages in each lesson become longer and more complex from the first unit to the last. New words and expressions are listed below the passages, followed by notes on the text and Chinese translations. Students are required to do exercises on the book to drill the key sentence structures and the difficult points. In the end of each lesson, 12 multiple choice questions are given to test learners' text comprehension competence, key sentence structure knowledge and important vocabulary.

Book Three *Developing Skills* is an integrated course for intermediate students. It is said that the materials in *Practice and Progress*, the pre-intermediate course which precedes this one, have been designed to 'overlap' this course (Sun 2008). This book includes sixty lessons.

The forty-eight articles in Book Four *Fluency in English*, are extracted from many prestigious publications. For instance, the eighth lesson *Trading Standards* is selected from *The Economist*; the tenth lesson *Silicon Valley* is from *US News and World Report*. The far more complicated vocabulary and sentence structures in this book often make students stunned and lose their courage to challenge themselves, because the language skills in the first three volumes of NCE would satisfy most learners' needs.

2. Skills and Methodology

The passages are texts with multi-purposes. Each passage will be used to train the students' multiple skills: aural comprehension; oral practice (progressive and static patterns); oral composition; dictation and composition practice (simple, compound and complex sentences), so on and so forth.

It is obvious that the NCE textbooks employ the contemporary theories of linguistics and English methodologies: the grammatical syllabuses, the situational approach and the audio-lingual method. It goes through these methods using the tapes and the new structural patterns are presented in dialogues with visual "cartoon strips", which create a vivid situation for English teaching and learning.

It needs to point out that the audio-lingual method is the fundamental methodology to fulfill the target language learning. As claimed by Alexander in the introduction of NCE, it is based on these principles. 1. Sentences are seen as units for learning and using; 2. Words are classified in two categories: structural and lexical; 3. Structural words decide the meaning and hold sentences together; 4. Mistakes should be prevented from the very beginning, and correct habit of language use should be formed; 5. Structures should be taught to the students with increasing difficulty. These principles are typical of structuralism approach, so we label NCE with "structural-situational".

Indeed, it is a great progress from the traditional grammar-translation approach, which views language as a set of prescriptive rules to be memorized. By giving students chances to encounter spoken language, NCE enables students to develop aural/oral skills in using the language. It is an "innovation" in reaction against the traditional grammar-translation approach. As noted by most linguists that the structuralism initiated a new era in language acquisition and education, both theoretically and practically. This new era of language pedagogy signified with scientific theories as pedagogical guidelines. From then on, researches of linguistic theories and its implication for teaching flourished. In this sense, NCE, together with other audio-lingual structuralism textbooks is a great contribution to mankind in the development of intercultural exchanges. So far as China is concerned, millions upon millions of people of various age groups and of opposite sexes, who take a fancy to learning English resort to NCE. To some extent, NCE play a part in the improvement of English level in different parts of China.

B. *Intercultural Values of New Concept English*

Apart from the academic values discussed in the previous section, the author is going to reveal the intercultural values of NCE from three perspectives.

1. Perception

Perception is defined by David (2001) as "the internal process by which we select, organize and interpret information" from the outside world. Our perceptions are culturally determined and in turn influence the way we communicate with others.

From NCE we can understand how the westerners perceive the life and world. For instance, Book 1 is mainly about some real life descriptions and conversations. But just from such simple background can we know what is the kitchen like (Lesson 15), what is the living room like (Lesson 27), how they go shopping (Lesson 79). For most British families, the most important domestic appliances are fridge and oven. Normally they go to the market on weekends with family members and get what they need for the next whole week. That's why a shopping list is quite useful for them because

shopping list is the best reminder. They will place all the food and drink into the fridge. Oven is used to make cake or roast meat. Meanwhile, the illustrations in each lesson from Book 1 provide the learners huge cultural information from which we can easily figure out people's perception toward the life and the world.

2. Values

Values are defined by Jandt (2001) as "an enduring set of beliefs that serve to guide or direct our behavior". Values always represent the norms of a culture and specify the standard of being good and bad, right and wrong, rude and polite, appropriate and inappropriate, so on and so forth.

From Book 2, western values start to emerge. Top one value of the British identity is the rule of law. The narrator in Lesson 21 refused the large sum of money from the local authority to move his house close to the airport. The law protects his personal property. The narrator in Lesson One was angry at the theater because a young man and a young woman who sit behind him were talking so loudly that the narrator could not hear one single word from the actors. The Swedish traffic police's polite note on the car made the narrator in Lesson 16 shameful to break the local traffic rules. All the examples above have shown that the society is always based on the same rules. No matter who you are, you have to obey these rules and every citizen shares the common value.

3. Beliefs

According to Samovar (1997), beliefs are said to be the judgments we make about what is true or false. Moreover, beliefs are usually linked to certain tangible objects with certain features that we believe to be true with. In this sense, beliefs are rooted in the heart and can be influenced by people surround you and by the society you are living in.

For instance, most people in the west believe never too old to learn. They don't stop learning even after retirement. In Book 2, the retired teacher from Lesson 85 started to learn gardening, which could set a good example for our young learners. *The New Year Resolutions* from Book 3 told us that even if we often do not fulfill our New Year Resolutions, it is also believed to be an important occasion. *One Man in a Boat* told us to ignore people's general comments and to follow what you would like to do. If you enjoy the process of fishing, it is not important how many fish you have caught.

C. Summary

To conclude, following the criteria of textbook evaluation, on the academic perspective, NCE is compiled under a complete and scientific system, in which learners are able to fully develop their primary skills of reading comprehension, listening, writing and spoken English. Besides, NCE is a valuable teaching material for studying western culture. The learners can also foster cross-cultural communicative skills in the process of the target language study.

In the following chapter, the author is going to study NCE Book 2 in detail from the perspective of cross-cultural communication.

IV. A CASE STUDY OF *NEW CONCEPT ENGLISH* BOOK TWO

Book Two of NCE, *Practice & Progress*, aims to provide a comprehensive course for post-elementary adults or students in secondary education who have already acquired certain English vocabulary and basic grammar. In this respect, suitable materials have been designed to make learners continue practicing oral English, passage writing, more complicated sentence structure and more advanced grammar. However, in this chapter, the author is going to highlight the cultural background of this book to arouse the attention of the users of NCE Book Two.

A. Research Parameters

Culture could be defined as the symbols, language, beliefs, values, and artifacts that are part of any society¹. According to this definition, two basic components of culture could be inferred: nonmaterial culture and material culture. The former type includes the values, beliefs, symbols, norms, religion, language, art, customs and tradition, ways of life that could define a society; the latter one could refer to all the physical objects in a particular society, such as technology, clothing that people are wearing, and tools of communication, so on and so forth.

The ninety six texts from NCE Book Two were analyzed based on the following parameters: norm, value, art, custom, religion, language, ways of life, material culture. Even if material culture is so general a category, from the author's perspective, there is still a need to treat material culture as an independent parameter because the civilized objects talked in Book 2 are various. It makes little sense to separate each object.

B. Results and Discussion

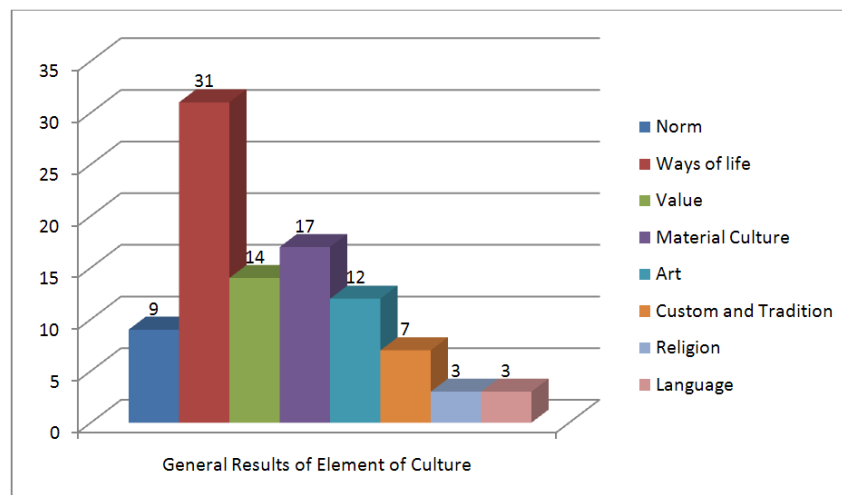
Based on the parameters I chose above, an overview of the results shows that all the ninety-eight passages in NCE Book Two share the common features listed below:

- Western ways of life are often introduced.
- Industrial revolution has greatly influenced British society.
- Norms of the society characterized individualism.

¹ Reference from a webpage. *The Elements of Culture*. <<http://open.lib.umn.edu/sociology/chapter/3-2-the-elements-of-culture/>>. Sociology: understanding and changing the social world. Libraries Publishing.

- Be adventurous is one of the most mentioned values.
- Play and film watching are important forms of art.
- Black humor is deeply rooted in British culture.

In the following passages, I will discuss these features in greater depth. It has to be mentioned that, some passages could be categorized into more than one parameter I have just mentioned.



As is the figure shown above, ways of life (31 lessons) is mostly talked about in this textbook, which accounts for 32%, followed by material culture (17%), values (15%) and art (13%). Norms, customs and traditions are mentioned with a small quantity, while the number of texts of religions and languages are equal and scarcely displayed.

Norm

According to Cliffs Notes², norms are the agreed upon expectations and rules by which a culture guides the behavior of its members in any given situation. Of course, norms vary widely across cultural groups. British people, for instance, maintain fairly direct eye contact when conversing with others. Asians, like Chinese, on the other hand, may avert their eyes as a sign of politeness and respect.

In Lesson 40 Food and Talk, the narrator went to dinner party. He was asked by the hostess to sit next to a large, unsmiling lady. Supposedly, the lady was one guest of the hostess. In western culture, especially at a dinner or wedding party, all the guests must follow the hostess's arrangement. One of the reasons is that the number of the guests is always fixed. You couldn't attend the party without an invitation. Therefore, according to the norms of a party, the hostess often arranges the seats for each guest before he arrives. Also, a name card can often be found on the table.

However, we Chinese may find it strange or offensive. It seems that "The more, the merrier" is considered as the norm of Chinese society. People invited or even not invited will be welcome. The hostess always prepares more food and drink just in case more guests show up at the party, because some people may not be present that day while someone may bring his/her family members. Furthermore, the invited guests may feel free to choose their seats.

Ways of life

There are quite a number of ways in which Europeans are just better at life. Across the pond, larger cities flaunt extensive metros and buses circumnavigate nearly every town. Westerners love travelling in the bus or train to escape the noise in the big cities to enjoy the countryside. In many European nations, citizens get around 30 paid days off per year, not to mention the two-day weekends. Nobody criticizes them for being lazy.

In Book Two, we can find the following typical British ways of life: getting up late in weekends, gardening, drinking in the pub, boat fishing, camping, excursion, party, pets and car race.

For example, in Lesson 8 *The Best and the Worst*, "The Nicest Garden Competition" was held each year. The first prize and the last competitor will be rewarded. It needs to be mentioned that British people who live out of the city or countryside, usually have gardens in their house. Different from most Chinese house gardens which are fenced in the walls, most gardens in UK are visible. Apart from garden competition, we can also find the description of garden in Lesson 23, 28, 59.

Car race has been talked about in Lesson 56 and Lesson 72. People were even amused by an old car race, where the drivers spent more time fixing the car in the race than driving in the car. It's a way to enjoy the life and the result has always been ignored.

On the other hand, Chinese have been considered as one of the most hardworking people in the world, and a large number of people seldom spend holidays and they work even on weekends. When we make friends with the westerners, it's important to know that no one of them wants to be disturbed on weekends or in their holiday.

² From a webpage. *Cultural Norms*. <<https://www.cliffsnotes.com/study-guides/sociology/culture-and-societies/cultural-norms>>. Cliff Notes. Houghton Mifflin Harcourt.

Value

As we have discussed in the previous chapter, the study of values here is to about how Europeans think about family, work, religion, politics and society, so on and so forth. Collectivism can often be found in Chinese communities because they prefer to live group. It has been hundreds of years when the married couples live with their parents, or even grandparents. However, the westerners are just the opposite.

Lesson 1 A Private Conversation can fully demonstrate how the British value the privacy. Even though the text ends with a humor, it can also be viewed as a good example. We were taught that topics like salary, marriage are so private that it is offensive to ask the westerners when we first meet. Apart from that, the place people live is also private. The flat mate, even the parents cannot enter the door of your room without permission, which is essential to mention when we share one flat abroad.

Another point we found is that the westerners value adventurousness, which is shown in Lesson 12, 29, 33, 36, 43, and Lesson 67: boat sailing race across the Atlantic, driving an airplane as a taxi, swimming across the English Channel, flying over the South Pole, observing active volcanoes, where the Chinese learners may find it exotic and crazy. Only if we understand what the westerners' value can we communicate with them and respect their adventurous hobbies.

Material Culture

The author examines the intellectual foundations of consumerism in food, dress, shelter, utilities, and information from Book 2. Adshead (1997) states that "material culture highlights consumerism as an expression of both rationality and freedom and indicates the constructive role it has played in the formation of the modern world".

Material culture refers to tools, artifacts and technology. We can find the European tableware in Lesson 11; the traditional lady's tall hat in Lesson 41; the local food --- butter, meat pies in Lesson 54 and world famous British fish and chips in Lesson 90; the London's landmark --- Big Ben in Lesson 71 etc. The learners need to know how do the British use knife and forks, how to drink wine and coffee, the table manner, the varieties of coffee (black coffee, coffee with milk, coffee with ice etc.), the traditional and royal clothes, their eating habits, together with the popular landmarks in each country.

In particular, learners need to know how to invite friends for dinner or a drink because it is at that moment where intercultural communication happens. Normally, Europeans go Dutch when get together with friends. They order their own dishes and pay separate bills while the Chinese tend to share what they order at a restaurant and usually the man is the bill payer when he dates with ladies.

Art

As explained by UNESCO, the performing arts range from music, dance and theatre, etc. Arts can be quite a number of cultural expressions that reflect human creativity and, to some extent, arts can also be found "in many other intangible cultural heritage domains"³.

As one important performing art, Jazz is mentioned in Lesson 10 and Lesson 42. Many jazz bars and pubs can be found in the west. At the same time, pop music is welcome by younger listeners. *The Greenwood Boys* are a group of pop singers and they have been performing all around the country.

As we all know, Shakespeare is the most important writer in UK. Plays were also born in UK and theaters are quite common in Europe. This kind of art can be found in Lesson 1, 17 and Lesson 19. Students in the west were encouraged to perform on the school stage at festival time and most importantly, at graduation ceremony. The price to pay at a theater is normally higher than a ticket in a cinema, because such creative performance has been paid more attention. The Chinese learners need to know the manners to go to the theater, for example, silent the smart phones, no flash when the actors/actresses are playing on the stage.

Custom and Tradition

UK is where authentic English culture takes shape. Since English is taken as a global language, a lingua-franca, British customs and traditions have spread many parts of the world and have influenced all the English-spoken areas. The typical English customs and traditions may be drinking tea, eating fish and walking in the street with an umbrella.

In Lesson 9, we can find out people get together at the city hall before 12 on December 31 to celebrate the coming New Year. People wait for the clock to strike twelve times and dance and sing. In some countries, like Spain, after dinner, family member will eat twelve grapes each time the clock strikes. This is said to bring luck for the coming New Year.

Festivals like April Fools' Day and Christmas in the west, Festival for the Dead in Japan are also shown in the Book 2. At Christmas time, apart from the common knowledge that the kids receive the gifts from their parents, the kids are also taught to send gifts to the social organizations and to the people in need. Normally friends don't exchange presents at Christmas. On April 1, you can joke with your friends before 12 o'clock. No serious joke can be talked after lunch if you want to be a fool.

All the western customs and traditions should be clear to the learners if they would like a successful intercultural communication.

Religion

Religion always offers the best insight into a society's behavior and usually helps answer the question why people are

³ Reference from a webpage. *Performing arts (such as traditional music, dance and theatre)*. <<https://ich.unesco.org/en/performing-arts-00054>>. UNESCO.

behaving in that way, rather than how they should behave themselves not to look so odd⁴.

Religious holidays like Christmas and churches have been mentioned in Book 2 as well. Superstitious western people relatively believe the crystal ball to foretell their fortune (Lesson 60). Anyone touches the “cursed tress” will have bad luck (Lesson 58). Some believe the ancient Greek myths, as we can see in Lesson 28.

Learners should bear in mind some tips when they visit a church. First no slippers are allowed to enter the church. Mute the smart phones. Pride, envy, gluttony, lust, anger, greed, sloth are regarded as seven deadly sins.

Language

According to Carter (1997: 68), “language reflects the nature and values of society. There may be many sub-cultural languages like dialects which may have to be accounted for”. Accent is also part of languages. People from different areas may have different accents. We have no difficulty understanding this if we think about our own various accents and dialects.

In Lesson 25, the narrator found difficulty understanding the British English when he arrived in UK because the local accent was quite different from what he had learnt in his country. The Chinese learners with high scores of English might have the same problems when they travel to London for the first time. From the author’s perspective, the major reason lies in the fact that the second language our learners perceive in China is standardized English, academic English, so to speak. The British might find a bit strange when they communicate with us.

Another reason might be that there are lots of dialects in Britain. The only way to overcome is to strengthen the learners’ listening skills. Prepare different listening materials from real life situation.

C. Summary

In this chapter, the author conducted a detailed study on the second volume of NCE based on eight parameters: norm, value, art, custom, religion, language, ways of life and material culture. Under each parameter, the author illustrated samples from the book to distinguish each category. Meanwhile, the author highlighted the key points to pay special attention in the process of cross-cultural communication.

However, there are some texts in Book 2 which can be labeled as more than one category because of various cultural elements. For instance, we can not only analyze the first lesson A Private Conversation from the perspective of value, but from the perspective of art as well. Therefore, the percentage of each cultural element is not fixed and may differ, which is the limitation of the case study

V. CONCLUSIONS

To repeat, a textbook is the core teaching material of a curriculum and embodies the view of the curriculum, the view of linguistics and the view of language acquisition or learning. *New Concept English* provides a set of excellent learning materials and is well received by the field of English education in China.

From the above analysis, it can be concluded that generally the academic contents in the books are in accordance with the linguistic theories. And the study can provide references to the English teachers in and out of China. When emphasizing the study of communicative skills, the teacher should also take the cross-cultural communication into consideration and help to improve the cross-cultural communicative competence of the learners. And the study suggests that the editors of English textbooks should combine the contents and culture and keep the languages alive to make the learners to fulfill the ultimate target of foreign languages learning, that is to say, to communicate with foreigners fluently and to think in their shoes.

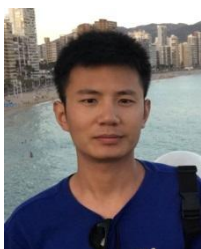
Furthermore, NCE features thematic teaching and focuses on the language learners. Students become the center in English study, thus they are more eager to learn. And NCE emphasizes the combination of listening and speaking and thus fosters the students’ communicative competence, which is breakthrough of the traditional English teaching. And the topics are new and interesting and can therefore be attractive to the students.

REFERENCES

- [1] Adshead, S.A.M. (1997). *Material Culture in Europe and China, 1400–1800*. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan UK.
- [2] Alexander, L. G. & He, Q. X. (1997). *New Concept English*. Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press.
- [3] Backlund, P. (1978). *Defining Communication Competence*. Annandale: Communication Education.
- [4] Brislin, R. & Yoshida, T. (1994). *Intercultural Communication Training: An Introduction*. Thousand Oaks: Sage.
- [5] Carter, S. (1997). *Global Agricultural Marketing Management*. Food & Agriculture Org.
- [6] Davis, L. (2001). *Doing Culture: Cross-cultural Communication Action*. Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press.
- [7] Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations. *The Cultural Environment*.
- [8] <http://www.fao.org/docrep/W5973E/w5973e07.htm>.
- [9] Gudykunst, W. B. (1983). *Intercultural Communication Theory: Current Perspectives*. Beverly Hills: Sage. Houghton Mifflin Harcourt. Cultural Norms. <<https://www.cliffsnotes.com/study-guides/sociology/culture-and-societies/cultural-norms>>.
- [10] Hu, W. Z. (1997). *Foreign Language Teaching and Culture*. Changsha: Hunan Education Press.

⁴ Reference from a webpage. *The Cultural Environment*. <<http://www.fao.org/docrep/W5973E/w5973e07.htm>>. Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations.

- [11] Jandt, F. E. (2001). *Intercultural Communication: An Introduction* (third ed.). Thousand Oaks: Sage.
- [12] Jia, Y. X. (1997). *Intercultural Communication*. Shanghai: Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press.
- [13] Li, J. N. (2007). *New Concepts of New Concept English*. Master Dissertation, Harbin University of Science and Technology.
- [14] Lin, D. J. (1996). *Intercultural Communication Studies*. Fuzhou: Fujian People's Publication House.
- [15] Libraries Publishing. *The Elements of Culture*. <<http://open.lib.umn.edu/sociology/chapter/3-2-the-elements-of-culture/>>.
- [16] Long, X. (2009). *New Concept English: Advantages and Disadvantages*. *Education and Teaching Research* 5, 8-10.
- [17] Samovar, L. A. (1997). *Intercultural Communication: A reader* (eighth ed.). Belmont: Wadsworth Publishing Company.
- [18] Sun, W. Q. (2008). *A Comparison of English by Xu Guozhang VS New Concept English*. Master Dissertation, Shanghai Normal University.
- [19] UNESCO. *Performing arts*. <<https://ich.unesco.org/en/performing-arts-00054>>.
- [20] Xu, L. S. (2000). *Analysis on Intercultural Communicative Competence*. *Foreign Languages and Their Teaching* 7, 45-49.
- [21] Zhan, S. X. & Li, H. (2006). *A Brief Analysis of New Concept English: 2nd volume*. *Journal of Taiyuan Urban Vocational College* 5, 125-126.



Julong Wang, born in China, is doing his doctoral program of Languages, Literatures, Cultures and Applications in Faculty of Philology, Translation and Communication, University of Valencia, Spain. The author's major field of study is Teaching English as a Foreign Language.

He has been working as an English instructor and researcher for more than 10 years in China and in Spain. He delivered his talk on "The Authenticity of Real Texts in Advanced English Language Textbooks from Chinese Universities: Final Results" at IV Conference Innovation in Valencia in 2016. At the same year, Mr. Wang attended TeCola Project which was funded by European Union.

Identity, Place and Non-belonging in Jean Rhys's Fiction

Lin Yan

Shanghai International Studies University, Shanghai, China

Abstract—Place is considered as a distinguishable factor among Jean Rhys's novels, most concretely represented by three countries: Dominica, England and France. In locating her outsider and outcast heroines in these places of interconnectedness, Rhys's fiction responds to a time of crisis in the history of Empire. With a much stigmatized white West Indian creole identity, her heroines are unacceptably white in Dominica, and unacceptably "black" in Europe. In *Voyage in the Dark*, Anna is stranded in a modernist London that was at once racially heterogeneous, cosmopolitan and xenophobic. Her transgressive and mobile identities (racial, sexual, national), are forever making her stranger in the metropole. In *Quartet* and *Good Morning, Midnight*, both Marya and Sasha occupy the temporary and liminal spaces of the metropolis of Paris and try to buy themselves an illusion of a respectable identity. Rejected, unhoused, wandering in a state of limbo, their existence becomes mechanical and ghostly. It is this sense of having no identity and no place of belonging resulted from a very specific and traumatic colonial experience that best explains the pervasive tone of loss, melancholy, and paralysis of spirit underlying all of Rhys's fiction.

Index Terms—Jean Rhys, identity, place, non-belonging, modernism

I. INTRODUCTION

Amidst the increasing volumes of Rhys studies, there remained for a long time a schism between her European/metropolitan fiction and her fiction with more obvious West Indian background. As she became "a central literary icon" (Savory, 2009, p.xiv) with the rise of feminist and postcolonial studies and receives increasing attention as a Caribbean or West Indian writer, a large number of these studies framed the discussion within the rich and diverse tradition of Caribbean literature and culture as the essential context of Rhys's Caribbean texts, most notably *Wide Sargasso Sea* and a number of short stories, whereas the early novels, with their metropolitan settings and protagonists of overt English background, continue to be approached from (European) modernist and feminist perspective. Only until recently has critics begun to merge the two strains of writing, bringing together various camps of modernist, feminist Caribbean and postcolonial studies.

Unlike the other expatriate writers of the thirties in London and Paris, Rhys was not simply the metropolitan outsider who experienced a modernist alienation and exile. She was the West Indian who made the reverse journey from the colony to the metropole. In this sense, place stands as a distinguishable factor among Jean Rhys's fiction. From a disturbing childhood in a white creole colonizer family in post-slavery Dominica to her later painful entry into the mother country and exile in imperial centers, she struggled with an outsider status, a state she most frankly professes in her biography *Smile Please* (1979): "I would never belong anywhere, and I knew it, and all my life would be the same, trying to belong and failing....I am a stranger and I always will be, and after all I didn't really care" (p.124). Similarly, the sense of isolation, of not belonging anywhere, the lack of solidity in background – having no name, no face, no country, no dignity, a desperate financial and emotional dependence on men, present in almost all of the Rhys heroines, must be understood in the context of the writer's unique colonial consciousness and as a result of perpetual displacement. And these features may best be illustrated from the interplay of place and identity in Rhys's three early novels: *Quartet* (1929), *Voyage in the Dark* (1934) and *Good Morning, Midnight* (1939).

II. FROM DOMINICA TO ENGLAND: THE WHITE CREOLE WOMAN'S LIMBO

The story of *Voyage in the Dark* follows Anna Morgan, a white West Indian teenage girl who is sent to England to study. As a chorus girl, she has an affair with a much older, well-to-do Englishman, Walter Jeffries, who eventually ends the relationship and cut Anna off with money. And she begins a slow slide into prostitution. The novel was originally called "Two Tunes", signifying two quite separate and confrontational worlds of the Caribbean, Anna's childhood home, and England.

Her home island, Dominica, though unnamed in the story, appears in a dreamy vision Anna recalls reading from a travel book:

"Lying between 15°10' and 15°40'N. and 61°14' and 61°30'W. 'A goodly island and something highland, but all overgrown with woods,' that book said. And all crumpled into hills and mountains as you would crumple a piece of paper in your hand - rounded green hills and sharply-cut mountains." (Rhys, 1934, p.17)

The way the island is described obviously mirrors how it had been colonized and treated by the English. Anna recalls the landscape, color, smell of the island with warmth:

"It was funny, but that was I thought about more than anything else - the smell of the streets and the smells of frangipani and lime juice and cinnamon and cloves, and sweets made of ginger and syrup, and incense after funerals or Corpus Christi procession, and the patients standing outside the surgery next door, and the smell of the sea breeze and the different smell of the land-breeze." (Rhys, 1934, p.7)

In contrast, England is "a curious limbo", a cold and thieving place. Here England is obviously a place that is "open, porous and the products of other places" (Massey, 1995, p.59). Anna's shift in temporal, geographical as well as psychic spaces between the colony and metropole brings the history of imperialism to the foreground. The cityscape of London, an imperial metropolis grounded in the material manifestations of wealth and privilege, is fractured by the shadow of imperial history. Its history as a place from and through which the slave trade was controlled, financed and administered is constantly evoked through the heroine's alienated and dreamy experience of the city.

Throughout the novel, Rhys continuously reminds us of the strong foreign presence in modernist London. Contrary to its image of a heterogeneous metropolitan city of racial, sexual and class emancipation the Bloomsbury has successfully established, the foreign characters in *VD* are constantly conceived of as outsiders, "dirty foreigners" (Rhys, 1934, p.95). Their presence signals simultaneously the heterogeneity and exclusionary nature of modernist London. Rhys also uses characters with ambiguous Jewish identity—the quintessential figure of exile, to conjure physical and emotional displacement.

Anna, the white creole, is the doubly 'not-like', the 'almost the same, but not quite' in two directions, or in Homi Bhabha's phrase, "less than one but double", leaving her in a space of suspension, in between. Back in Dominica, Hester, Anna's stepmother, insinuates that Anna's maternal genealogy—fifth generation West Indian—is tainted by "coloured" blood, and makes redeeming Anna from the "[u]nfortunate propensities" of her maternal family, her mission (Rhys, 1934, p.56). Hester represents a repressive English colonial Law, especially in her maxims concerning the proper behaviour of white ladies and gentlemen. Anna was raised to be a white "lady"; her purity and Englishness was monitored by Hester. But she finds Anna's Dominican accent intolerable and considers Anna as "growing up more like a nigger every day" (Rhys, 1934, p.54). In England the other chorus girls call her "the Hottentot", a term insinuating a pathological sexuality widely held belonging to black women. A hostile landlady sneers at her "drawly voice" (Rhys, 1934, p.18), and she is also called a "fair baboon... worse than a dark one every time" (Rhys, 1934, p.126). Anne McClintock in *Imperial Leather* discusses the invention of race in the urban metropolises and argues that it became central not only to the self-definition of the middle class but also to the policing of the "dangerous classes"—the working class, the Irish, Jews, prostitutes, feminists, gays and lesbians, criminals (McClintock, 2013, p.5). Anna fits into the category of dangerous class, and the kind of alienation she experiences in England is aptly reflected in an advertisement poster she recalls, in which a little girl and a boy are playing under a tidy green tree and a shiny pale-blue sky with a high dark wall behind the little girl, and "it was the wall that mattered" (Rhys, 1934, p.127).

Anna also experiences a kind of hostility in the metropole manifested in spacial forms. Repeatedly she notes the similarity between the towns, streets, houses, hotel rooms, and landladies, contrasted with her earlier imagination:

"I had read about England ever since I could read—this is London—hundreds thousands of white people rushing along and the dark houses all alike frowning down one after the other, all exactly alike, all stuck together, rotten-looking, the dark streets around the theater made me think of murder." (Rhys, 1934, p.15)

These images indicate the rigidity and inflexibility of a homogenized British culture and the pressure to conform. "Previous lodger, note, horse faces, grey streets where old men wait unnoticed, butcher's shop stinks to the leaden sky, fish shops stinks differently but worse. Loathsome London, vile and stinking hole...." The rooms she finds herself in are invariably cold, small, like as dark box, and she keeps the curtains drawn all the time. Windows are "like a trap", "the Iron shroud, all dirt swept under the bed". In one boarding house Anna worries "I believe this damned room's getting smaller and smaller" and imagines that the walls will creep inwards "until they crush her to death" (Rhys, 1934, p.26). As her dwellings space shrinks and presses upon her, she feels her own body becomes unhomey, "three quarters of me was in a prison, wandering round and round in a circle" (Rhys, 1934, p.66). One of her landladies shows her contempt saying that she does not let to professional, as it will give her house a bad name. And she accuses Anna of crawling up the stairs at three in the morning, the stairs being another metaphor for what the high dark wall represents for Anna. When Walter takes Anna to his place, his house also takes on a dark, quiet and watching look, "not friendly" to Anna. It seems to assume the role of the host, "sneering faintly, sneering discreetly, as a servant would", asking "Who's this? where on earth did he pick her up?" Even the shop widows sneer at her, stripping her naked, to show herself as an imposter and her attempt to dress like everyone else and buy into the illusion of acceptance, to escape alienation has failed.

Anna, in an ostracized state, suffers from both claustrophobia and agoraphobia. Whether confining herself inside hotel rooms, or subjecting herself to hostile looks and surveillance by policeman on the streets, Anna could find no welcoming place in the metropole. When she moves in with Ethel the masseuse who invites her to share her house and her manicure business, she confines herself within a few rooms and gone from one to another: "You're face to face with a high, dark wall." And the look from the girl at the hotel desk and Vincent are also described in oppressive spacial terms: "The damned way they look at you and their damned voices, like high, smooth, unclimbable walls all around you,

closing on you.” (Rhys, 1934, p.126) And no communication is possible. As Anna wanders in the street, she can’t help being in a paranoid state: “I was afraid to cross the street because the slanting houses might fall on me or the pavement rise up and hit me. But most of all I was afraid of the people passing because I was dying, any one of them, any minute, might stop and approach me and knock me down or put their tongues out as far as they would go.” As Deborah Parsons has pointed out in *Street Waling the Metropolis*: “Despite the increased independence and public visibility of women that was gained in the first decades of the twentieth century, the end of the war brought with it a backlash against female emancipation,” and “women in public were again associated with the fallen woman.... Their posture of urban knowledge and independence has become futile, sterile, and rather sordid” (Parson, 2000, p.125). Therefore whereas Richardson and Woolf’s characters inhabit the space of the urban street and room, manifesting independence and engaging in pilgrimage, those of Rhys choose to inhabit streets and rooms that allow them hiding-places and anonymity. For Anna, “Anywhere will do, so long as it’s somewhere that nobody knows” (Rhys, 1934, p.100).

Victor Turner in the *Ritual Process* proposes the concept of “liminal” condition. For Turner, a liminal condition is ambiguous state that defies normal classifications that may locate a particular body within certain cultural context, and while it represents a transitional state, it may pose danger to others (Rhys, 1934, p.95). As a white Creole, outsider/insider in the metropole, Anna is obviously in an in-between state. Anna feels the hostility from those who perceive her as a danger in an excruciating way that it parallels the violence of slavery as she reflects: “it was terrifying –the way they look at you. So that you know that they would see you burnt alive without even turning their heads away” (Rhys, 1934, p.103). Her experience testifies that “Englishness was itself a product of the colonial culture that it seemed to have created elsewhere” (Gikandi, 1996, p.x). Only by establishing the boundary between self and colonial other can the English identity be constructed. Anna’s constant shift of mind between past and present, London and Caribbean, her seeming inability to demarcate the borders of these spaces, temporal, geographical as well as psychic, illustrates on one hand “the disorienting power of modernity” (Thacker, 2003, p. 204), and on the other her resistance to the Empire’s insistent mapping of boundaries in all aspects. And her dis-identification with the English opened for her a space from which to gaze critically at the constructedness of Englishness and their gendered and racialized manifestations.

III. PARIS: THE CONSUMING WOMAN AND THE AUTOMATON

Rhys left England for the Continent in 1919 and vowed to herself “nothing would ever make me return” (Rhys, 1979, p.172). She spent the most part of the 1920s in Paris and though for some time she did have to leave and return to England, she made frequent visit back to the Continent and her stay seemed particularly fruitful. It was in Paris in 1927, Rhys published her first collection, *The Left Bank and Other Stories*, and the very next year, her first novel, *Quartet* (published under the title *Postures*). It was also mainly in Paris she finished most part of *After Leaving Mr. MacKenzie*.

Paris, in Rhys’s fiction, is Walter Benjamin’s capital of modernity, the city of arcades and of department stores. Yet it is not upheld as a place that offered women socially acceptable spaces, the city that fostered the talents of the women artists like Gertrude Stein, Stella Bowen, D’juna Barnes, Gwen John and allowed them to find their own artistic voice. Both Rhys and Benjamin write about Paris and of consumerism that defined urban culture in the early twentieth century, both of their works can be read as cultural analysis of the commodity, the theatre, the dream, fashion and advertising, characters on the margins of society (the prostitute). But for Rhys’s heroines, the arcades, the department stores and the flanerie do not represent the promise of consumerism and capitalism that define modern European culture. The racial and imperialist factors behind the commodity capitalism always complicate the picture. McClintock calls the three of the governing themes of Western imperialism: “the transmission of white, male power through control of colonized women; the emergence of a new global order of cultural knowledge; and the imperial command of commodity capital” (McClintock, 2013, p.3). The imperialist control of women and commodity at the empire center is given particular emphasis in Rhys’s European novels.

Good Morning, Midnight illustrates the importance of space in the novel:

“Was it in 1923 or 1924 that we lived round the corner, in the Rue Victor Cousin, and Enno bought me that Cossack cap and the imitation astrakhan coat? It was then that I started calling myself Sasha. I thought it might change my luck if I changed my name. Did it bring me any luck, I wonder— calling myself Sasha?

Was it in 1926 or 1927?” (Rhys, 1939, p.12)

Here, place is a more significant point of reference for Sasha’s memory than time. Her sense of identity is clearly associated with the place she happens to find herself in. Throughout the novel, Sasha recalls specific place-based memories. She remembers “standing in the middle of the Place de l’Opera, losing [her] head and not knowing the way to the Rue de la Paix” (Rhys, 1939, p.30) from her time working as a tour guide, “blue sky over the streets, the houses, the bars, the cafes, the vegetable shops and the Faubourg Montmartre” (Rhys, 1939, p.128) before her husband leaves her, and that “there used to be a good hat shop in the Rue Vavin” (Rhys, 1939, p.68). There are places where she is liked, streets that are “friendly,” rooms where she “might” be happy, looking glasses she looks nice in and dresses that will be lucky (Rhys, 1939, p.46). Sasha relies on the locales she is familiar with to orient herself in a city where she constantly feels the need to hide and to be anonymous.

It’s particularly important to note that the places Sasha frequents comprise a highly commercialised and commodified world of Paris and while Sasha is taking her flanerie she makes frequent references to mannequins, window shopping,

clothing and make-up as a critique of the alienating effects of fashion, consumption and commodification upon female identity.

Like other Rhys heroines, Sasha's lack of a secure background makes consumption (as a way to attain a measure of identity) intrinsic to her experience of modernity. To be able to fit in the society in which she's marginalized (for her sex, her class, her problematic national identity), Sasha is engaged in a complete transformation of self. She changes her name from Sophia to Sasha in the hope "it might change my luck"; she dyes her hair "a very good blond cendre"; and she changes her costumes: "I must go and buy a hat this afternoon, I think, and tomorrow a dress." (Rhys, 1939, p.11, p.53). She refers to her made-up face as a mask that can be manipulated at will: "I can take it off whenever I like and hang it up on a nail." (37) She defines the success of this transformation act as the ability to "look like everyone else" (88), that "Nobody stares at me" (60) and states ironically: "I am trying so hard to be like you" (88). Yet despite these attempts, Sasha concludes: "they always see through me" (28). In *Modernism and the Marketplace*, Alissa Karl argues that, in Rhys's texts, consumerism is inscribed with imperialist domination because it is the vehicle through which "national culture is accessible" (Karl, 2009, p.17). Yet while Sasha tries to obtain an identity through purchase of costumes and masks so that she may escape alienation, she also realizes acceptance can never be achieved because of this "imperial domination" and exclusion.

As women like Sasha are trying to buy themselves an illusion of identity that meets with society's values, they are also aware of the objectifying male-gaze which they can not help internalize. The patriarchal paradigm, together with mechanics of consumerism finds the female body and its image highly commodifiable: women become a commodity spectacle and are turned victims of such objectification and commodification. While they consume the products of fashion industry and assume the mass produced fashionable identities, they become interchangeable with mannequins displayed in department store windows, as Sasha ironically comments on the "charming, malicious" dolls in the fashion house: "What a success they would have made of their lives if they had been women. Satin skin, silk hair, velvet eyes, sawdust heart—all complete" (Rhys, 1939, p.16).

The commodification of women, with fashion, advertising and entertainment as its accomplices, is more striking in the case of the prostitute, which Benjamin gives extended discussion in *One Way Street* and *Arcades Project*. Rita Felski in *The Gender of Modernity* discusses "The prostitute, the actress, the mechanical woman" in particular as "heroines of modernity" and declares that "it is such female figures that crystallize the ambivalent responses to capitalism and technology which permeated nineteenth-century culture" (Felski, 1995, p.20). It's not surprising to find that Rhys's heroines fit into all three categories, both Marya in *Quartet* and Julia in *ALMM* have worked as model and mannequin, Anna in *VD* is a chorus girl and mistress, Sasha in *GMM* worked as a salesgirl, all of them are connected to the role of prostitute one way or another, and more significantly, they often perform more than one of these roles simultaneously.

Luce Irigaray in *Women on the Market* analyzes the circulation and consumption of women by men in the institutions of prostitution and marriage. She argues that women enter the symbolic order as objects circulated and exchanged by men, and in this system of exchange, a woman is "transformed into a value-bearing object, a standardized sign, an exchangeable signifier" (Irigaray, 1985, p.180). As commodities, women have either a use value or an exchange value. In either case, women are subjected to economic exploitation, sexual prejudice or racism. The forms of prostitution may have evolved but they never disappear. As Benjamin observes, the commodification of female sexuality in modernity has changed with the changing conditions of capitalist production: the chorus girls are produced like on the assembly line. Hence what modernity brings as a difference is not the nature of such exploitation, but the scale and diversity of it. Sasha, when being sacked by the English manager, gives a fierce indictment of the "organized society" in the terms of exchange value and how the exploited is robbed of both money and dignity:

"You, who represent Society, have the right to pay me four hundred francs a month. That's my market value, for I am an inefficient member of society, slow in the uptake, uncertain, slightly damaged in the fray, there's no denying it." (Rhys, 1939, p.25)

"Let's say you have the mystical right to cut my legs off. But the right to ridicule me because I am a cripple—no, that I think you haven't got. And that's the right you hold must dearly, isn't it? You must be able to despise the people you exploit" (29).

Here Sasha presents the Rhys women's dilemma, that because of their poverty they must circulate, but because of their circulation, they become damaged goods, their value depreciates accordingly. They have to continue to invest in their clothes and appearance in order to sustain their status as increasingly devalued commodities.

"The machine-woman" is also discussed as a recurring theme in modern times. Andreas Huyssen notes in "The Vamp and the Machine" that this image comes to crystallize in condensed form a simultaneous fascination and revulsion with the powers of technology. Yet this figure of the woman as machine can also be read as the reaffirmation of a patriarchal desire for technological mastery over woman, expressed in the fantasy of a compliant female automaton (Felski, 1995, p.20). Sasha, who feels powerless against the manipulation of the mechanics of consumerism and exchange, is profoundly aware of its dehumanizing and automatizing effect. She describes her anonymous, mechanical existence in endless repetition:

"Eat. Drink. Walk. March. Back to the hotel. To the Hotel of Arrival, the Hotel of Departure, the Hotel of the Future, the Hotel of Martinique and the Universe. ... Back to the hotel without a name in the street without a name. You press

the button and the door opens. This is the Hotel Without-a-Name in the Street Without-a-Name, and the clients have no names, no faces. You go up the stairs. Always the same stairs, always the same room.”(Rhys, 1939, p.120)

With the Paris 1937 *Exposition Internationale des Arts et Techniques Applique a la Vie Moderne* as an important backdrop that converge modern technology, the rise of fascism and competition of imperial power, Sasha reacts that she “feel like an automaton”, she has forgotten “what it was like, the touch of a human hand”(Rhys, 1939, p.84) , indicating her own mechanization into an automaton, and she sees artificial limbs in a shop-window and mechanical hand in her nightmare that points her to the Exhibition. In the end of the novel, she feels the entire world is “an enormous machine, made of white steel.” While the Exhibition foregrounds the modern, progressive ideology of nation and nationalism, demonstrates material wealth and progress in the machine age, it also focuses on imperial display and global reach of imperial-capital, betrays racism and European imperial expansion.

IV. CONCLUSION

In the introduction Ford Madox Ford wrote for Rhys’s first published work, *The Left Bank and Other Stories*, he states that “Her business was with passion, hardship, emotions: the locality in which these things are endured is immaterial,” and then concedes that “something human should be dearer to one than all the topographies of the world” (Ford, 1927, p. 24-26). Yet place, locality and the space produced in between are by no means immaterial in her work. The vagueness in location and boundaries in Rhys’s fiction, both in terms of geography and identity, are more revealing of the particular existence her characters find themselves in. The outcasts, the impoverished diasporas and the Creoles all experience a displacement and such displacement are results of a history of European imperialism and colonial exploitation. In imperial England, when failing to comply with a rigid social code of Englishness, gentility and purity, they are rejected, unhoused, wandering in a state of limbo, and their existence becomes mechanical, ghostly, hostage to the coercive and dehumanizing imperialist ideology. In Paris, they experience a disorientation and identity loss resulted from the capitalist consumerism and capitalist imperialism the capital of modernity embodies. It is this sense of having no identity and no place of belonging resulted from a very specific and traumatic colonial experience that best explains the pervasive tone of loss, melancholy, and paralysis of spirit underlying all of Rhys’s fiction.

REFERENCES

- [1] Felski, Rita. (1995). *The Gender of Modernity*. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press.
- [2] Ford Madox Ford. (1927). Introduction to *The Left Bank and Other Stories* by Jean Rhys. London: Jonathan Cape, 7-27.
- [3] Gikandi, Simon. (1996). *Maps of Englishness: Writing Identity in the Culture of Colonialism*. New York: Columbia UP.
- [4] Irigaray, Luce. (1985). *The Sex Which is Not One*. New York: Cornell University Press.
- [5] Karl, Alissa G. (2009). *Modernism and the Marketplace: Literary Culture and Consumer Capitalism in Rhys, Woolf, Stein, and Nella Larsen*. New York: Routledge.
- [6] Massey, D. (1994). *Space, Place and Gender*. Cambridge: Polity Press.
- [7] McClintock, Anna. (1995). *Imperial Leather: Race, Gender and Sexuality in the Colonial Contest*. New York and London: Routledge.
- [8] Parsons, Deborah L. (2000). *Streetwalking the Metropolis: Women, the City, and Modernity*. Oxford: Oxford UP.
- [9] Rhys, Jean. (1927) 1984. *The Left Bank and Other Stories*. London: Cape. Reprint, Salem: Ayer.
- [10] Rhys, Jean.. (1929) 1997. *Quartet*. New York: Simon and Shuster. Reprint, New York: Norton.
- [11] Rhys, Jean. (1934) 1994. *Voyage in the Dark*. London: Constable. Reprint, New York: Norton.
- [12] Rhys, Jean. (1939) 1999. *Good Morning, Midnight*. London: Constable. Reprint, New York: Norton.
- [13] Rhys, Jean. (1979). *Smile Please: An Unfinished Autobiography*. Berkeley: Donald S. Ellis/Creative Arts.
- [14] Savory, Elaine. (2009). *The Cambridge Introduction to Jean Rhys*. Cambridge: Cambridge UP.
- [15] Thacker, Andrew. (2003). *Moving through Modernity: Space and Geography in Modernism*. Manchester: Manchester UP.
- [16] Turner, Victor W. (1969). *The Ritual Process. Structure and Anti-Structure*. Chicago: Aidine Publishing.

Lin Yan is a Ph.D candidate majoring in English language and literature from the School of English, Shanghai International Studies University. She has been a teaching assistant in Department of English, Zhejiang University City College for four years. Her published essays include a translated article “Ezra Pound, Confucius, and the Fenollosa Notebooks: ‘The Very Real Principle of Modernism’ by Anne Conover Carson (*English and American Literary Studies*, spring 2011), and a book chapter “Thackeray in China” in *Studies of British Literature in 20th Century China* (Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press, 2014). Her research interests mainly focus on modernist and contemporary British literature.

Tim O'Brien's "Bad" Vietnam War: *The Things They Carried* & Its Historical Perspective

Ramtin Noor-Tehrani (Noor) Mahini
Acalanes High School, Lafayette, California, USA

Erin Barth
Acalanes High School, Lafayette, California, USA

Jed Morrow
Acalanes High School, Lafayette, California, USA

Abstract—Tim O'Brien was sent to Vietnam as a foot soldier in 1969, during the later part of the Vietnam War that can be called the "bad" or unwinnable war. Based on his experience, O'Brien's writing about the Vietnam War in his award-winning fiction novels is always "bad," meaning that the war was terrible for American grunts like himself, his fellow soldiers, and Vietnamese civilians, with practically no good or inspiring stories. Nevertheless, O'Brien touches upon almost all problems of American soldiers in the Vietnam War, but not many peer-reviewed authors or online literary analysis websites could identify or discuss them all. The purpose of this article is to discuss the war details in O'Brien's *The Things They Carried* and its historical perspective, so that young middle and high school readers can understand the meaning behind Tim O'Brien's writing about the Vietnam War. The goal is to summarize the entire big picture of the Vietnam War and to help students determine whether American soldiers' actions, as described by Tim O'Brien, were morally right or wrong and were legal or forbidden according to the US law of war. The war-related issues that O'Brien mentioned in this novel are: boredom and meaningless death, abusive violence¹ toward Vietnamese noncombatants, drug use, in-fighting, thefts within barracks, grief, rage, self-mutilation, mutilation of enemy corpses, and senseless animal and civilian killings.

Index Terms—Tim O'Brien, *The Things They Carried*, Vietnam War, American Casualties, abusive violence, military drug use, mutilation of corpses, mutilation of animals, civilian collaboration, village bombing

I. INTRODUCTION

By the end of the Vietnam War - the time the last American was airlifted from the top of the American Embassy in Saigon on April 30, 1975 - a total of 738 billion dollars were burned, more than 58,000 American lives perished (Kent, 2015), 300,000 able American bodies were maimed and disabled, and another 500,000 veterans were plagued by the effects of post traumatic stress disorder (PTSD). That is all left - hard and cold statistics - for a painful Vietnam War experience in Americans' mind and conscience. Yet some of the unexpected side aspects of wars are heart-wrenching stories from the pen of talented writers like Tim O'Brien to keep human experience alive through decades. As one of American prominent writers, Tim O'Brien skillfully mixes his real wartime experience with fiction in his award-winning novels. Recently, two days before the ten-part, 18-hour documentary "The Vietnam War" by Ken Burns and Lynn Novick was aired on Public Broadcasting Service (PBS), the *New York Times* readers voted *The Things They Carried* (O'Brien, 1990) to be one of the ten best books about the Vietnam War (Ellingwood, 2017), among roughly 30,000 publications on the subject. The Vietnam War depicted in all O'Brien's fiction novels is almost always representative of the "bad" part of the Vietnam War. Although O'Brien wants to create a "sense of passion" and to discuss themes "of courage, rectitude, enlightenment, holiness, trying to do the right thing in the world" (Coffey, 1990), or to focus on the "language about the war and about the human heart" (Gross, 2010), his writing unwittingly gives us a long list of reasons why the mighty, supreme United States (US) of America lost the war in Vietnam, one of the poorest third world countries on earth. Previous peer-reviewed publications on Tim O'Brien's novels and online literary analysis websites (such as litcharts.com, cliffsnotes.com, or sparknotes.com) mostly focus on literary devices and a few narrow war aspects of his books. Even the most comprehensive review on Tim O'Brien's work by Heberle does not point out these war-related issues within their historical context (Heberle, 2001). Because this article addresses the historical perspective of war-related issues presented by O'Brien in *The Things They Carried*, its purpose is to help young middle and high school readers understand the entire big war picture and the meaning behind Tim O'Brien's writing about the Vietnam War, in order to recognize which American soldiers' actions - as described by O'Brien - may not be morally or legally correct under the US law of war.

¹ "Abusive Violence" is a term used by Laufer et al. (1984) in "War Stress and Trauma: The Vietnam Veteran Experience"

II. AUTHOR

William Timothy O'Brien Jr. (Tim O'Brien) was born on October 1, 1946 in Austin, Minnesota (MN) but grew up with two younger siblings in Worthington, MN, a small rural town of about nine thousand residents. O'Brien was the oldest of the three children of William T. O'Brien, an insurance salesman, and Ava E. O'Brien, a teacher. Both of his parents served in the Navy during World War II. Being a "chubby, friendless, and lonely" child terrible at playing baseball (O'Brien, 1994), he escaped boredom and reality by spending a great deal of time in the Noble's County Library. Despite the respect the O'Brien had toward his father, their relationship was troubled due to his father's alcoholism. O'Brien also professed to be a dreamer and a self-taught magician (Buchholz, 2012).

O'Brien received a Bachelor's Degree in Political Science from Macalester College in 1968 and was drafted in the same year. Fiercely opposing the Vietnam War, he was a campaign supporter/volunteer for Eugene McCarthy, a peace candidate in the 1968 presidential election and a congressman from Minnesota. O'Brien considered going AWOL (Absent Without Official Leave) and running to Canada during his training, but ultimately decided to stay. He served in the 3rd Platoon, Company A, 5th Battalion, 46th Infantry Regiment, 23rd Infantry Division in Vietnam. His Battalion contained the Charlie Company that committed the August 16, 1968 Mỹ Lai Massacre (Mỹ means "Pretty or American" and Lai means "Mixed Race"), roughly one year before his arrival. During his 14-month military service in Vietnam (1969-1970), he rose to the rank of sergeant and received the Purple Heart medal from being wounded twice.

After his military service, O'Brien did his graduate studies in government and political science at Harvard University. In 1973, he began his career as an intern and national affairs reporter for the *Washington Post* and married Anne Weller (the couple divorced in 1995). Shifting his career to fiction writing, O'Brien debuted with *If I Die In A Combat Zone, Box Me Up and Ship Me Home*, named Outstanding Book (of 1973) by *The New York Times*. In his writing piece entitled "The Vietnam in Me" published in *The New York Times* on October 2, 1994, O'Brien described his return trip to visit Mỹ Lai and Quảng Ngãi (meaning "Extensive Righteousness") in February of that year with his companion/love interest Kate Phillips. He describes in details his warm interaction with Mỹ Lai survivors, interspersed with his feelings about the breakup with Kate in the June/July time frame. At this time, O'Brien had to take medication to combat his depression and the double trauma that made him contemplate suicide. He later married Meredith Baker and currently lives in Austin, Texas with his wife and two sons, Timmy and Tad (Buchholz, 2012).

O'Brien has won several literary awards: 1976/1978 O. Henry Award, 1977 Best American Short Stories Award, 1978 National Book Award for Fiction (*Going After Cacciato*), 1990 Heartland Award and France's Prix du Meilleur Livre Etranger (*The Things They Carried*), 1991 Melcher Book Award, 1995 James Fenimore Cooper Prize for Historical Fiction (*In the Lake of the Woods*), 2012 Dayton Literary Peace Prize/Richard C. Holbrook Distinguished Achievement Award, and 2013 Pritzker Military Library Literature Award.

III. THE "GOOD" AND THE "BAD" VIETNAM WAR PERIODS

A study by Hochgesang, Lawyer, and Stevenson at Stanford University reports that in Vietnam, "Psychologists believe that there were two types of war. The first was considered the 'good' war which took place from 1964-1968. The second was the 'bad' war which occurred from 1968-1972" (Hochgesang, Lawyer, and Stevenson, 1999). These authors describe the earlier "good war" of 1964-1968 as the period when the fighting was conventional in a way that the enemies, namely the North Vietnamese Army (NVA) and the National Liberation Front (NLF) in the South (or Việt Cộng [VC], a shortened slang for Vietnamese Communists) could be easily identified and there was direct confrontation between the opposing military forces. The period of "bad war" of 1968-1972 is explained by Hochgesang, Lawyer, and Stevenson as the period when the Vietnam War became a guerrilla war, and the American troops were heavily inflicted by booby traps and mines when they pursued the invisible enemies among civilians who shielded them. As such, the latter situation blurred the difference between the enemy soldiers and civilian noncombatants; therefore, American troops began to view all Vietnamese they encountered as enemies and racially inferior. While this distinction of "good" and "bad" Vietnam War periods has merit in explaining the drastic changes in American troops' morale and action with time, their supporting rationale is flawed and incorrect.

The entire Vietnam War history and timeline have been well documented by historians and scholars (Public Broadcasting Service [PBS], 2018). After enduring more than 100 years under the brutal French colonialism, with the help of communist China, North Vietnamese nationalists led by General Võ Nguyên Giáp and the well-respected communist leader Hồ Chí Minh defeated the French at the decisive battle of Điện Biên Phủ in 1954. The Geneva Accords was signed to divide Vietnam into two regions at the seventeenth parallel to allow France a "face-saving defeat" (PBS, 2018). The Geneva Accords also stipulated that Vietnam would hold elections in 1956 to unite the country. At the same time, it created a 300-day period where people could move freely between the communist-controlled North and the anti-communist South before the border was sealed on May 18, 1955. Up to a million northern Vietnamese, mostly anti-communist, Catholic, or political refugees (i.e., college-educated professionals, merchants, land owners, etc.) were believed to leave the North and everything they owned to escape potential persecution by the communist regime. During this time the US Navy and the French military helped transport these Northern Vietnamese refugees via ship or aircraft under the Operation Passage to Freedom. Many thousands Northern Vietnamese also risked death to migrate South over land outside the 300-day period, despite being prevented by the communists from leaving.

To prevent the spread of communism from the North, the Eisenhower Administration supported Ngô Đình Diệm, a Catholic and French-educated politician, to head the Government of the Republic of Vietnam (GVN, or South Vietnam). In 1961, after nearly two decades of indirect military aids, President Kennedy decided to send 3,200 military troops to South Vietnam to act as military advisors to the Army of the Republic of Vietnam (ARVN). This number increased to 16,300 US military advisors in 1963. Inadvertently, the time of easy VC killing came to an end soon after the US got more involved in South Vietnam. John Paul Vann, a well-known US lieutenant colonel advisor and a posthumous Presidential Medal of Freedom recipient, observed as early as 1962 that the advisory mission by President Kennedy unintentionally resulted in equipping the VC with better US ammunitions because VC troops would attack isolated and weakly-held outposts and obtained advanced US arms to be more resilient after US-led attacks (Sheehan, 1988). When Ngô Đình Diệm was overthrown by a coup d'état on November 1, 1963, it was a common belief in military officers working under Diệm that the main reason of the coup d'état was that Diệm did not want the US to send combat ground troops to South Vietnam. President Kennedy was assassinated three weeks later in Dallas, Texas.

In 1964, President Johnson lied to Congress and the American people about the Gulf of Tonkin incident and obtained the *Tonkin Gulf Resolution* from Congress, a blank check to increase US military presence in Vietnam. In his major address at John Hopkins University on April 7, 1965, President Johnson stated, "Why are we in South Viet-Nam? We are there because we have a promise to keep. Since 1954 every American President has offered support to the people of South Viet-Nam. We have helped to build and we have helped to defend. Thus, over many years we have made a national pledge to help South Viet-Nam defend its independence" (The Regents of the University of California [TRUC], 2018). The American public and the entire world at that time did not know that as early as 1965, the US government secretly reported that the Vietnam War was unwinnable, as the situation in South Vietnam was "bad and deteriorating" ("The Pentagon Papers," 1965). The US aim for involvement in South Vietnam then was primarily "to avoid a humiliating US defeat" (70 percent) and to keep South Vietnam and adjacent Indochina territory from Chinese hands (20 percent). The US aim to help South Vietnamese achieve a democratic society and a better life is only 10 percent. Despite this bleak secret report, President Johnson escalated the US involvement in Vietnam by ordering the bombing of North Vietnam (Operation Rolling Thunder) and by increasing the number of American troops sent to Vietnam from 23,000 in 1964 to 184,300 in 1965 and even up to 536,100 in 1968 (TRUC, 2018 p. 29). The role of American troops in Vietnam changed from military advisors to the ARVN to regular combat units; and this significantly increased American troop casualties. Still at the beginning of the Vietnam War, the American public and American troops believed that helping South Vietnam stop the spread of communism was part of their national interest.

From 1960 to 1964, the communist regime in North Vietnam believed that they could win a military victory in the South "in a relatively short period of time" (TRUC, 2018 p. 29). However, as early as December 1965, Hồ Chí Minh and his communist party changed their war tactic in the South to a guerrilla war to counter the American combat troop build-up. The purpose of this type of guerrilla war was to wear out America in a prolonged and undefined war it could not win easily with its outstanding military power. To achieve this objective, VC in South Vietnam stepped up their propaganda, recruitment effort, and the building of enormous underground tunnel systems as their bases. At the same time, more NVA troops, supplies, and ammunitions started to infiltrate the South using the Hồ Chí Minh trail. With their intimate knowledge of the landscape and local people, their focus was to remain invisible and to rely on surprised ambushes, hit and run attacks, mines, booby traps, etc. They did not try to engage in large confrontational battles with American troops unless the odds were in their favor (e.g., be in a close-range battle to avoid reinforced artillery and bombings from the Americans). Thus, during the 1964-1968 period that Hochgesang, Lawyer, and Stevenson (1999) called the "good war" [they meant when the fighting was conventional and confrontational], there were only a few large engagements with VC reported, with a couple of hundred casualties: Ấp Bắc (meaning "Northern Hamlet," January 1963), Sông Bé (meaning "Small River," May 1965), Đồng Xoài (meaning "Field of Mangoes," June 1965), Cồn Tiễn (meaning "Hill of Angels," July 1966), and Chu Lai (named after the mandarin name of General Victor Krulak, August 1965). The first few large battles between the American troops and the NVA were at Ia Drang (Ethnic minority name in Central Highlands, September-October 1965) and Đồng Hà (meaning "Eastern River," June 1966). During this time, American armed forces and ARVN conducted many large-scale and expensive Search and Destroy Operations: Crimp (8,000 US troops, January 1966); Birmingham (5,000 US troops, April-May 1966); Attleboro (US 196th Brigade, 22,000 ARVN, September 1966); Cedar Falls (16,000 US troops, 14,000 ARVN, January 1967); and Junction City (30,000 US troops, 5,000 ARVN, February 1967), etc. However, American troops did not encounter major, head-to-head battles during these conventional war operations. VC and NVA were ever found to be elusive and hard to find (PBS, 2018). By the late 1960s, public support for the Vietnam War in the U.S. was decreasing as the anti-war movement ratcheted up.

From 1968 until the last American combat soldiers left South Vietnam in March 1973, VC and NVA switched their guerilla war tactic to an offensive one to speed up the destruction of the GVN regime, in contrast with the definition of "bad war" by Hochgesang, Lawyer, and Stevenson (1999) [they meant that the fighting was based on the guerilla tactic]. During the Tết Nguyên Đán (Vietnamese New Year Holidays), or Tết offensive late January 1968, scores of VCs and their secret organizers/sympathizers openly attacked more than 100 cities and towns in South Vietnam. It was like the sky had fallen for many democracy-loving South Vietnamese, who found out that many of the people they had trusted their entire life (e.g., local merchants, co-workers, or handymen, etc.) turned out to be VC or VC sympathizers in

disguise. In addition to killing ARVN officers, soldiers, and their families at occupied military bases, VC and NVA forces also massacred thousands of educated professionals and people working for the Southern government or American bases in the towns they occupied, especially in Huế (meaning “Harmony”) (Richburg, 1988). As Americans watched the bloody and deadly fighting of Tết offensive on TV in real time, Vietnam War protests were escalating in the US. Major offensive attacks by VC and NVA on American bases continued in February 1969. At the same time, the on-going, intermittent VC and NVA guerrilla combat tactic in the rest of the country - outside the major offensive areas - remained. After his second inauguration, President Nixon began his “Vietnamization”² program in the spring of 1969. Nixon started gradual combat troop withdrawal while secretly ordering the bombing and troop attacks of neighboring Cambodia (1970) and Laos (1971). After the Paris Peace Agreement was signed on January 23, 1973, only few Marines protecting some US installations, American military advisors, and American civilians working for the US Embassy in Saigon remained in Vietnam by March 1973. When President Nixon resigned on August 8, 1974, South Vietnam lost its last and strongest advocate. The escalating offense attacks from VC and NVA on the ARVN at the end of 1974 and the financial/military cut from the US caused South Vietnam to finally nail the coffin of its fate. As South Vietnam did not have enough resources (especially ammunition) to defend itself, it collapsed and fell to communism on April 30, 1975.

As discussed above, the distinction of “good” and “bad” Vietnam War periods by Hochgesang, Lawyer, and Stevenson (1999) has merit in explaining the drastic changes in American troops’ morale and their consequential action with time, but the “good” war period was not due to the assumed conventional war conducted by opposing military forces in Vietnam. The “good” war period occurred at the beginning of the Vietnam War, when the morale of the American troops was relatively high because both American troops and the American public supported their government decision to stop the spread of communism in Southeast Asia. Only a small amount of volunteered troops were acting as military advisors to work along side the South Vietnamese and ARVN to help improve their life and their skills in battles. By the end of the 1960s decade, when President Johnson required American troops to take on the role of direct combat units, the number of American casualties significantly increased. Moreover, during President Nixon’s planned period of combat troop withdrawal, the troops’ morale took a dive as American soldiers struggled to stay alive during their one-year service tour³, until the day of their DEROS (Date of Expected Return from Overseas). The Army personnel rotation policy that rotated American soldiers through Vietnam on one-year tours and the requirement that officers spent only six months in a troop command position during that one year⁴ had several unintended adverse effects because “prominent military psychiatrists warned that the individual replacement system was having catastrophic consequences on unit cohesion⁵... and contributed to the Army’s declining performance on the battlefield” (DePue, 2006). Therefore, troops and their commanders avoided combat and field operations and instead focused on surviving their tour. By labeling the latter part of the Vietnam War as the “bad” war, it does not mean that there was a lack of courage or honorable deeds in the American armed forces at that time. It only means that the morale, discipline, and action of many soldiers were generally at the lowest point during the Vietnam War.

IV. O’BRIEN’S “BAD” VIETNAM WAR IN *THE THINGS THEY CARRIED*

O’Brien was sent to Vietnam in 1969, when the US government already started to gradually withdraw combat troops from the country. As stated in his interviews, “By 1969, nobody ever talked about winning... we had been reading enough headlines to absorb the hopelessness of the war” (Ackerman, 2017). Although O’Brien denies that he is a Vietnam War writer, he admits that three of his books “have a lot of Vietnam in them... *In the Lake of the Woods* occurs after Vietnam and living with the consequences of history and misdeed and horror. *Cacciato* is a fabulist running-away-from-the-war-story. *The Things They Carried* is a book largely about storytelling and issues about truth” (Hicks, 2005). Unintentionally, O’Brien has addressed, within these three award-winning novels, most of the reportedly important issues about the American troops during the “bad” Vietnam War period - in the most riveting, powerful, and groundbreaking way.

Published 12 years after *Going After Cacciato* (O’Brien, 1978), O’Brien continues the dialog about American soldiers like himself during the period of the “bad” Vietnam War in *The Things They Carried* (O’Brien, 1990). Using the format of 22 interconnected short stories, told from the point of view of the soldiers of the Alpha Company (in which the fictional character Tim O’Brien was a member), O’Brien truthfully depicts the anxiety and grief of young soldiers from being drafted and the emotional and psychological tolls of war during their service in Vietnam. Here, O’Brien describes the average age of the American soldiers (19 years old) and touches upon their issues either at the base or in the dangerous booby trap- and mine-laden field: boredom and meaningless death, abusive violence toward Vietnamese noncombatants, drug use, in-fighting, thefts within barracks, grief, rage, self mutilation, mutilation of enemy corpses, and senseless animal or civilian killings. All these descriptions show the human potential for

² “Vietnamization” is a euphemism to mean “let the ARVN do all the fighting themselves,” which was practically what Ng ô Đình Diệm insisted in the first place.

³ Unlike in other wars, the one-year service tour in the Vietnam War was designed to provide good morale, help ameliorate the harsh climate and living conditions in Vietnam to troops, and spread the burden of a long war to more draftees. But it created unintended adverse effects.

⁴ This is to create a large pool of commanding officers experienced in combat in the event of confrontation with the Soviets during the Cold War.

⁵ Combat unit cohesion required leadership experience and a sense of camaraderie not being provided by high turnover rate of new/inexperienced platoon leaders or company commanders.

committing atrocities, while being numbed by surrounding evil acts. Several of the actions and conduct of the soldiers in this novel could be deemed illegal based on the US military Law of War (Department of Army [DoA], 1987; Department of Defense [DoD], 2015). In this mind-captivating book, O'Brien employs many literary devices like imagery, allusion, and repetition to revisit several of his war themes already presented in the 1978 *Going After Cacciato*, and more.

A. *Meaningless Deaths in a Monotonous But Terror-filled Guerilla War*

In *The Things They Carried*, O'Brien has to recirculate, recollect, repeat, or revisit similar war scenes (some already mentioned in *Going After Cacciato*) over and over again because those are what form the miserable, inescapable lives of many American combat troops in Vietnam: "There it is, they'd say. Over and over – there it is, my friend, there it is – as if the repetition itself were an act of poise, a balance between crazy and almost crazy, knowing without going, there it is, which meant to be cool, let it ride because Oh yeah, man, you can't change what can't be changed, there it is, there is absolutely and positively and fucking well is" (O'Brien, 1990, p. 20). At the beginning of the Vietnam War, O'Brien's American soldiers know that "it was a war to stop the Communists, plain and simple" (O'Brien, 1990, p. 43). But by 1968, O'Brien and most American soldiers hate the war because it seems so wrong (O'Brien, 1990, p. 38). In the safer environment of their barracks, the bored soldiers fight maliciously among each other over trivial things such as barrack theft. Using humor, O'Brien describes one of their in-fighting events, "Lee Strunk and Dave Jensen got into a fistfight. It was about something stupid - a missing jackknife - but even so the fight was vicious" (O'Brien, 1990, p. 59). After breaking Jensen's nose, Strunk is so nervous about potential revenge by Jensen; he is even mortified of being "fragged" by Jensen. Finally Strunk breaks his own nose with a gun to ask Jensen if everything is square between them. Jensen cannot stop laughing because he does indeed steal "his [Strunk's] fucking jackknife." (O'Brien, 1990, p. 61). As for the character Tim O'Brien in the book, he hates to gut the medic Bobby Jorgenson, whose ignorance and inexperience may cause Tim to die of shock after Tim is shot in combat. Elsewhere in the war memoir literature, a frustrated American soldier empties a magazine into the head of his fellow comrade over a simple argument such as refusal to go on guard (Caputo, 2017).

In *The Things They Carried*, just like in *Going After Cacciato*, O'Brien's soldiers do not die from heroic actions, they are just, "Greased, they'd say. Offed, lit up, zapped while zipping... they had the lines mostly memorized, irony mixed with tragedy" (O'Brien, 1990, p. 19). Ted Lavender is shot in the head by a sniper; Curt Lemon strips a mine; Kiowa drowns in a village waste field. O'Brien is incorrect here to think that these American soldiers do not die from heroic actions. The fact that they are out in the field patrolling and getting exposed to a multitude of unseen dangers is already heroic; it does not matter if they die not being face-to-face with the enemy or not firing at the enemy. To O'Brien, the deadly Vietnam [guerrilla] War is like, "I remember the monotony, Digging foxholes. Slapping mosquitoes. The sun and the heat and the endless paddies. Even in the deep bush, where you could die any number of ways, the war was nakedly and aggressively boring. But it was a strange boredom. It was boredom with a twist, the kind of boredom that caused stomach disorders... Well, you'd think, this isn't so bad. And right then you'd hear gunfire behind you and your nuts would fly up into your throat and you'd be squealing pig squeals. That kind of boredom" (O'Brien, 1990, p. 33).

The Vietnam War is so bad that even a kind-hearted, level-headed platoon medic named Rat Kiley eventually succumbs to the stress of war, after his best friend Curt Lemon is blown up into pieces onto a tree by a rigged 105 mm artillery shell. After mercilessly torturing and killing a baby buffalo with his rifle and seeing many more body bags, Rat Kiley finally mutilates himself to get out of war, "'This whole war,' he said. 'You know what it is? Just one big banquet. Meat, man. You and me. Everybody. Meat for the bugs.' The next morning he shot himself. He took off his boots and socks, laid out his medical kit, doped himself up, and put a round through his foot" (O'Brien, 1990, p. 212). This event shows that to avoid dangerous combat or field patrol assignment - and potential unseen serious injury and death associated with it - many American soldiers are not afraid of intentionally injuring and disabling themselves. During the 1968 Mỹ Lai Massacre, the only American casualty was the case of one American soldier [PFC Carter] who shot himself in the foot, so that he would not have to participate in the killing of noncombatant Vietnamese villagers.

B. "Abusive Violence" toward Vietnamese Noncombatants

During their combat operation in the field, the familiar scene of destroying the entire village⁶ is repeated in *The Things They Carried*, "After the chopper took Lavender away, Lieutenant Jimmy Cross led his men into the village of Thận Khê They burned everything. They shot chicken and dogs, they trashed the village well, they called in artillery and watched the wreckage..." (O'Brien, 1990, p. 15). The civilian deaths and the painful agony of the few who survive the napalm or phosphorous bombings are depicted in the chapter about a girl dancing in the middle of the attack on her village. Perhaps war trauma had made her lose her mind, "There was no music. Most of the hamlet had burned down, including her house, which was now smoke, and the girl danced with her eyes half closed, her feet bare... Later we found her family in her house. They were dead and badly burned... When we dragged them out, the girl kept dancing" (O'Brien, 1990, p. 129). Nothing more needs to be said; these sad and "bad" war stories would go on and on.

But O'Brien as an author neglects to mention somewhere, either in his numerous author interviews or in his novels' footnotes, that many of the actions of the American troops depicted in his novels are illegal and can be prosecuted

⁶ This typical scene of destroying and wasting the entire village is described in *Going After Cacciato*.

according to the US Law of War. The 1984 (short version) Field Manual 27-2 entitled “Your Conduct in Combat Under the Law of War” published by the US Department of Army (DoA) (no effort was spent to locate an earlier version during the Vietnam War) clearly specifies how combat troops should treat noncombatant civilians. Page 5 of the FM-27 states, “Don’t attack noncombatants... Humane treatment of noncombatants may produce valuable information, gain active support for you, and deny support for the enemy. Mistreatment serves only the interests of the enemy” (DoA, 1984). Page 8 specifies that soldiers should not, “cause destruction beyond the requirement of your mission – Under the laws of war, you are not allowed to attack villages, towns, or cities... Don’t destroy an entire town or village to stop sniper fire from a single building. Use only that firepower necessary to neutralize the sniper. Limit destruction only to that necessary to accomplish your mission. Avoid unnecessary loss of life and damage to property. This law not only conserves your own supplies, but preserves facilities for future civilian use” (DoA, 1984). Page 15 emphasizes, “For instance, you might be extremely angry and upset because your unit has taken a lot of casualties from enemy booby traps or hit-and-run tactics. But you must never engage in reprisals or acts of revenge against any persons, enemy or civilian, whom you capture or detain in combat” (DoA, 1984). And the rest of the FM 27-2 explains, “Do not strengthen the enemy’s will to fight by needlessly ravaging private property and terrorizing civilians... It may be difficult to understand the rage and anguish of seeing personal property destroyed and personal rights abused. In this century, the American soldier has always fought on foreign soil. Therefore, our land and people have not been torn and devastated by the destruction of war. *Unnecessary destruction of property and inhumane treatment of civilians are violations of the law of war for which you can be prosecuted...* [emphasis added] (DoA, 1984, p. 20) Make sure civilians are protected from acts of violence, threats, and insults... (DoA, 1984, p. 21). Also, the Geneva Conventions forbid retaliating against civilians for the actions of enemy soldiers (DoA, 1984).

As seen above, O’Brien’s soldiers in *The Things They Carried* were doing all the opposite of their military laws specified in the US Law of War. It is noted that to uphold the law and order of war, Lieutenant Colonel John Paul Vann⁷ opposed the indiscriminate bombardment of villages and killing of noncombatants since 1961, because some rural areas could have been under the VC control and the villagers could not defy the VC rules (Sheehan, 1988). In South Vietnam, it was known that village or hamlet chiefs and educated, professional people were often assassinated by VC (Stur, 2017). Even Vietnamese children who were friendly to American forces were reported to be killed by VC and NVA (Laufer et al., 1984). Similar to General Douglas MacArthur’s war philosophy, Lieutenant Colonel John Paul Vann and his immediate supervisor, Colonel Daniel Boone Porter, thought of the soldiers as “champions of the weak⁸” because they had seen so many old villagers and children being killed by artillery or bombardment. Just like what is stated in FM-27, Vann believed that harming the poor peasants would drive “these people right into the arms of the Viet Cong” (Sheehan, 1988, p. 113). Vann was powerless to recognize that the air service, artillery, and every branch of the armed forces wanted “as big a role as possible” in the Vietnam War as early as 1961 - when President Kennedy committed the United States to the war; so the indiscriminate bombing/shelling and killing of innocent civilians continued throughout the duration of the Vietnam War.

In a study on the Vietnam Veteran’s war stress and trauma, researchers from Brooklyn College and Columbia University found that American soldiers who showed alienation and racial hostility toward the Vietnamese had acquired the ability to destroy villages and kill civilians at ease, “I started to lose my respect for life... you could be eating dinner and get up and walk out and wipe out 60...80...90 people and go right back and sit down and eat,” because “To me, they were all the same... South Vietnamese or Viet Cong, they were all the same... I mean killing a gook was nothing really. It didn’t bother me at all. I could have butchered them like nothing really...” (Laufer et al., 1984). These soldiers not only hated Vietnamese, they despised and looked down on the very people their government claimed to come to protect, “...I was very negative about the Vietnamese. I hated them... They were the sorriest race of people I ever run upon my life... The moral decay, the degeneracy of the little kids... I had a dislike for most of them... they were so far removed from any civilization...” (Laufer et al., 1984). As such, these American soldiers often cited “rage, fear, and/or anxiety... seeking some means of controlling their environment” (Laufer et al., 1984) to be the reasons for their abusive violence. But Lieutenant Colonel John Paul Vann thought differently, as Sheehan wrote, “John Vann had come to Vietnam to wage war on other men [VC, NVA], not on their mothers and fathers or on their wives and children. That these people were relatives of guerrillas, and undoubtedly did sympathize with the Viet Cong and helped them, did not strip them of their noncombatant status... Rather, they were people whom the Saigon Government ought to be seeking to win over by fair treatment so that they would talk their sons and husbands into deserting the Communist ranks” (Sheehan, 1988, p. 109). Being at war does not mean to be savage and lawless. As the most powerful and the most civilized democratic country in the world, the US needs to be exemplary both in war and in peace.

C. Drug Epidemic

In his 1971 paper entitled “The Collapse of the Armed Forces,” Colonel Robert D. Heinl, Jr. reports that like their parent society during the 1960s and early 1970s, American armed forces were struggling with the drug epidemic in an unprecedented proportion (Heinl, 1971). The first soldier who died in *The Things They Carried* is a sweet young fellow,

⁷ John Paul Vann was killed in 1972 in a helicopter accident and was awarded the Presidential Medal of Freedom, the second highest nation’s honor.

⁸ Based on General Douglas MacArthur’s quote: “The soldier, be he friend or foe, is charged with the protection of the weak and the unarmed, it is his very existence for being.”

Ted Lavender, who needs drugs to calm him down, “Until he was shot, Ted Lavender carried 6 to 7 ounces of premium dope, which for him was a necessity” (O’Brien, 1990, p. 3). O’Brien does not mention how many of the soldiers in the Alpha Company use drugs, but it appears that it is not a minority, “After wrapping him in his poncho, they sat and smoke Ted’s dope until the chopper came (O’Brien, 1990, p. 6, 19). According to Heinl, drug use in the military poses a whole “NEW” problem for the US armed forces during the Vietnam War. A Congressional committee found in April 1971 that about 12 to 15 percent of American troops in Vietnam were using high-grade heroin. In 1966, the Navy discharged a total of 170 drug offenders; by 1970, that number jumped to over 5,000. In addition to poor troop performance, Heinl states that the drug addiction problem causes many undesirable side effects to the US armed forces such as barrack theft and criminal offenses inside military and naval bases that once “had the safest streets in America.” After coming back from the war, these drug-addicted war veterans also have bigger problems of staying productive and integrating back to society. In many cases, they are denied employment because of the drug use stigma.

D. Senseless Mutilation of Animals and Enemy/Civilian Bodies and Corpses

In *The Things They Carried*, O’Brien for the first time describes the act of mutilation of live animals and human corpses as a common action by the American armed forces, when the average age in their platoon is nineteen or twenty. In the very first chapter, O’Brien writes, “Norman Bowker, otherwise a very gentle person, carried a thumb that had been presented to him as a gift by Mitchel Sanders. The thumb was dark brown, rubbery to the touch, and weighed 3 ounces at most. It had been cut from a VC corpse, a boy of fifteen or sixteen” (O’Brien, 1990, p. 12); “They kicked corpses. They cut off thumbs” (O’Brien, 1990, p. 19). In a subsequent chapter entitled “Sweetheart of the Sông Tr ả Bồng” (meaning “River of Carrying Tea”), O’Brien mentions a possibly true story (Coffey, 1990) about an American girl that he names Mary Anne Bell, a high school cheerleader from Ohio, who goes to the war zone to visit her boyfriend-to-be-married Mark Fossie. There, she is totally pulled into the excitement of nightly raids with the Green Berets stationing next door that she leaves her lover to pursue danger-seeking thrills. O’Brien explains that the next time she is seen by Mark, “At the girl’s throat was a necklace of human tongues. Elongated and narrow, like pieces of blackened leather, the tongues were threaded along a length of copper wire” (O’Brien, 1990, p. 106). The hootch she shared with the Special Armed Force soldiers was filled with some powerful stench of blood, excrement, decaying flesh, etc., “And bones. Stacks of bones - all kinds. To one side, propped up against a wall, stood a poster in neat black lettering: ASSEMBLE YOUR OWN GOOK!! FREE SAMPLE KIT!!” (O’Brien, 1990, p. 105). The senseless act of mutilating the corpses of the enemy that O’Brien describes in *The Things They Carried* has also been confirmed in recent Vietnam War literature (Kifner, 2003). For four days from October 19 to October 22, 2003, *The Blade*, a daily newspaper serving Toledo, Ohio published the [2004 Pulitzer-winning] results of their eight-month investigation, which documented the killing spree of numerous unarmed civilians, including rape and torture, and the practice of cutting off the ears and scalps of the Vietnamese corpses for souvenirs by the *Tiger Force* paratroops (Harris, 2003; Sallah, 2017; Sallah and Weiss, 2006).

The act of mutilating enemy corpses is a violation of both the Geneva Conventions and US military Law of War. The 1949 Geneva Convention IV, Article 16, second paragraph states, “As far as military considerations allow, each Party to the conflict shall facilitate the steps taken... to protect [the killed] against... ill treatment” (International Committee of the Red Cross [ICRC], 2018). On page 430 of the comprehensive 1204-page “Department of Defense Law of War Manual” published in 2015, Section 7.7.1.1 (No Disrespectful or Degrading Treatment of the Dead) specifies, “Enemy military dead must be protected from disrespectful or degrading acts. For example mutilation or cannibalism of dead bodies is prohibited” (DoD, 2015). Footnote No. 132 on Page 431 of this Law of War Manual addresses the past Vietnam War situation as follows, “Reports of the mutilation of bodies, particularly cutting the ears off dead enemy soldiers, also circulated. One of such incident was filmed and shown on the CBS Evening News in 1967... The disciplinary or judicial action taken in these incidents is proof that such conduct was not sanctioned by the command in Vietnam. In October 1967, General Westmoreland, United States Commander in Vietnam, described the practice of cutting ears and fingers off the dead as ‘subhuman’ and ‘contrary to all policy and below the minimum standards of human decency’” (DoD, 2015). Furthermore, the subhuman act of mutilating the dead corpses has serious religious violations. It is because virtually all religions, including Christianity, have “reverence” for the dead. Because of the belief of resurrection, respect for the dead has been a core teaching within Catholicism and Christianity (Sacirbey, 2012). It is ironic that some American soldiers embraced the “mere gook rule” that considered Vietnamese people to be “subhuman” to make it easier for them to kill, whereas those soldiers who practiced the act of mutilating dead Vietnamese corpses were in turn called by General Westmoreland, the commander of the US Military Assistance Command in Vietnam (MACV) as engaging in “subhuman” act.

Another disturbing issue raised by O’Brien in *The Things They Carried* is the senseless mutilation of live animals by American troops. One incidence is based on O’Brien’s actual witnessed account of the savage killing of a water buffalo (Gross, 2010). After Curt Lemon, Rat Kiley’s best friend is killed by a rigged 105 mm artillery shell, Kiley takes his rage and pain out on a poor baby water buffalo, “He stepped back and shot it through the right front knee... It went down hard, then got up again, and Rat took careful aim and shot off an ear. He shot it in the hindquarters and in the little hump at its back. He shot it twice in the flanks. It wasn’t to kill; it was to hurt. He put the rifle muzzle up against the mouth and shot the mouth away. Nobody said much... He shot off the tail. He shot away chinks of meat below the ribs... Rat went automatic... Rat shot it in the nose... then he shot it in the throat... Somebody kicked the baby buffalo.

It was still alive, though just barely, just in the eyes... Kiowa and Mitchel Sanders picked up the baby buffalo... and dumped it in the village well... Mitchell Sanders took off his yo-yo. 'Well, that's Nam,' he said. 'Garden of Evil. Over here, man, every sin's real fresh and original'" (O'Brien, 1990, p. 75-76). So vivid, so lucid are these details, to show the cruel act and the complicit behavior of the American troops when they witness atrocities committed by their fellow soldiers. Another story related to the case of Azar using a Claymore antipersonnel mine to blow up an orphan baby puppy that Ted Lavender adopts and lovingly "feeding it from a plastic spoon and carrying it in his rucksack." In response to his platoon's opinion about his cruel action, Azar defends himself, "'What's everybody so upset about?' Azar said. 'I mean, Christ, I'm just a boy'" (O'Brien, 1990, p. 35). If a prank or horseplay from young boys is to blow up an innocent puppy with an explosive device, we would have a serious moral problem in our society. Perhaps O'Brien does not think that the true story of cruel mutilation of a baby water buffalo is about the evil of war, it is about the strong bond and buddy love between Curt Lemon and Rat Kiley. Still, when one is capable of senselessly mutilating and inflicting pain on an innocent animal, the next step of mutilating and killing human beings is not too far off, as justice professionals explain, "The Link between violence to people and violence to animals is well documented by research, both nationally and internationally" (Phillips, 2014).

E. *Rare Collaboration with Civilians*

Page 5 of the 1984 DoA Field Manual 27-2 states an observation that is proved to be correct in *The Things They Carried*, "Humane treatment of noncombatants may produce valuable information, gain active support for you, and deny support for the enemy" (DoA, 1984). In the chapter entitled *Spin*, O'Brien describes a touching collaboration effort between the American troops and a poor villager, "And like the time we enlisted an old poppa-san to guide us through the mine fields out of Batangan Peninsula. The old guy walked with a limp, slow and stooped over, but he knew where the safe spots were... Rat Kiley made up a rhyme that caught on... *Step out of line, hit a mine; follow the dink, you're in the pink*... in those five days on the Batangan Peninsula nobody got hurt. We all learned to love the old man... Jimmy Cross gave the old poppa-san a hug. Mitchell Sanders and Lee Strunk loaded him up with boxes of C rations. There were actually tears in the old guy's eyes. 'Follow dink,' he said to each of us, 'you go pink'" (O'Brien, 1990, p. 32). This old villager does not know the contemptuous meaning of "Dink" that the American troops call him, when he is helping them. He risks his own life to save the entire platoon, just because these young foreign soldiers are kind to him. A few boxes of C rations will not sustain him long enough. If the local VC or NVA catch him helping the Americans, he (and perhaps his entire family) can be tortured and executed (Laufer et al., 1984).

F. *Guilt and Looking at the Bright Side*

In *The Things They Carried*, the author O'Brien does not mention the remorse in the American troops when they commit atrocities in poor Vietnamese villages, except some subtle guilt that the character O'Brien in the book experiences after he throws a grenade that kills a young VC soldier, "His jaw was in his throat, his upper lip and teeth were gone, his one eye was shut, his other eye was a star-shaped hole" (O'Brien, 1990, p. 119). In fact, there is actually a picture of a dead Vietnamese man with a similar description "his jaw was in this throat" because he was shot into the face. He was an unarmed civilian killed by the Charlie Company soldiers during the Mỹ Lai Massacre (Lawrence, 2018). Unlike many American troops who killed unarmed civilians without remorse, the character O'Brien in the book recalls that he does not even hate the VC, "It was entirely automatic... I did not hate the young man; I did not see him as the enemy (O'Brien, 1990, p. 126)... It occurred to me that he was about to die. I wanted to warn him (O'Brien, 1990, p. 127)... For me, it was not a matter of live or die. I was in no real peril. Almost certainly the young man would have passed me by. Sometimes I forgive myself, other times I don't" (O'Brien, 1990, p. 128). Seeing that the young man he kills has clean finger nails and also wears a gold ring, the character O'Brien imagines that the young VC must be a math university student who is forced to join the VC at his home village (O'Brien, 1990, p. 122) and has been a soldier for just a single day (O'Brien, 1990, p. 123). This act of imagination puts a human touch to the victim and neutralizes the conflict in war.

More often in *The Things They Carried*, O'Brien describes the guilt in American troops when their fellow soldiers are killed. When the first platoon member Ted Lavender dies because of a sniper's attack, their leader Lieutenant Jimmy Cross puts the blame on himself for being distracted by his love interest for Martha, a young woman who does not return Jimmy's love and becomes a nun later. So, "On the morning after Ted Lavender died, First Lieutenant Jimmy Cross crouched at the bottom of his foxhole and burned Martha's letters. Then he burned the two photographs... Lavender was dead. You couldn't bury the blame" (O'Brien, 1990, p. 22). This sense of responsibility isn't just present at the commanding level. It is repeated when Norman Bowker cannot handle the horrid human slime and lets his friend Kiowa drown in the village waste field. At Norman's request, O'Brien writes, "Sometimes, like that night in the shit field, the difference between courage and cowardice was something small and stupid... when he got there Kiowa was almost completely under (O'Brien, 1990, p. 142)... The shit was in his nose and eyes. There were flares and mortar rounds, and the stink was everywhere-it was inside him, in his lungs-and he could no longer tolerate it... Not here, he thought. Not like this. He released Kiowa's boot and watched it slide away" (O'Brien, 1990, p. 143). Because he cannot save his friend, Norman lives with an immense guilt when he comes back from the war. He writes to O'Brien to ask the latter to write about Kiowa on his behalf and then commits suicide later in a gym (O'Brien, 1990, p. 149).

Deep friendship in the military also causes one to glorify his friend's sudden death to ameliorate the pain. Even in the most distressing moment when Curt Lemon is blasted by a mine, O'Brien uses the allusion of an angel going to heaven to describe that fateful moment, "They were just goofing. There was a noise, I suppose, which must've been the detonator, so I glanced behind me and watched Lemon step from the shade into bright sunlight... A handsome kid, really... and when he died it was almost beautiful, the way the sunlight came around him and lifted him and sucked him high into a tree full of moss and vines and white blossoms" (O'Brien, 1990, p. 67). In fact, Lemon is blown up into pieces, so that the character O'Brien and his fellow soldiers have to climb up the tree later to recover parts of Lemon's body.

V. CONCLUSIONS

Like it or not, O'Brien is a Vietnam War novelist because he adroitly paints the complete war picture in his military life and the life of other American soldiers during this somber part of the US history. By blending his Vietnam War experience with known facts about the life and morale of other American soldiers, perhaps O'Brien wants to re-appeal the national conscience about atrocities committed by American troops during the Vietnam War. In his novels, O'Brien uses diverse settings, vivid imaginary, and repetition to illustrate the American perspectives during this immoral and unpopular war. The issues raised by O'Brien in *The Things They Carried* include meaningless death of troops, abusive violence toward Vietnamese noncombatants, drug epidemic, senseless mutilation of animals and enemy/civilian bodies and corpses, etc. As some of these acts depict troop violation of the US Law of War and show low troop morale, they prove why the US, the biggest firepower in the world, was handily beaten by an impoverished and tiny third world nation. But to paint the entire Vietnam War picture the way O'Brien describes in *The Things They Carried* and to believe that all those 58,000 American soldier deaths are meaningless is a deep betrayal to those who sacrificed and to the conscientious American parents who spent a great part of their adult life to instill values in their children. To heal and to grow as a nation, we need a searchable database of personal stories of those soldiers who courageously helped South Vietnam and other countries in the world fight for their democracy and freedom – like Hugh Thompson, discussed in "Tim O'Brien's 'Bad' Vietnam War: *In the Lake of the Woods* and Its Historical Perspective" (Mahini et al., 2018, in press). And we need to start this effort NOW before all the Vietnam vet generation start losing their memory or leave this world behind. Perhaps when teaching O'Brien's war writing, all American teachers and professors need to assign another side project to their smart and curious students: Do some serious research to add more stories of true Vietnam War heroes or heroic stories to the national database, while being aware of military imposters and falsified medal citations, starting with: www.amervets.com; thewall-usa.com; www.vvmf.org/Wall-of-Faces; or www.homeofheroes.com/moh/states/1_states.html for databases of war heroes.

REFERENCES

- [1] Ackerman, E. (2017). Tim O'Brien on What We All Can Learn from Ken Burns' 'The Vietnam War.' The Daily Beast.com, September 24. <https://www.thedailybeast.com/tim-obrien-on-what-we-all-can-learn-from-ken-burns-the-vietnam-war> (accessed 30/3/2018).
- [2] Buchholz, B. (2012). The First Word: Tim O'Brien on life, literature, and peace. Home & Leisure, November 10. <https://www.austin360.com/lifestyles/the-first-word-tim-brien-life-literature-and-peace/3elcGePEV7s4nDxim2sEVK/> (accessed 30/3/2018).
- [3] Caputo, P. (2017). A Rumor of War. The Classic Vietnam Memoir. 40th Anniversary Edition. Picador, New York.
- [4] Coffey, M. (1990). Tim O'Brien: inventing a new form helps the author talk about war, memory and storytelling (PW Interviews). Publishers Weekly, 16 February.
- [5] Department of the Army (DoA). (1987). Your Conduct in Combat Under the Law of War. November 23, 1984. Field Manual (FM) 27-2. https://www.loc.gov/rr/frd/Military_Law/pdf/conduct-in-combat-1984.pdf (accessed 30/3/2018).
- [6] Department of Defense (DoD). (2015). Department of Defense Law of War Manual. Office of General Counsel. June. https://www.defense.gov/Portals/1/Documents/law_war_manual15.pdf (accessed 30/3/2018).
- [7] DePue, M. (2006). Vietnam War: The Individual Rotation Policy. Originally published in the December 2006 Issue of Vietnam Magazine. <http://www.historynet.com/vietnam-war-the-individual-rotation-policy.htm> (accessed 8/06/2018).
- [8] Ellingwood, S. (2017). Readers Weighed in on the Best Books About the Vietnam War. The New York Times. September 15. <https://www.nytimes.com/2017/09/15/books/20-must-read-books-on-the-vietnam-war.html> (accessed 1/4/2018).
- [9] Gross, T. (2010). Author Interviews "Things They Carried Back" from Vietnam. May 31. <https://www.npr.org/templates/transcript/transcript.php?storyId=127133594> (accessed 31/3/2018).
- [10] Harris, P. (2013). Vietnam killing spree revelations shock US. The Guardian, October 26. <https://www.theguardian.com/media/2003/oct/26/pressandpublishing.usnews> (accessed 30/3/2018).
- [11] Heberle, M. A. (2001). A Trauma Artist - Tim O'Brien and the Fiction of VIETNAM. University of Iowa Press. Iowa City.
- [12] Heintz, Jr., Col. Robert D. (1971), "The Collapse of the Armed Forces." Armed Forces Journal, 7 June. <https://msuweb.montclair.edu/~furr/Vietnam/heintz.html> (accessed 30/3/2018).
- [13] Hicks, P. (2005). A Conversation with Tim O'Brien. Indiana Review: 27 (2), pp. 85-95.
- [14] Hochgesang, J., T. Lawyer, and T. Stevenson. (1999). The Psychological Effects of the Vietnam War. Ethics of Development in a Global Environment (EDGE). https://web.stanford.edu/class/e297c/war_peace/media/hpsych.html (accessed 21/3/2018).
- [15] International Committee of the Red Cross (ICRC). (2018). Practice Relating to Rule 113. Treatment of the Dead. Section A. Respect for the Dead. https://ihl-databases.icrc.org/customary-ihl/eng/docs/v2_rul_rule113 (accessed 22/4/2018).

- [16] Kent, A. (2015). The Most Expensive Wars in U.S. History. May 21. <https://247wallst.com/special-report/2015/05/21/the-most-expensive-wars-in-u-s-history/> (accessed 4/4/2018).
- [17] Kifner, J. (2003). Report of Brutal Vietnam Campaign Stirs Memories. The New York Times, December 28. <https://www.nytimes.com/2003/12/28/us/report-on-brutal-vietnam-campaign-stirs-memories.html> (accessed 4/4/2018).
- [18] Laufer, R. S., M.S. Gallops, and E. Frey-Wouters. (1984). War Stress and Trauma: The Vietnam Veteran Experience. *Journal of Health and Social Behavior*: 25 (1), pp. 65-85.
- [19] Lawrence, Q. (2018). 50 Years On, My Lai Massacre Remains A Gaping Wound. National Public Radio (NPR). March 16. <https://www.npr.org/2018/03/16/594364462/my-lai-massacre-of-1968-continues-to-resonate-in-america> (accessed 4/4/2018).
- [20] Mahini, R. N-T., E. Barth, and J. Morrow. (2018). Tim O'Brien's 'Bad' Vietnam War: In the Lake of the Woods and Its Historical Perspective. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, Volume 8, Issue 12, December (in press).
- [21] O'Brien, T. (1978). *Going After Cacciato*. Broadway Book, Random House, Inc. New York.
- [22] O'Brien, T. (1990). *The Things They Carried*. Houghton Mifflin Harcourt Publishing Company. New York.
- [23] O'Brien, T. (1994). The Vietnam in Me. The New York Times, 2 October. <https://archive.nytimes.com/www.nytimes.com/books/98/09/20/specials/obrien-vietnam.html> (accessed 30/3/2018).
- [24] Phillips, A. (2014). Understanding the Link between Violence to Animals and People. A Guidebook for Criminal Justice Professionals. National District Attorneys Association. <http://nationallinkcoalition.org/wp-content/uploads/2014/06/Allies-Link-Monograph-2014.pdf> (accessed 30/3/2018).
- [25] Public Broadcasting Service (PBS). (2018). A Brief History. Battlefield Vietnam. <http://www.pbs.org/battlefieldvietnam/history/index.html> (accessed 1/4/2018).
- [26] Richburg, K. B. (1988). 20 Years After Hue, Vietnamese Admit 'Mistakes.' Washington Post, February 3. https://www.washingtonpost.com/archive/politics/1988/02/03/20-years-after-hue-vietnamese-admit-mistakes/263c2b5b-2942-46d7-8d17-17fe35682f83/?utm_term=.9f00745e66ac (accessed 4/4/2018).
- [27] Sallah, M. (2017). The Tiger Force Atrocities. Opinion, The New York Times, September 26. <https://www.nytimes.com/2017/09/26/opinion/vietnam-tiger-force-atrocities.html> (accessed 4/4/2018).
- [28] Sallah, M. and M. Weiss, (2006). *Tiger Force: A True Story of Men and War*. Tie Warren Book Group, New York.
- [29] Sacirbey, O. (2012). Desecration of the dead defies religious teachings. January 24. Web. Accessed April 1, 2018. <https://www.christiancentury.org/article/2012-01/bodily-desecration-disturbing-why> (accessed 4/4/2018).
- [30] Sheehan, N. (1988). *A Bright Shining Lie*. John Paul Vann and America in Vietnam. Random House, Inc., New York.
- [31] Stur, H. (2017). The Viet Cong Committed Atrocities, Too. Opinion. The New York Times. December 19. <https://www.nytimes.com/2017/12/19/opinion/vietcong-generals-atrocities.html> (accessed 8/06/2018).
- [32] The Regents of the University of California (TRUC). (2018). Cold War American Lesson #4: The Vietnam War, 2013, pp. 22-23. <http://chssp.ucdavis.edu/cwa4-vietnam.pdf/view> (accessed 30/3/2018).
- [33] The Pentagon Papers. (1965). Gravel Edition, Volume 3, pp. 694-702. Draft Memorandum from McNaughton to Robert McNamara, "Proposed Course of Action re: Vietnam" (draft), 24 March. <https://www.mtholyoke.edu/acad/intrel/pentagon3/doc253.htm> (accessed 30/3/2018).



Noor (meaning Light) **Mahini** (full name Ramtin Noor-Tehrani Mahini) was born in October 2001 in Berkeley, CA and is currently a senior at Acalanes High School in Lafayette, CA, USA. This article was written during his junior year. Noor has been a high-achieving student since middle school, excelling in computers, math, and science. He applies deep critical thinking in most things he does, either in designing computer science projects or in writing English essays. Raised by first-generation immigrant parents (Ramtin T. and Xuanna, who received PhD/engineering and MPH/toxicology, respectively, from University of California, Berkeley), Noor's life purpose is to develop a morally respectable character and to become a responsible, devoted citizen to his people/his country and an advocate for human rights.

Noor is a third-degree black belt in Tae Kwon Do and enjoys swimming, tennis, and golf. He is currently doing long-term volunteer work at Youth Tennis Advantage (YTA) to assist children with academics and tennis. Although he loves piano, he is better in viola as he has been playing viola in school orchestras for 5+ years. Regardless of what his career aspiration may be, his life goal is to keep designing useful products and help make this world a better place for all.



Erin Barth received her Bachelor's and Master's degrees as well as her teaching credential from University of California, Davis, USA.

She is currently an English teacher at Acalanes High School in Lafayette, CA. She lives with her husband Ben, daughter Madeline, and their two Boxers Fletcher and Calvin.

Mrs. Barth enjoys going the extra mile for her students. She is always willing to spend time after school in order to help her students improve their writing skills and develop their appreciation for literature.



Jed Morrow, being a son of an American WWII veteran, has natural curiosity, special interest, and in-depth knowledge about wars. He lives with his family in the San Francisco Bay Area.

He is currently an AP US History teacher at Acalanes High School in Lafayette, CA. He always challenges his students' critical thinking capability by enthusiastically sharing rare primary source documents with them.

In addition to academic teaching, Mr. Morrow stays physically active by being a great sport coach admired by his students, especially track and field and cross country.

Discussion on the Effective Application of Information Technology in Informatization EFL Teaching*

Zhaoxi Wei

Beijing Information Technology College, Beijing, China

Abstract—The Integration of information technology and EFL teaching has become inevitable. Based on the development of information technology and the improvement of Informatization Teaching Environment, the cognition of informatization teaching competency and the exploration of informatization EFL teaching mode keep pace with the times. This paper discusses the effective application of information technology in informatization EFL teaching from perspectives of times' interpretation of informatization EFL teaching, informatization teaching competency and practice of informatization EFL teaching mode. Through empirical research on informatization EFL teaching mode, this paper proposes that the effectiveness of informatization EFL teaching mode depends on more attention to students' individual differences in the implementation of the information-based teaching mode as well as to the construction of diversified interactive platforms under the informatization EFL teaching mode. And the more flexibly the information technology is applied to EFL teaching, the more effectively the informatization EFL teaching mode makes up for the students' individual differences in learning, learners of autonomous learning can engage themselves in interactive teaching consciously and actively to cultivate their autonomous learning ability and make satisfactory achievements.

Index Terms— information technology, EFL teaching, informatization teaching competency, informatization teaching mode

I. INTRODUCTION

Information technology is the most popular topic in the 21st century. It is often praised as a synonym for "digital age", "Internet age" and "knowledge society". Combination of information technology and EFL teaching makes them a must in applying and researching information technology into EFL teaching, to understand the relevant concepts with times, to interpret the informatization teaching competence as well as the effect of practice of blended teaching mode.

II. ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

A. *The Interpretation of Application of Information Technology in EFL Teaching from the Perspective of the Times*

Firstly, the application of information technology in EFL teaching creates an information environment for EFL teaching. The information environment is supported by network technology. Specific means based on informatization infrastructure construction show such features of digital learning environment as the information display multimedia, intelligent information processing, information transmission networking and learning environment virtualization. The informatization teaching environment includes the hardware environment of building and using modern education media, such as simulation software, network courses and teaching platforms. It also includes the creation and use of soft environment such as learning atmosphere, situational cognition environment, personnel informatization capacity and literacy. Information-based teaching environment refers to the use of modern education media for teaching activities between teachers and students, which are teaching activities between teachers and students based on information technology and are the two-way mutual activity between teacher's teaching and students' learning (Jiang, 2015). Informationization refers to EFL teaching carried out during the process of comprehensive and in-depth use of computer, through multimedia and it regards network technology as the core of the modern information technology to optimize the process of EFL teaching, to improve EFL teaching quality and effect, to reform the traditional teaching concept and methods. Thus, Informationization is the process of organic integration of foreign language courses with information technology. Since the core of information technology is network, the core features of network are interconnection and information sharing, then EFL teaching under the information environment is mainly the interactive teaching activities assisted by information in the network environment.

"Learning to learn" has become the ultimate goal of people's development on the premise that the education concept of learner-centered is deeply rooted in people's minds. The practice of information technology in EFL teaching has also

* This paper is the research-oriented achievement of established projects of Beijing Education and Teaching Reform in 2015 (Project No.2015-MS217); the phased achievement of established BITC project (Project No.XY-YN-201618).

experienced a trend from computer-aided teaching, network autonomous learning, mobile language learning to ubiquitous learning. Learning approach has developed from digital learning, mobile learning, ubiquitous learning, individualized learning to lifelong learning. The development of the network and the innovation and popularization of mobile terminal product benefit the foreign language learners to use such mobile terminals as smartphones, tablets and other electronic products anytime and anywhere to do searching for language learning through the wireless Internet. With the development and improvement of WiFi and micro-terminals, the development and promotion of micro-courses, micro-video, micro-courseware and MOOC, ubiquitous learning is becoming a new trend in the development of digital learning. Among them, there is no lack of individualized autonomous learning activities in foreign language carried out by learners using different terminals, based on online teaching platforms, learning websites and teaching software, etc. Informatization of EFL teaching practice, therefore, is to keep pace with the Times and the occasion, deeply integrating the information technology with EFL teaching, fully displaying the effect of information technology on EFL teaching, promoting the network as the foundation and interactive mechanism to establish the meaning framework under the network environment to cultivate students' learning autonomy, creativity and competency of learning to learn.

Networked learning environment, digital learning resources and diversified learning styles have greatly changed the teaching mode from a piece of chalk, a textbook and a blackboard in the traditional way, to the teaching mode under the information technology support from the early multimedia EFL teaching mode, the network teaching mode, the blended teaching model under the information technology support. Mainly based on the teaching approaches, such as the problems -probing approach, the network-inquiring approach, the group-collaborating approach, the task -based approach and so on, EFL teaching is organized and conducted through the association of being online and being offline, the combination of being inside and being outside the classroom and the blend of teachers' face-to-face teaching and learners' autonomous learning. As the development and application of information technology, such as Internet, the Internet of things, big data, cloud computing, wearable smart devices, the following technical service forms appear: foreign language courses for class/micro teaching platform, the smart learning platform, the network learning community, smart classroom, which contributes to the construction of the modes of information classroom teaching in the Internet + era. Due to the wide application of information technology, the classroom teaching approach and learning approach of foreign language are changing considerably: individualized teaching mode is created in accordance with the actual requirement of students, which promotes the development and construction of the course and realizes the organic integration of the course construction with the smart technology, the integration among the teaching, the learning, the media and resources. Thus, new ecological combination of EFL teaching is formed, that is, normalized online classroom, ubiquitous autonomous learning, and intelligent organization management.

It can be said that EFL teaching mode supported by information technology has gradually benefited teachers, ideally, to normalize the language learning assisted by information technology. Secondly, with the aid of the teaching platform and the application of APP in smart phone, the functions of teaching assistant and learning aid are under improvement, and the optimization of teaching for teachers are under go, such as the implementation of just-in-time teaching feedback, the optimization of teaching design, the variation of teaching interactive tasks, the diversification of teaching evaluation as well as the transformation of network resources into teaching resources, etc., to realize the integration among teaching, learning and assessment, the visualization and digitization.

B. The Interpretation of Application of Information Technology in EFL Teaching from the Perspective of Informatization Teaching Competency

The above analysis interprets the timeliness and inevitability of the development of EFL teaching under the support of information technology. In the process of EFL teaching informatization, information technology is only an auxiliary teaching approach, not a teaching objective. Secondly, the informationization teaching and traditional classroom teaching are quite different in terms of teaching organization and management, and information technology does not apply to the whole process of EFL teaching, informationization teaching and classroom teaching are still compatible with and complementary to each other (Wang, 2016). In foreign language teaching, information technology and information equipment can never completely replace the role of teachers. However, in the process of information technology application to the teaching, the existence of the following misunderstandings need to re-examine the informationization teaching competency to deepen the understanding of the information technology application in EFL teaching:

1) Application objective of information technology in EFL teaching. The misunderstanding is: the more complex the information technology, the higher the cost, the better. Information technology is to beautify education function. In order to clarify such misunderstanding, the idea of combining the information technology with the EFL teaching should be rooted in our minds, to promote the information technology into the classroom, into the students learning process. The application of information technology to the teaching aims to be "practical, enough, appropriate". As Jiang (2015) states: "though the impact of modern information technology on the education is limited, the effect of the talent training is meaningful. In the information environment, the integration of information technology into the classroom teaching optimize optimizes the teaching process, enhances students' learning initiative, autonomy and enthusiasm and improves the learning efficiency." (p.31).

2) Application value of information technology in EFL teaching. The misunderstandings are: in multimedia and online classes, too much attention to and reliance on information technology, too much emphasis on man-machine

interaction, too little attention to the emotional cultivation of students, lacking novelty in the teaching content, the abuse of media, the display of equipment in the teaching process, overloaded Information to distract students and lack of teachers' guidance, monitoring and effective evaluation in students' self-learning (Wang, 2016). In view of the above value misunderstanding, it is necessary to establish the idea that "teachers are the key to improve the quality of English teaching in EFL environment." (Zhou, 2010, p.18). Therefore, for foreign language teachers under the environment of informatization, information technology is effective to conduct interactive teaching. And to make the best use of it and to make the appropriate use of it are the premise of effective interactive teaching, which requires teachers to change their roles under the environment of informatization. The roles change from the authority of the classroom teaching to the designer and the organizer of individualized learning activities; from the feeder cramming teaching materials into students' minds to the guidance of information resources and the maker of high-quality teaching resources; from the top commander of classroom teaching to the assistant to students' learning, the creator of independent learning situations and the cultivator of students' independent learning competency.

3) Application effect of information technology in EFL. Information technology application in EFL teaching can't focus too much on the construction of hardware and software resources and the operation of technology. The focus should be transferred to the three effects, namely, the effect of information technology application to the inside and outside of the classroom, the learners' learning effect after use and the teaching effect using technology.

4) Misunderstanding of teaching competency in the application of information technology to EFL teaching. It is wrong to simply think that the informatization teaching competency is the multimedia teaching, which uses WORD, PPT and other office software to complete the production and demonstration of teaching courseware, as well as conducts online answering questions for students on BBS etc. In fact, the informatization teaching competency is the application ability of information technology to EFL teaching. In addition to the basic computer application skills, multimedia courseware production skills, the use of electronic teaching equipment in foreign language teaching, etc., to launch the course construction of the network, to use the network teaching platform system, to integrate teaching resources, to reasonably choose the forms of presenting teaching resources, to conduct micro class design and production, to practice flipped- classroom, and so on, are the need to have a certain information-based teaching comprehensive competency. The information-based teaching comprehensive competency, to be specific, are: information technology teaching ability, the informationization teaching design ability, the informationization teaching resources development ability, information assessment and teaching interaction ability, and information teaching cooperation ability (Li, 2013, p.45).

C. The Interpretation of Application of Information Technology in EFL Teaching from the Perspective of Practice of Informatization EFL Teaching Mode –BITC as the Case

1) Interpretation of Feasibility of the Informatization Teaching Mode of Public English in Beijing Information Technology College.

Beijing Information Technology College (BITC) has the following feasibility to carry out the informatization teaching of public English:

a. Informatization set-up of teaching environment: campus network is fully covered with Wi-Fi and with stable operation; online course learning system is established for all courses; network learning environment provides all-round services for students' independent learning as well as teachers' sharing teaching.

b. Informatization technology training for and practice of teaching staff: thanks to Teacher Development Center, informatization instructional design training as well as hardware and software application training provide powerful support for cultivating teachers' information technology teaching consciousness and ability. At the same time, being a teaching task, full-time teachers of the college actively participate in the construction of the ubiquitous learning platform of relevant courses, the construction and improvement of online courses, and the development of online teaching of courses. Take foreign language teachers as example, a total of 186 course projects involves a platform for online courses, online standard library, online teaching micro-courses, etc. The upload resources, the course online platform and micro-courses facilitate the student to study anytime and anywhere and the teacher to get feedback and conduct evaluation timely.

c. Informatization embodiment in micro-course design and production competition as well as of informatization class teaching competition: 26 works of foreign language teachers were awarded in the teaching competition of design and production of micro-courses. In addition, 12 teachers of Public English participated in the informatization class teaching competition with good awards. At the same time, national micro-course teaching competition of colleges and universities, Beijing higher vocational colleges teaching design competition and college informatization class teaching design competition provide foreign teachers with growing-up platform and developing opportunities in informatization teaching, informatization design and information technology application.

d. Informatization practice of innovative teaching mode based on network platform and mobile terminal. Under the informatization environment, foreign language teachers conduct the operation of flipped classroom, in which they make full use of the MOSOTEACH App to develop the interactive teaching mode with instant feedback inside and outside the classroom and design the teaching activities in the informatization teaching environment. In addition, the department of foreign languages cooperated with Technology Application Institute to develop the EFL training platform that has been put in practice in 2015 and in 2016, which fully embodies the interaction between teachers' guidance, resources for

learning and students' autonomy learning under the network environment, between knowledge presentation and innate skill acquisition. It can be said that information technology does guarantee EFL teaching the teacher with informatization teaching competency, the strong technical support, the convenient platform and flexible means.

2) Practice of Informatization EFL Teaching Mode under Information-based Environment

EFL teaching informatization is the embodiment of the application of information technology in EFL teaching, which runs through 20- year development and is divided into three categories: one is "Internet + Network Course Platform", mainly meeting the needs of network remote education and network learning; the second is "Internet + Video Teaching + Teacher-Student Interaction", which focuses on the sharing of high-quality teaching resources and the needs of online learning; the third is "Internet + blackboard + mobile terminals" (Tao, 2017). Among them, the first requires the school to make a big effort to build or purchase the online course platform, which is large in scale, in strength and in investment for school but not applicable for the individual teacher. The second requires teachers to optimize teaching activities and promote design and the third is portable and flexible for its mobile terminal. If teachers use mobile terminals to carry out interaction, the control and the rhythm in the process of teachers' classroom teaching will be enhanced to stimulate students' classroom presence and engagement, to realize the collection of teaching behavior and the feedback of students' learning condition, which will be beneficial to the formative assessment. As shown in Fig. 1

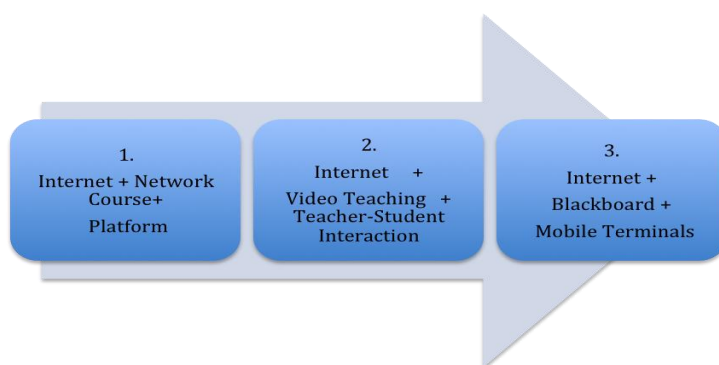


Figure 1 3 Categories of Informationization EFL Teaching

Beijing Information Technology College, since 2012, has been implementing information teaching and constructing the network environment. Based on the "Internet + + network course platform", the college adopts network teaching platform to train students' learning autonomy, such as the multimedia classroom, the network classroom, the autonomous learning platform and Longman Interaction English software etc.. The following teaching mode is 3-phrase mode, that is, "pre-class platform autonomy + in-class diagnosis teaching + after-class platform autonomy". For Listening and Speaking Unit, "2+2+..." Mode is available (4 consecutive hours for 2 independent hours before class, 2 hours of classroom teaching. The rest of the exercises and practice is required to be completed off the class before the deadline. For Reading and Writing Unit is "2+..." Mode (2 hour for face-to-face classroom teaching discussion, the rest for students' autonomous learning before the set time). The 3-phrase Mode teaching is available in multimedia classroom, computer room and classroom.

Internet autonomous learning platform offers students an open, diversified mode of autonomous learning, indulging students in an independent and autonomous environment to conduct language practice, to acquire learning skills, to select the appropriate materials, to evaluate the learning performance for themselves, which bring students too much autonomy to decide on, much motivation to study and satisfaction to enjoy. By comparison, Ismart intelligent interactive learning platform is with more funny and diverse evaluation methods, Longman interactive software is with more diversified and various studying materials. In addition, more updated data and feedback of learning process and behavior from platforms stimulate students' potential to keep on studying and on challenging. However, tedious technical operation of man- machine dialogue for hours is prone to burnout and loss of interest, for the lack of emotional face-to-face communication, of active learning atmosphere, of mutual support of learning companions. Therefore, based on the above features of autonomous learning mode, the informatization teaching mode is complemented by promoting the interaction between the teachers and students, integrating features of the second and the third category. And the reformed teaching mode, "Internet + Mobile + Interaction Design" focuses on "interaction" by adopting the commonly- used mobile terminal learning APP, as shown in Fig. 2:

Learning Apps	1. MOSOTEACH App
	2. ISMART Platform App
	3. A+ Classroom App
	4. Rain Classroom App
	5. Micro Assistant App
	6. Examcoo App
	7. Wenjuan App
	8. Pigai App

Figure 2 Learning APPs used at Mobile Terminal

Informatization teaching with App is a lightweight solution of the intelligent teaching as well as a new interactive teaching tool, transferring the experience-driven teacher to data-driven teacher and promoting the development of teacher-student interaction mode in EFL teaching with the support of information technology:

a. To create a class, to make votes and to do online tests are the teacher-student interaction with APP. Especially online test database realizes the combination of examination and teaching at any time to track learning behaviors and the separation of teaching and examination to expand learning scope.

b. To manage teaching intelligently. Attendance, grouping and interaction activities are conducted with APP, quiet pressing button but busy engagement and active participation in interaction enables teachers to keep elegance in teaching organization, the elegance of control and of rhythm in teaching management.

c. To stimulate students' interest and participation in diversified interactive activities. Diverse ways of participation (voice, picture, video, text message) have confirmed the students' sense of existence, their presence and their engagement in interaction.

d. To make effective teaching with high efficiency. The learning process and the learning behavior are shown in the form of big data, which makes the teaching more specific and more focused as well as the teachers more concentrated on the individual problems to solve, the concrete questions to answer and the difficulties to get through.

e. To make learning persistence and learning autonomy possible. Courseware, resources, teachers, activities are all parts of teaching and learning interaction, no matter being online or offline, being inside or outside of the classroom. Students' learning interest and learning enthusiasm are turned into learning motivation with the aid of APP, and turns studying into part of life unconsciously.

So to speak, information-based EFL teaching offers teachers a variety of teaching practice, which in turn brings students different experience, feelings and reaction. Thus, informatization teaching enhances variety of interaction, diversity of teaching mode and autonomy of learning.

3) Conclusions of Empirical Research on the Informatization EFL Teaching Mode of Beijing Information Technology College

After two years of study on information-based teaching mode practice, it is found that interactive teaching can improve the learning effect. In the research, paired T test is used to detect whether there was a significant difference between the pre-test and the post-test (Practical English Test for Colleges, that is, B-level in this paper) of the sampled class after the optimized information-based teaching mode. Correlation analysis is used to detect correlation between the results of autonomous learning outcomes, academic achievement and the B-level score.

a. Paired samples test between pre-test and post-test and its results

The sample classes in the study are class 1624071 and class 1625021. Paired samples tests for class 1624071 and class 1625021 are between pretest and posttest (B test), and the results are as follows: Table 1 shows that the pretest of class 1624071 is significantly different from its posttest(Btest) 1624071($t = -3.978$, $df = 24$, $p < 0.05$), the score of pre-test is significantly lower than that of post-test ($MD = -15.520$); Table 2 shows that the pretest of Class 1625021 is significantly different from its post-test ($t = -3.978896$, $df = 26$, $p < 0.05$), the score of pre-test is significantly lower than that of post-test ($MD = -18.556$).

TABLE 1
RESULT OF PAIRED SAMPLES TEST BETWEEN PRE-TEST AND BTEST (POST-TEST) OF CLASS 1624071

Paired Samples Test (1624071)								
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		t	df	Sig.(2-tailed)
				Lower	Upper			
Pair1 pretest-Btest	-15.520	19.507	3.901	-23.572	-7.468	-3.978	24	.001

TABLE 2
RESULT OF PAIRED SAMPLES TEST BETWEEN PRE-TEST AND BTEST (POST-TEST) OF CLASS 1625021

Paired Samples Test (1625021)								
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		t	df	Sig.(2-tailed)
				Lower	Upper			
Pair1 pretest-Btest	-18.5556	24.769	4.7625	-28.3451	-8.7660	-3.896	26	.001

The paired samples test results above indicate that the informatization interactive EFL teaching mode can indeed improve the teaching effect. Among them, the average post-test (B-level) score of the sampled class 1624071 increases by 78.5% compared with its pretest score, and its passing rate of B-level examination increases from 20% to 60%. The passing rate of sample class 1625021 reaches 80.77%, which increases by 30.43% compared with its pretest score. Under the informatization teaching mode, students have achieved success in learning and gained achievements in learning.

b. Relation Analysis of Sampled Class among Autonomous Learning Outcomes, Academic Performance and National

College English Examination (B-level) scores:

EXCEL summarizes autonomous learning achievement, academic achievement and the National College English Examination (B-level) score of the sampled class, revealing the correlation among autonomous learning outcomes of the interaction feedback, semester scores (academic achievement) and scores of B-level. As shown in Figure 3 and Figure 4, the variation trends of three curves of the sampled class remains the same, which illustrates: under the informatization interactive teaching mode, the autonomous learning process which is the formative performance is consistent with the score of academic achievement that is summative performance, which means a positive correlation between them. With the aid of interaction under the information-based teaching mode, the students generally value the accumulation of interaction experience or daily interaction outcomes, and they show great interest in engaging in a variety of interactive activities for selecting and processing resources, for giving feedback to interaction, for participating in related activities and then their autonomous learning outcomes are shown in data for teachers to observe students' daily learning performance. And the curve representing process of learning (autonomous learning outcomes) fluctuates in consistent with that of academic performance, showing autonomous learning achievement at ordinary times, namely the procedural learning, has positive effect on the academic performance. Therefore, daily autonomous learning through the interactive activities will cause the accumulation of formative outcomes, which exerts the positive and active effect on the summative academic performance and satisfactory B-level score. (in the Fig.3 and Fig. 4, 学期学业成绩= academic summative performance;经验值= autonomous formative learning outcomes)

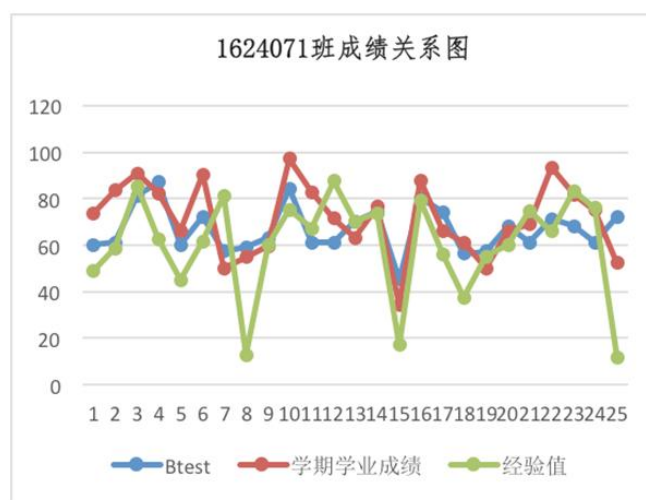


Figure 3 Relation Analysis of Class 1624071

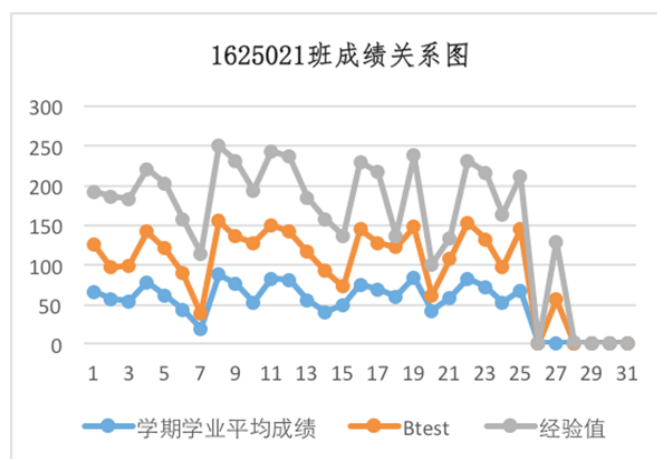


Figure 4 Relation Analysis of Class 1625021

c. Self-Adaptive Adjustment of Students' Autonomous Learning under the Informatization EFL Teaching Mode:

In the study, it was found that due to individual cognitive differences, learners have differences in adaptive learning rhythm under the network environment and differences in participation achievements and autonomous performance. But along with the implementation of informatization EFL teaching mode, students will gradually adjust their learning habits, which contributes to their autonomous learning performance and their substantial progress in autonomous learning outcomes. In addition, by re-setting the learning goal and adopting appropriate learning strategy, they can keep on learning aided by informatization. Therefore, under the informatization environment, the core of student-centered

idea is the embodiment for students to make adjustment autonomously, to take part in activities spontaneously, to make active feedback to learning, to make their choices on their own, letting learner learn anytime and anyplace.

Therefore, the empirical research on the informatization EFL teaching mode shows that:

(1) The autonomous learning effect is reflected not only on the improvement of academic performance, but also on learners' adaptive length of time and their adaptive speed during the informatization autonomous learning process. Therefore, we need to pay more attention to students' individual differences in the implementation of the information-based teaching mode, and to offer diversified interactive platforms under the informatization EFL teaching mode for students' to adjust, to adapt, to participate and to choose what are suitable for them, gradually cultivating the students' adaptability, independent learning ability and the ability of learning to learn, which shows the effectiveness of informatization EFL teaching mode (Wei, 2017).

(2) The more flexibly informatization aids EFL teaching, the more effectively informatization EFL teaching mode makes up for the students' individual differences in learning, the more autonomously learners participate in the interaction, the more consciously they engage themselves in learning, the better they make formative performance as well as summative achievement.

(3) Only if the student is as the center under the informatization EFL teaching mode, can we succeed in cultivate the student autonomous learning ability and make satisfactory teaching achievements.

III. CONCLUSION

The cognition of application of information technology in EFL teaching is developing with the times. With the development of information technology, it constantly enriches EFL teaching competency, optimizes the informatization EFL teaching mode, and promotes the interaction between and complements with teaching and learning under the environment of information technology. Therefore, the effective application of information technology in informatization EFL teaching depends on more attention to students' individual differences in the implementation of the information-based teaching mode as well as to the construction of diversified interactive platforms under the informatization EFL teaching mode. And the more flexibly the information technology is applied to EFL teaching, the more effectively the informatization EFL teaching mode makes up for the students' individual differences in learning, learners of autonomous learning can engage themselves in interactive teaching consciously and actively to cultivate their autonomous learning ability and make satisfactory achievements.

REFERENCES

- [1] Jiang Liping. (2015). Transforming Traditional Teaching with Modern Information Technology—Thoughts triggered by the Informatization National Vocational College Teaching Competition. *Industry and Information Technology Education*, 8, 26-31.
- [2] Li Tianlong. (2013). An Analysis on Components of Information-based Teaching Ability of University Teachers. *Contemporary Teacher Education*, 6, 44-47.
- [3] Tao Chun. (2017). Mobile Broadcast NOT a Feast of "Web Celebrity". *China Education Network*, 5, 17-19.
- [4] Wang Fengming. (2016). Research on Informatization Foreign Language Teaching in Colleges and Universities. *China Education Informatization*, 4, 40-44.
- [5] Wei Zhaoxi. (2017). Empirical Research on the Interactive Effectiveness of EFL Teaching under the Network Environment. *Science and Technology*, 20, 51-52.
- [6] Zhou Yan. (2010). Teachers, the Key to Improve English Teaching in Foreign Language Learning Environment. *Foreign Language Teaching and Research*, 4, 17-23.

Zhaoxi Wei was born in Shanxi, China in 1975. She received her M.A. degree in Cross-Culture Studies from Beijing International Studies University, China in 2006.

She is currently an associate professor in Beijing Information Technology College, Beijing, China. Her research interests include cross-culture studies, informatization English teaching and research.

Prof. Wei is a member of the National Association of Foreign Language Education of China Education Society.

Review on Domestic English Writing Research in Senior One¹

Nana Jing

Chongqing Normal University, Chongqing 401331, China

Yun Zhang

Chongqing No.7 High School, Chongqing 400030, China

Qiang Huang

Chongqing Qingmuguan Middle School, Chongqing 401334, China

Can Wang

Chongqing No.7 High School, Chongqing 400030, China

Abstract—this paper is a review study on previous domestic research concerning English writing in senior one. Through categorization and analysis of related studies from 1999-2018 on CNKI, the paper finds out that existing studies concerned with English writing in senior one still show the tendency of being a bit fragmented and there is still gap in more comprehensive and deep studies; on the other hand, studies carried out more focus on the descriptive aspects of English writing or application of a typical theory in certain students group. Taking into consideration previous research efforts, suggestions for future research are as follows. To begin with, more researchers at different levels should be involved in the study, especially strengthening the collaboration between researchers, college teachers and front-line English teachers in senior high school; besides, research should be more based on scientific ground, rather than purely on empirical experiences; in addition, a large sample based research in status quo should not be left out.

Index Terms—review, research, domestic English writing, senior one

I. INTRODUCTION

Writing is a reflection of students' comprehensive language skills, which requires the integration of students' observation, thinking, imagination, creativity, and expression and it is one of the most difficult part to teach and to learn. Xu (2009) points out that writing teaching is an important part of high school English teaching. It runs through the whole process of English teaching and is always accompanied by the teaching of linguistic knowledge such as vocabulary and grammar. National English Curriculum Standards for Senior High School² describes the English writing skills with the *can do* statement and quantifies the requirements that the eight-level goal should be completed in high school phase. Students are required to be able to write coherent and structured essays, be able to write according to stylistic norms, be fluent in expressions, be able to write abstracts, reports, notices, and official letters in English, and be able to explain personal point of view, comment on others' opinions in an appropriate style and so on. In the College Entrance Examination, English writing occupies a considerable proportion (25 points in the national test).

However, the truth is that with the rapid advancement of English teaching reform and the full implementation of new curriculum standards, students' listening and speaking abilities have been greatly improved, but the ability to read and write is still not that satisfactory. It is high time we made efforts in improving students' writing ability. Senior one marks the transitional stage from junior middle school to senior middle school, which is of vital students' importance. Therefore, teachers should pay attention to writing teaching from the beginning of the high school and make writing training throughout the entire period of high school English teaching. This paper, taking English writing as the focus, tries to make a review of how English writing research moves in senior one to illustrate how we are teaching English writing in senior one domestically.

II. RESEARCH PROCESS

A. Data Source

This paper focuses on English writing in senior one and the collected data are from published materials on website.

¹ Senior one in our paper refers to grade one in senior high school.

² <http://www.zxxk.com/soft/7274732.html>

To be more specific, we download all research papers from CNKI, including papers, M.A thesis and possibly doctoral dissertation.³ The two key words are senior one plus English writing.

B. Research Questions

Our review focus on answering the following two key questions:

- a. How does English writing in senior one proceed domestically? And what is the possible research trend?
- b. what should the future research orientations be?

III. ANALYSIS OF DATA

A. Overview

When the two key words senior one plus English writing are put in the search column on CNKI, we find that research concerned with English writing began from the year 1999; that is to say, more than 20 years have passed. Then, we sort out research papers yearly. Altogether, there are 79 papers. Through reading and preliminary analysis, we delete those which are not that closely related to the chosen topic, and finally lock 51 papers in all, with the distribution in each year is shown in table (1):

TABLE 1
GENERAL DISTRIBUTION OF RESEARCH PAPERS⁴

2018	2017	2016	2015	2014	2013	2012
1	5	7	7	5	4	7
2011	2010	2009	2008	2007	2006	1999-2005
4	4	2	0	3	1	1

Generally speaking, research in English writing in senior one is on an increase (with papers in 2008 expected to be on the rise). We can infer that more and more concern has been directed toward the given topic, which goes in line with the emphasis on English teaching at home. We sort out all the papers. Based on group discussion, we try to categorize all of them according to research concern (or research topics) and research methods, which are shown in the two sections followed.

B. Research Concern

To well display previous researchers' research concern, we summarize the main topics covered. To be more specific, we find that previous research mainly centers on the following 9 common topics: 1) error analysis in students' writing (Yan 1999, Jiang 2010, Li 2013, Mao 2016, Li 2016). For instance, Li (2016) explores students' errors in English writing through a case study of 82 sample writings and analyze the she also tries to explain the underlying reasons. Jiang (2010) takes two teaching classes in senior one as an example, and collects 10 pieces of writing of each students for error analysis. She finds out that errors in their writing can be roughly divided into three types: vocabulary level errors. Syntactic level errors and textual errors and provides rather detailed analysis for each type with typical examples and explanations; 2) application of certain teaching methods/approaches in senior one English writing, which is mostly seen in the master thesis (Li 2006, Zhang 2007, Dong & Ye 2007, Xu 2009, Qiu 2009, Zhuang 2014, Li 2017, etc.). Li (2006) in her master thesis carries out a study of task-based language teaching in English writing. Zhang (2007) explores the application of cooperative writing. Xu (2009) argues for the use of stratified method in writing taking into consideration students' differences and summarize some principles and specific strategies that could be employed. Qiu (2009) explores the process approach; Li (2017) takes two senior one parallel classes Jiyuan senior high school of Henan province and proves that mind-mapping based interactive model not only improves students' interest in English writing but also improves their writing ability through analysis of data; 3) analysis of status quo of English writing and possible countermeasures (Zhang 2011, Li 2014, Ma 2014, Chen & Guo 2015, Zhou 2016, Yang & Li 2018). Zhang (2011) takes the four senior one classes in Xiangtan No.3 middle school as an example and finds out some problems like students' lacking in motivation, shrinking back in face of writing, poor in English basics, poor in teachers' effective guidance and proper feedback on basis of questionnaire and interview; 4) specific ways to improve students' writing ability, which usually characterizes works of front-line teacher researchers (Li 2011, Yang 2012, Tang 2015, Chen 2015). For example, Li (2011) advocates improving students' writing through teachers' arrangement of material, textbook-based practice, strengthening of writing techniques and proper feedback on personal experience. Tang (2015) argues that English writing in senior one requires that students provide information through written text or graphics and briefly describe character or event. To meet such typical requirements, Tang outlines detailed measures in training students' writing ability, such as improving students' basic English language proficiency, reciting recommended samples, forming the habit of keeping journals and so on; 5) exploration of connecting technological benefits with English

³ CNKI refers to the National Knowledge Infrastructure (China) originally and was later interpreted as China National Knowledge Internet. Based on the "China Knowledge Resource Bank", It is the world's largest Chinese knowledge portal, featured by a continuously updated Chinese journals (partially translated from <https://baike.sogou.com/v3347259.htm?fromTitle=cnki>).

⁴ Here research paper includes all research results on CNKI, including M.A thesis, possibly doctoral dissertation and conference papers (accessed in April).

writing (Geng & Zhou 2012, Tan 2017). Geng & Zhou (2012) tries to explore how QQ and related functions could be incorporated into the writing process of students. Tan (2017) takes one typical writing task to illustrate how the auto grading system—Pigaiwang (www.pigai.org) can be used in students' writing to stimulate students' motivation, create a harmonious competitive atmosphere, cultivate students' good writing habits, and improve students' writing skills; 6) the transition of writing from junior three to senior one (Wu 2017). Wu (2017) points out the fact that writing in junior three and senior one are different in writing requirements, in textbook materials and in given topics, and therefore, teachers should focus on guidance in writing techniques and cultivation of students' interest; 7) full exploration of textbook in writing (Jiang 2012, Ju 2017). Ju (2017) argues that senior one English teachers should try best to make use of textbook materials and explore the strategies of English writing teaching in senior one from two aspects of controlled writing mode and open writing mode; 8) regional differences in writing (Xu 2016). Xu (2016) pays attention to students in rural areas and argues that teachers in senior one should embark on vocabulary and grammar consolidation, practical guidance and interest cultivation to improve their writing taking into consideration their poor English proficiency; 9) writing assessment (Zhang 2016, Ma 2016, Yue 2017). Zhang (2016) takes two teaching classes in Chongqing Fengjie middle school as the research object and tries to prove the effectiveness of a comprehensive assessment system of self-assessment, peer assessment and teacher's assessment. Ma (2016) in her master thesis studies teacher's written corrective feedback. The study takes students of No.8 senior high school in Yining City as the research subjects and find out that teacher's written corrective feedback is helpful to students' English writing performance, and the direct feedback is more helpful to the improvement of students' performance than the indirect feedback. Yue (2017) in his master thesis proves that senior one students' English writing ability and self-reflection have been improved a lot under the guidance of process-oriented approach and portfolio-assisted assessment.

C. Research Methods

As far as research methods are concerned, roughly speaking previous research mainly employs the following two types of methods: 1) empirical studies based on personal experience (Yan 1999, Chen 2007, Song 2010, Zhu 2010, Qiang 2011, Yin & Zhuang 2011, Zhang 2014, Shi 2015). For example, Yan (1999) tries to collect and categorize students' errors in writing task and proposes the suggestions of recitation, self-check and encouragement for improving their writing. Chen (2007) takes Unit 7 *cultural relics* as an example. She shares her own experience in carrying out English writing in this unit and puts forward the idea that interest and reading input are important in writing; Dong & Ye (2007) first point out students' problems in writing and proposes the methods of modelling writing (sentences) and the use of visual-audio method in writing; Zhu (2010) through personal teaching experience, stresses students' interest, appropriate teaching method, students' habit and evaluative methods are important factors influencing their writing; 2) combination of the qualitative and quantitative methods, which is typical of the master thesis concerned with application of certain approaches in last section (Li 2006, Zhu 2012, Zhang 2007, Qiu 2009, Tian 2010, Shen 2012, Li 2013, Lv 2013, Wang 2013, Qiu 2013, Yan 2015, Xu 2015, Fan 2015, Zhang 2016). They try to explore the how each of the following teaching methods such as task-based teaching, cooperative method, process method, reading-writing integration approach, process-genre approach, process-product approach, cooperative learning theory, scaffolding instruction and lexical approach gains more favorable result in senior one English writing compared with the traditional approach. They mainly employ questionnaire and analysis of the experimental results in the research; to be more specific, they usually divide the research participants (less than 200) of one sample middle school into experimental class and the control class and compare the different results and search for possible explanations.

IV. CONCLUSION

Previous researchers domestically have made great efforts to explore English writing in senior one and their achievements can be summarized as follows:

As far as research concern is concerned, existing studies already cover a wide range of topics such as error analysis, status quo analysis and countermeasures, application of certain teaching methods in writing, ways to improve students' writing ability, exploration of connecting technological benefits with writing, which not only reflect those earlier research concern but also correspondence with change of time. For example, connecting technological benefits with writing practice, such as the use of QQ and the auto scoring system.

Concerning research methods, existing studies either resort to the empirical study on personal experience or an experimental study taking students in one typical school as the participants. Those who apply empirical study are front-line teachers who try to summarize some experiences through daily teaching and observation and their papers center on pointing out mistakes and problems in students' writing and propose possible suggestions. Those who employ the experimental method are mainly M.A. students. They usually choose two or more senior classes in one typical senior high school as the subjects, and then they try to prove the effectiveness of a certain existing teaching method by comparing it with traditional teaching method.

It should be noted that this paper does have limitations and weaknesses. For instance, the data for analysis are all from the largest database CNKI, and there is great possibility that papers, articles or books related to English writing in senior one also exist elsewhere and therefore, more wide and accurate data collection process is needed for a review study in the future; on the other hand, our standard for classifying previous research according to research topics and

research method is not scientifically based, rather, it is based on observation and discussion in our group, which may also be not that accurate and requires attention.

V. SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Senior one can be an important transitional stage in students' learning life and English writing in senior one can be quite different from that in junior middle school since it marks the very beginning of higher requirements for writing in College Entrance Exam (Chinese gaokao), which deserves our special attention. Up to now, there is still large space in further exploring English writing in senior one. Here are our suggestions.

To begin with, more researchers should be involved in the current study; it is especially critical to strengthen the collaboration between researchers, college teachers and front-line English teachers in senior one. As has been pointed out, there is hardly any doctoral candidate or university researchers involved in previous studies in senior one English writing. No doubt that researchers at different levels contribute somewhat differently, which makes it possible to initiate studies of different angles and may even contribute to deep and more comprehensive studies;

Secondly, research should be more based more on scientific ground, rather than only empirical experiences or application of a certain method in practice. Up to now, application of scientific methods is largely seen in those college students whose research orientation is possibly English teaching in middle or high school. As a result, they employ a certain approach different from the traditional one and all prove that the new approaches, no matter the task-based approach, the cooperative approach or the process approach and others, have instant desirable results. However, many questions remain unsolved: which approach is the more suitable one? What is the difference in the benefits of each approach? What will happen if the research subjects are replaced? What will happen if there is a longitudinal study? Educational background in senior one may be very different from that abroad or in university, which requires our studies to be more well directed, deep, longitudinal and systematic;

There should be a much deeper and wider investigation into the status quo in senior one English writing. As is pointed out in the analysis part, concerning all research papers we have collected up to now, there is still drawbacks in taking status quo analysis as the research concern. Those who do only take a rather small sample of several classes in one middle school for investigation, which may not cover the whole situation. In addition, with information technology more immersed in everyone's life and in English teaching at all level, it is high time teachers faced the reality and tried best to bring into English writing classroom the technological benefits, not only QQ (mentioned in the analysis part) and therefore more research in this aspect should be carried out in future.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The project (FAR201702004) partially described in this paper is supported by the Fund for Assessment Research in Foreign Language Education. We are indebted to the members who participated in this project and to experts who guided the research.

REFERENCES⁵

- [1] Chen, J. (2007). Reflections from a senior one English writing class. *Foreign Language Teaching in Schools* 7, 13-17.
- [2] Chen K. (2015). An empirical study of discourse recitation in promoting senior one students' English writing. M.A. thesis, Hunan Normal University.
- [3] Chen, X.Z. & Guo, W.G. (2015). On status quo of senior one English writing: A case study of P County in Shanxi Province. *Course Education Research* 28, 99.
- [4] Dong, H. & Ye, D.X. (2007). Problem analysis and practice exploration in senior one English writing teaching. *Modern Primary and Secondary Education* 9, 41-43.
- [5] Fan, Y.L. (2015). Application of scaffolding approach in senior one English writing teaching. M.A. thesis, Inner Mongolia Normal University.
- [6] Geng, H. & Zhou, X. (2012). Application of QQ software in senior one English writing teaching. *The Chinese Journal of ICT in Education* 4, 57-60.
- [7] Jiang, J.W. (2012). Excavating textbook resources to improve senior one English writing teaching. *Testing and Evaluation* 4, 26.
- [8] Jiang, Y. (2010). Errors analysis in senior one English writing. M.A. thesis, Northeast Normal University.
- [9] Ju, C.M. (2017). Excavating textbook resources to Improve the effectiveness of senior one English writing teaching—Taking Oxford high school English teaching materials as an example. *English Teachers* 17. 23, 104-108.
- [10] Li, H.J. (2013). Research on the influence of process writing method on the English writing ability of senior one students. M.A. thesis, Capital Normal University.
- [11] Li, L. (2011). On strengthening the English writing ability of senior one students. *Exam Weekly* 68, 117.
- [12] Li, M. (2014). Strategies in senior one English writing teaching. *English Journal for Middle School Students* 5, 7.
- [13] Li, P. (2014). Grammar instruction in senior one classroom writing teaching. *Exam Weekly* 1, 93-94.
- [14] Li, P.L. (2006). Application of task-based language teaching in senior one English writing. M.A. thesis, Northwest Normal University.

⁵ Chinese references are translated by the authors and comments are welcomed.

- [15] Li, X.N. (2016). Error analysis in senior one students' English writing. M.A. thesis, Central China Normal University.
- [16] Li, X.Y. (2017). An empirical study on the mind-mapping-based interactive teaching mode in senior one English writing classroom. M.A. thesis, Central China Normal University.
- [17] Li, Y. A. (2013). Case study of errors in senior one English writing. *Exam Weekly* 49, 82-83.
- [18] Lv, J.E. (2013). Application of the process-product approach in senior one English writing teaching. M.A. thesis, Inner Mongolia Normal University, 2013.
- [19] Ma, F. (2014). Status quo and countermeasure in senior one English writing. M.A. thesis, Henan Normal University.
- [20] Ma, X. (2016). Research on the effects of different types of teachers' written corrective feedback on senior one English writing. M.A. thesis, Xinjiang Normal University.
- [21] Mao, L.T. (2016). Error analysis of senior one English writing. M.A. thesis, Central China Normal University.
- [22] Qiang, Q.J. (2011). On strategy in senior students' English Writing. *New University Entrance Examination* 10, 44-46.
- [23] Qiu, L.L. (2009). The application of process teaching approach in improving the writing efficiency of senior one students. M.A. thesis, Sichuan Normal University.
- [24] Qiu, X.J. (2014). Application of lexical chunks in senior one English writing. M.A. thesis, Sichuan Normal University.
- [25] Shen, R. (2012) Application of process genre approach in improving the English writing ability of senior one students. M.A. thesis, Chongqing Normal University.
- [26] Shi, X.J. (2015). On cooperative learning in senior one English writing teaching. *Campus English* 32, 99.
- [27] Song, L. (2010). How to improve the English writing ability of senior one students. *Youth Diary* 9, 31.
- [28] Tan, S.F. (2017). The application of Pigaiwang (www.pigai.org) in senior high school English writing- Taking the lesson *Giving Advice* in senior one as an example. *Educational Information Technology* 22, 47-49.
- [29] Tang, Y.J. (2015). Strategies in senior one English writing training. *Teaching Reference in Middle School* 10, 47-48.
- [30] Tian, L. (2010). An experimental study on improving English writing ability of senior students through reading-writing integration approach. M.A. thesis, Northeast Normal University.
- [31] Wang, X & Liu, S. (2012). An inquiry into senior one English writing teaching under the new curriculum standards. *China Education Innovation Herald* 6, 14.
- [32] Wang, Y. (2013). Application of cooperative learning in senior one English writing teaching. M.A. thesis, Shanghai Normal University.
- [33] Wu, G.F. (2017). On the transition of English writing from junior middle to senior high. *English Journal for Middle School Students* 8, 17.
- [34] Xu, T.W. (2016). A preliminary study of English writing of senior one students in rural high school. *Life Education* 16, 48-49.
- [35] Xu, X.H. (2009). A preliminary study of stratified teaching in senior one English writing. *Exam Weekly* 47, 113-114.
- [36] Xu, X.W. (2015). Application of scaffolding approach in senior one English writing teaching. M.A. thesis, Sichuan Normal University.
- [37] Yan, J. (1999). How to treat errors in English writing in senior students in the first grade. *Journal of Beijing Institute of Education* 2, 81-82.
- [38] Yan, J. (2015). The influence of reading and writing approach on English writing performance of senior one students. M.A. thesis, Soochow University.
- [39] Yang, D.C. (2012). On effective English writing teaching in senior one. *New West Z3*, 217+219.
- [40] Yang X.L & Li, F.F. (2018). On the current situation of English writing and analysis of effective strategies. *Good Parents* 3, 164.
- [41] Yang, X.W. (2016). Discussion on the teaching methods in senior one English writing. *New Course* 8, 7.
- [42] Yin, X.L & Zhuang, W.Y. (2011). Study on English writing training model for senior one students. *Exam Weekly* 92, 101-103.
- [43] Yue, L.J. (2017). Application of process writing approach and portfolio evaluation in senior one English writing teaching. M.A. thesis, Sichuan Normal University.
- [44] Zhang, F.L. (2016). Research on self-evaluation, peer assessment and teacher evaluation in senior one English writing- Taking Fengjie Middle School as an example. *The Guide of Science & Education* 8, 93-94+109.
- [45] Zhang, L.H. (2014). Discussion on improving the English writing ability of senior one students. *Education and Teaching Forum* 34, 102.
- [46] Zhang, M. (2016). Application of lexical approach in senior one English writing. M.A. thesis, Shanxi Normal University.
- [47] Zhang, Y. (2007). The Application of cooperative writing in senior one English writing teaching. M.A. thesis, Inner Mongolia Normal University, 2007.
- [48] Zhang, Y.Y. (2011). Status quo and countermeasures of English writing teaching in senior one. M.A. thesis, Hunan University of Science and Technology.
- [49] Zhu, H.B. (2010). On English writing in senior one. *English Journal for Middle School Students* 25, 30-31.
- [50] Zhu, J.Y. (2012). Application of task-based approach in senior one English writing. M.A. thesis, Chongqing Normal University.

Nana Jing received her master degree in linguistics from Guangdong University of Foreign Studies in 2013. She is currently lecturer on College of Foreign Languages and Literatures, Chongqing Normal University, Chongqing, China. Her main research interest is syntax and language education.

Yun Zhang was born in Chongqing, China in 1980. He received his bachelor degree from Chongqing Normal University in 2002. He is currently a teacher in Chongqing No.7 High School, Chongqing, China. His research interests include psycholinguistics and American literature.

Qiang Huang was born in Chongqing, China in 1985. He received his bachelor degree from Chongqing College of Arts and Sciences, China in 2008.

He is currently a teacher in Qingmuguan middle school. His research interests include teaching and management.

Can Wang was born in Chongqing, China in 1989. She received her master degree in linguistics and applied linguistics from Chongqing University in 2015.

She is currently a teacher in Chongqing No.7 High School, Chongqing, China. Her research interests include linguistics and American literature.

Biliteracy: A Systematic Literature Review about Strategies to Teach and Learn Two Languages

John J. Ducuara

Universidad de la Sabana/Centro de Tecnologías para la Academia, Bogotá Colombia

Hugo A. Rozo

Universidad de la Sabana/Centro de Tecnologías para la Academia, Bogotá Colombia

Abstract—This article describes the qualitative research findings with the objective of identifying the strategies implemented in the different educational levels (preschool, primary, high school, and, higher education) in order to develop biliteracy. A systematic literature review was carried out, by means of a search strategy rigorously defined. It aims to describe and evaluate the strategies used. The sample consisted of 122 publications, produced between 2007 and 2017. The results obtained allowed to identify the advances in terms of strategies regarding biliteracy in preschool, primary, high school and university, also it showed that some strategies are used in more than one educational level. Besides, some proposals are mentioned, to modify the institution curriculum. In addition, some advantages and disadvantages are established regarding the implementation of the strategies used to work on biliteracy in the target levels. Based on this, the state of the subject is discussed, and a projection is also generated regarding the needs of the field.

Index Terms—biliteracy, language learning strategies, language teaching strategies

I. INTRODUCTION

To start the present article and to make it easier to readers, it makes necessary to establish what biliteracy means. To do that, it was indispensable to sum up the definitions that are presented in some articles from the review. Biliteracy is the combination of literacy and bilingualism, and it is used to refer to both bilingual and multilingual literacy (Gentil, 2011; Hornberger & Link, 2012) and from a sociocultural perspective, biliteracy occurs for some people who obtain literate abilities in two languages at the same time (Hu & Commeyras, 2008; Babino, 2017). However, some authors are more specific, and they refer to written language development in two languages, either simultaneously or successively (Ro & Cheatham, 2009; Smith & Murillo, 2013; Fránquiz, Leija, & Garza, 2015). Nevertheless, others conceptualize it as being a proficient reader in both languages (Rauch, Naumann, & Jude, 2012). In contrast, there are some researchers who combine both, writing and reading, they perceive biliteracy as the capacity of the effective use of the language to decipher texts, it means, being able to read and write in wider contexts (Crhov & Domínguez, 2016).

Biliteracy is developed in several contexts and through social interaction. It can be seen as a process that involves the interlacing of two languages in an active and constant way, mixing skills development, knowledge construction, and experiences (Musanti, 2015). On the other hand, some researchers consider biliteracy as a process to develop concepts and expertise for thinking, listening, speaking, reading, and writing in two languages, making relevant cultural and linguistic connections with printed material and learners' experiences, manipulating the two linguistic writing systems to make meaning (Reyes, 2012; Rubinstein-Ávila, Sox, Kaplan, & McGraw, 2015).

Based on the previous definition, for this article, biliteracy will be understood as being literate in two languages, making possible to transfer skills from one language to another in order to be able to read, write, and speak in both languages and to adapt to different situations and contexts.

As it is shown in Fig. 1, biliteracy research has been worked since 1982, however, since that date and taking as reference Scopus database, only 291 documents have been published regarding the subject until today, 2017. In addition, the study of biliteracy has become more significant for the last ten years, because of the increase visibility of diverse communities where people are growing up bilingual and, in some cases, biliterate. In addition, research seeks to improve the learning and teaching experiences of different educational levels and from diverse linguistic backgrounds.

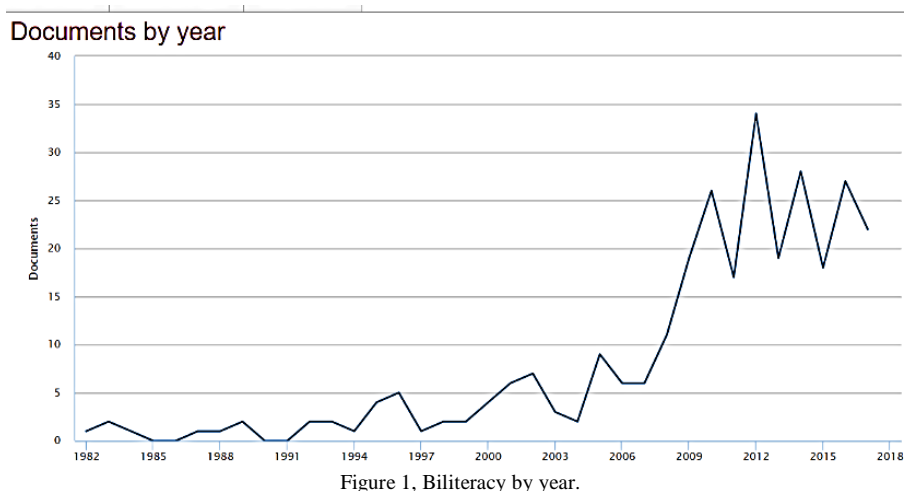


Figure 1. Bilingualism by year.

In fact, from Scopus, it is possible to establish where the focus of the investigation is. United States occupies the first place in this matter; it has produced 177 out of the 291 documents, followed by Canada with 22 documents; making evident the distance among countries in the research field and the topic. Also, it is possible to assume that this amount of articles about bilingualism respond to a necessity to instruct immigrants, since they represent a significant quantity of population in the United States, and perhaps institutions have given them an important role since they are interested in making them literate in the local language.

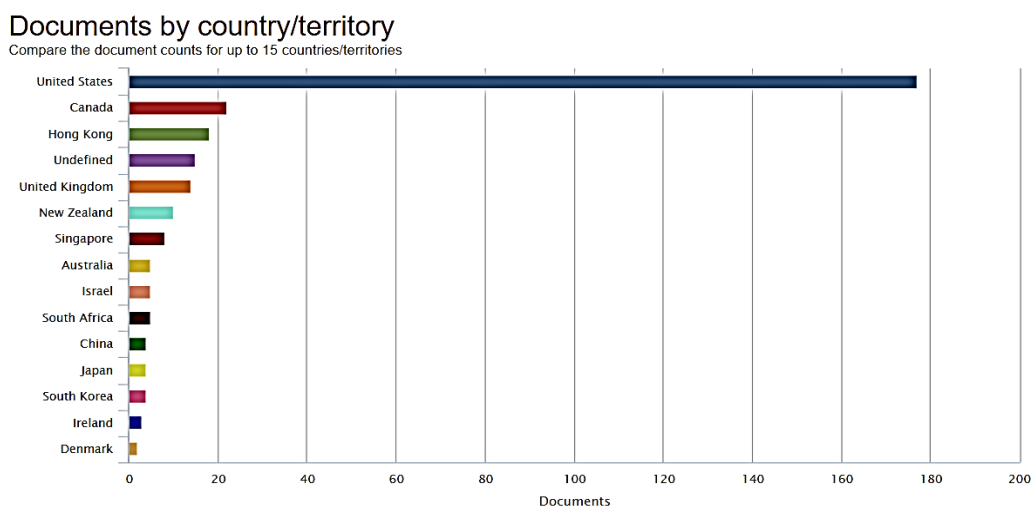


Figure 2. bilingualism by country

Furthermore, it becomes relevant to know about the practices applied in different educational scenarios, due to this, the general objective is: To identify the strategies used to carry out the development of bilingualism and to determine the effectiveness of those strategies in the instruction in two languages in educational and non-educational contexts.

II. METHOD

A. Type of Study

The present study is a research literature review, which is defined as a systematic, explicit and reproducible method to identify, evaluate and synthesize the existing body of work done and registered by researchers, academics and professionals (Fink, 2005). The types of literature review used in this article are descriptive and interpretative, since the descriptive review provides the reader with an update of useful concepts in areas in constant evolution, and the interpretation review responds to a very specific question about the issue (Day, 2005; Cué D áz, D áz & Vald é, 2008).

B. Sample

The sample initially consisted on 122 publications or units of analysis and then it became into 61 articles, which come from 3 databases, (Scopus, Web of Science and Taylor & Francis) and whose inclusion and synthesis was given from the process that is described in Figure 1. They were taken into account publications made between 2007 and 2017 (August).

First, the term Biliteracy was used as the key word to do the searching, it was used in three databases (Scopus, Taylor and Francis, and Web of Science), also the criteria applied depended on the database as it is established in Figure 3, each databank came up with certain number of articles. After this, an Excel chart was created to identify if there were any documents repeated among the three databases. When this process was done, there were 64 documents in total, but unfortunately 3 articles were not possible to find. As a result, 61 articles compounded the sample of this review, those 61 documents were deeply read and analyzed.

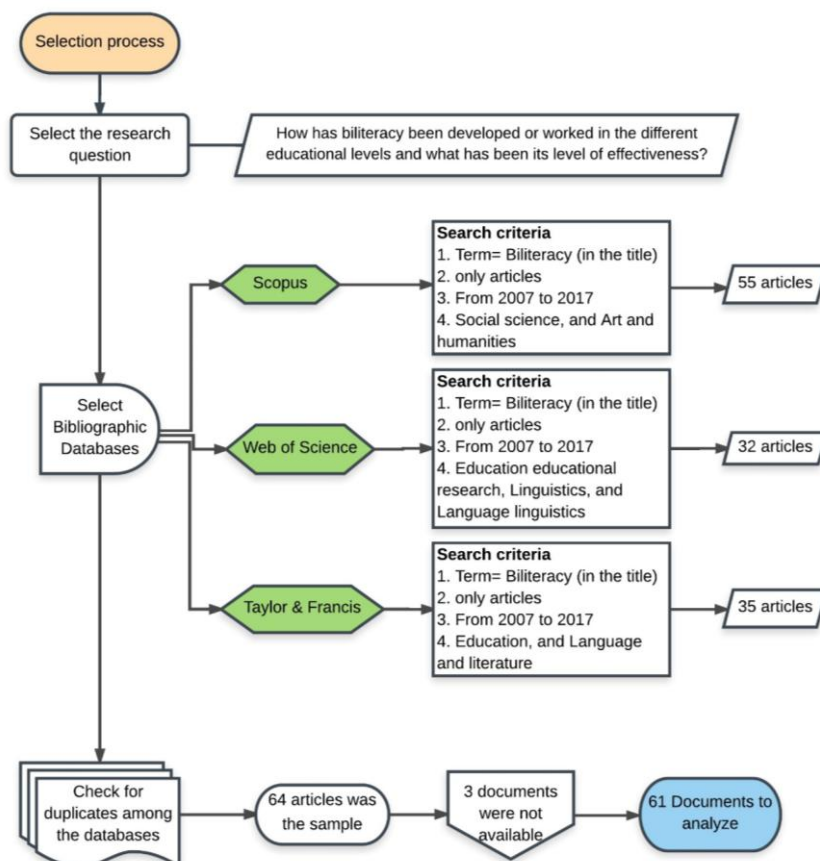


Figure 3. Selection of the sample.

C. Document Analyses

So as to be systematic with the literature review of the documents, it was necessary to use a software used to code qualitative data, called Atlas.ti. It was used to upload the 61 articles found. Then each article was completely read and coded. Considering codes previously created, (See Fig. 4) each code was considered a category and most of them were a priori (Miles & Huberman, 1994). However, there was one category that came up while doing the reading: curriculum, which was an emergent category for the review. The frequency of the curriculum category was low, but for the review it was considered relevant. Besides, the category teacher role was used as part of the conclusions of the document since the frequency of this matter was not high.

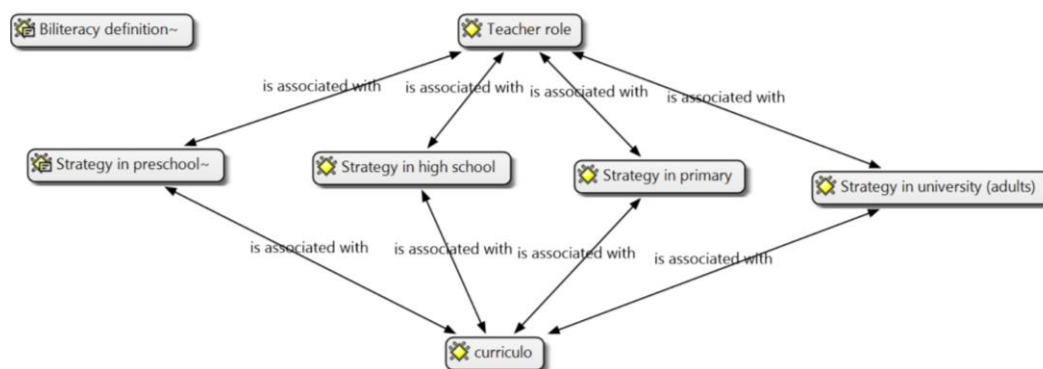


Figure 4. Semantic network

III. RESULTS

As it was mentioned in the method, the 61 documents were coded to classify them to have the necessary information about the strategies used to work on biliteracy. The results are presented in categories, also, as it was stated before, the teacher role is presented with the conclusions and the Biliteracy definition was mentioned during the introduction of the document, since they are considered as transversal aspects. Furthermore, some commonalities were established between strategies and educational levels, these findings will be discussed later. The next Fig. 5 shows the frequency in which each category was used during the analysis.

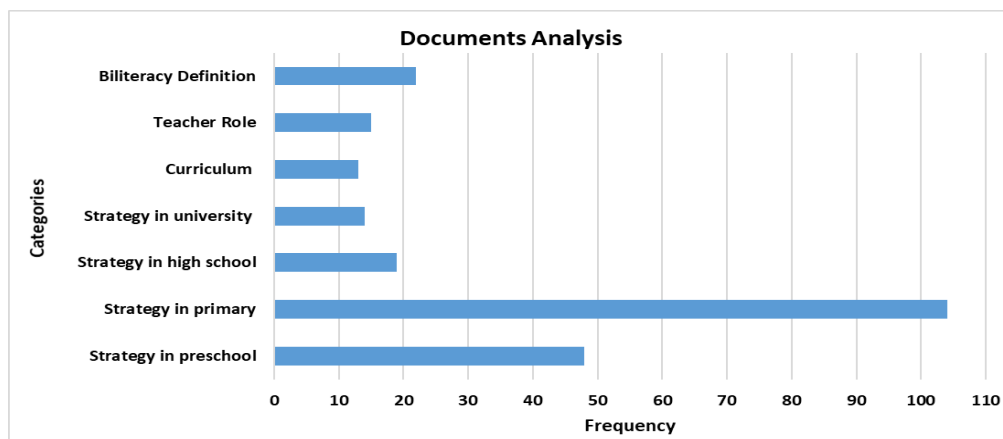


Figure 5, Documents Analysis

A. *Strategies in Preschool*

The following section provides an overview of the nine strategies storytelling, SEAL (Sobrato Early Academic Literacy), discourse strategies, receptive vocabulary/grammar, phonological awareness, whole word strategy, home literacy, code-switching, and environmental print awareness) found across the analysis of the documents. The code frequency was 48 among the 61 documents as it is shown in figure 5. While the analysis was carried out, it was taken into account the population and any kind of activity involved to biliteracy development.

1. Storytelling

It is the art of telling a story. The creation and enjoyment of a magical atmosphere through the story. It has been used to develop a variety of skills when learning a language. For that reason, it is one of the most common strategies used in developing biliteracy among kids. Storytelling can be used with picture books for labeling, sentence making, and work on invented spelling (Hu & Commeyras, 2008). Also in some cases, it is necessary to work on one-on-one assistance as the kids need it to guarantee the comprehension of the story (Huerta, 2010; Lucero, 2010). However, it is necessary to explain children the function of books, to let them go beyond the reading, they can be able to understand and differentiate whether a book was written in Spanish or English or the language instructed. Most of the children demonstrated knowledge that the printed material carried messages, they were able to point directly to the title of the book and indicate where the beginning and end of the text was (Reyes & Azuara, 2008). Moreover, they focused on the images that illustrated the book, helping understanding and presenting that they are enough to comprehend a story. In fact, stories served as a challenge to counter presuppositions, perceived wisdoms, and assumptions of the dominant discourse among students (Boutte & Johnson, 2013b).

2. SEAL (Sobrato Early Academic Literacy)

It is a model created for Spanish-speaking kids, who are in kindergarten and do not know English or just a little; they are called English Language Learners (Lindholm-Leary, 2014).

3. Discourse strategies

These strategies are signals used by children to interact in the classroom with teacher and classmates. The strategies are; translation, paraphrasing, and paralinguistic signals (Reyes et al., 2012).

4. Receptive vocabulary/grammar

When talking about vocabulary, it means, that the student has to choose among some drawings the one that best matches the word spoken by the adult; regarding grammar, the strategy is similar to vocabulary. In this case, the student must select the image that best matches the sentence spoken (Jared, Cormier, Levy, & Wade-Woolley, 2011).

5. Phonological Awareness

Several studies work on the development of phonological awareness in order to favor the biliteracy development. Phonological awareness has been repeatedly reported as a key strategy for learning to read different orthographies, it is carried out through different activities, such as, word decoding in each language, rime analogy, grapheme-phoneme recoding strategy and word cards, in order to enhance the print knowledge awareness in one language to support the development in the other (Kang, 2012). Also, it can be developed through syllable and phoneme deletion and phoneme isolation with the intention to create awareness about the sounds of the phonemes. In various studies. Infants had to

erase five opening and ending syllables from words compound by two syllables. Then, they listened and said a complete word and repeated the word again but deprived of saying the deleted syllable or phoneme (Jared, Cormier, Levy, & Wade-Woolley, 2011; Burgoyne, Duff, Nielsen, Ulicheva, & Snowling, 2016). Thus, English rhyme detection to support the phonological awareness consisted of two practice items. Infants must select from a list of words, a suitable one that rhymed with the given word. In addition, it is important to understand what specific levels of phonological awareness are involved in learning a second language. They are, word reading, letter name knowledge, receptive vocabulary, and non-verbal intelligence, and they contribute in the different linguistic units including syllable, rhyme, phoneme, and tone awareness (Yeung & Ganotice, 2014).

6. Whole word strategy

It promotes that pupils understand and recognize words as a complete unit that carries meaning that it is not necessary to divide into smaller particles. This strategy comprehends the word as the backbone of the reading. In this strategy Russian/English reading focus on sight words to learn them and create meaning from them (Tolosa, McNaughton, & Lai, 2009; Burgoyne et al., 2016)

7. Home literacy

Researchers have tried to involve families into the (bi) literacy process. The school asked parents to share the literacy material from their native language in order to use them as developing material for reading and writing to motivate students and show the relationship between school and home literacy practices (Reyes et al., 2012). In the same way, parents and relatives has to work with children, in order to show that their linguistic knowledge was an asset for their children's biliterate education. Parents needed the guidance from the teachers, they required to be trained in strategies to support their kids biliteracy development (Delbridge & Helman, 2016), for instance, In Rodriguez' study, findings report the usage of a sequence: "1) validating the linguistic knowledge migrant parents had in Spanish, 2) introducing how to transfer reading skills from one language to another, 3) developing phonemic awareness in both languages, and, most important, 4) introducing cooperative biliteracy learning practices for parents and students" (2014. p 113).

8. Code-switching

Certain biliteracy-related processes support dual-language reading and writing competencies in children. Such process is code-switching, now widely studied in the literature across ages and groups. Infants who have the opportunity of inferring and understanding from several languages can achieve their conversational and communicative needs; different from monolingual children.

Reyes et al., speakers benefit from code-switching and mutual exchanges in their language usage, since they are capable of intercalate between languages, but in the case of preschool the code-switching comes from the adults, specially teachers, which it can be seen in two ways; first, as adaptation, where children are likely to learn to code switch and alternate between languages depending on the context and benefits (2012). Second, improvisation which refers to, a code meshing or code mixing, it means, blending the two languages in their speech and writing (Boutte & Johnson, 2013b).

9. Environmental print awareness

Working with environmental products in preschool are essential for developing a language. These items are usually tagged in different languages and can be used as a strategy, called environmental print. It offers the kids experiences with other languages and its usage depends on the person and the position. That is why; people should get as much as possible environmental print material at school. Children realize about the print material around them and they start to interact with it, since they identify and read common words from their surroundings (Reyes & Azuara, 2008).

B. Strategies in Primary

The following section provides an overview of the fourteen strategies (Phonological awareness, Code-switching, Home Literacy, Storytelling, Vocabulary acquisition, Reading aloud, Spontaneous writing, The paired literacy model, Literacy Squared model, Cognates, Pre-service and in service teachers, Morphological awareness, Deletion, Collaborative writing) found across the analysis of the documents, the code frequency was 104 among the 61 documents as it was shown in Fig 5.

1. Phonological awareness

Phonological awareness appears once more time, as in preschool. Children are older, and they are capable of more challenging activities, first, syllabic and phonemic awareness are worked by using flashcards to assess the ability to recognize the sounds of words and pseudowords by naming each one of them. Likewise, letter-name and letter-sound knowledge can be shown through 26 cards that had a letter of the alphabet printed in uppercase letters (Wang, Yang, & Cheng, 2009; Jared et al., 2011). Second, decoding skills are worked and developed in this kind of population through oral language and reading tasks, (Nakamura, Koda, & Joshi, 2014; Giambo & Szecsi, 2015). These authors state that phonological awareness facilitates to enhance the decoding skills through metalinguistic abilities to manipulate speech sounds, independent from their meanings across languages, it would mean that reading comprehension would be aided (Tolosa, McNaughton, & Lai, 2009; Chung, McBride-Chang, Cheung, & Wong, 2013). Phonological awareness can be worked from auditory discrimination too, in which the teacher says out loud a pair of monosyllabic words (e.g., /web/ and /wed/) and participants were to judge whether they were the same or different words and the phonemic contrast is located in word-initial, -medial, and -final positions (Reddy & Koda, 2013).

2. Code-switching

Sympathy to sociocultural prospects and standards in certain backgrounds are permitted by code switching, for instance when bilinguals display their linguistic collections in the two languages (Ro & Cheatham, 2009; Boutte & Johnson, 2013), students use both languages to make sense of assignments, and as normal practice with little awareness of linguistic shifts; at other times, students purposely shift languages to show their biliteracy competence (Reyes, 2012; Hornberger & Link, 2012).

3. Home Literacy

Parents can provide an environment to promote biliteracy. The interaction between parents and children are crucial to the learning process of literacy skills. Furthermore, Parents can continue the literacy activities started at school in order to motivate their kids to read write and speak (Ro & Cheatham, 2009). When parents are constantly reading at home, they can share the reading time with children, even when they read newspapers or online journals. They can share the reading when they are reading any material from their own interests (Obied, 2010).

4. Storytelling

Children appreciate the stories in their home or foreign language; besides, bilinguals are most of the time enquiring and comparing the languages (Ro & Cheatham, 2009; Medina et al., 2010). It is necessary to assess the kinds of words students use in their retelling and how students use words to make sentences, to be aware of the acquisition for the two languages (Tolosa et al., 2009). Moreover, one has to distinguish between storytelling occurring in everyday conversation and schooled narratives, which are more closely associated with literacy practices (Hornberger & Link, 2012b; Bongartz & Torregrossa, 2017).

5. Vocabulary acquisition

It is acquired through guided reading, using explicit forms such as elaborations and incidental instruction, like repeating models in contexts, identifying emotive words from a series of sentences and reading different genres or styles of writing (Tolosa et al., 2009). Furthermore, it can be acquired through naming objects from pictures, reading isolated words; there are cloze activities, in which kids have to complete short texts choosing a word to complete a passage. It can be done orally or written (Proctor & Silverman, 2011; Jared et al., 2011).

6. Reading aloud

It is a simple activity, and it does not take too much time to carry out. However, is worthy and so beneficial to develop a range of skills to support the biliteracy development, this kind of reading comes from parents, teachers and students themselves. Furthermore, it is not as important as people could think the kind of material, they can be tales, poetry, and any reading material (Menard-Warwick, 2007; Giambo & Szecsi, 2015). Through reading, it is possible to discover that words are used differently in different contexts or domains and that there is not always one correct linguistic answer (Obied, 2010). Also, it is necessary to make questions to guarantee the understanding of the reading, making sure the use of the two languages (Huerta, 2010; Fránquiz & Ortiz, 2012).

7. Spontaneous writing

It is the creation for short and easy written pieces of text, such as, letter to a relative, narrating daily events and using simple tenses in their productions (Menard-Warwick, 2007). Besides, it is crucial to contrast the written productions, modeling is not enough to acquire the necessary skills in a second language. Teachers must make a parallel of the rules, contrast them and show infants who are emerging literacy in to two or more languages (Boutte & Johnson, 2013).

8. The paired literacy model

This model is based on the instruction of the two languages simultaneously, the second language is taught while the kids are learning to read and write in the native language. It is different from other models that establish a limit among languages to separate them. This model states that both languages can co-develop. However, in this proposal, to start the instruction in the second language, it is necessary to have certain proficiency level in the foreign language (Soltero-González et al., 2016).

9. Literacy Squared model

This model nurtures literacy skills in two languages and highlights teaching approaches and the usage of different kinds of texts. Among the approaches it can be found, modeled, shared, collaborative, and independent writing and reading. To work on the oral skills, it is necessary to provide meaningful opportunities to interact and learn the use of vocabulary and language structures (Soltero-González et al., 2016).

10. Cognates

Cognate is a word that comes from the same origin as a word from a different language. Cognates between languages usually have similarities in spelling, pronunciation, and meaning. Reading performance is enhanced for bilinguals who recognize cognates, and add that the ability to infer the meaning of words by using internal context, morphology, and knowledge of multiple meanings also supported bilingual reading (Soto, 2012; Giambo & Szecsi, 2015).

11. Pre-service and in service teachers

To recruit pre-service and in-service teachers from similar ethnic backgrounds of students was a strategy used by Brochin (2012) in order to make more comfortable and gain confidence to children. In that way, they can be more productive and efficient in the tasks.

12. Morphological awareness

It refers to the capacity to use morphemes and morphological structures. When it is coming from youths' morphological awareness, it reflects in the morphological structure of the home language. Since, it involves breakdown

and management abilities. Also, a well-documented quantity of research has stated the relevance of the development of word-reading skills where readers can make direct letter-sound correspondences (Wang, Ko, & Choi, 2009; Zhang, Koda, & Sun, 2014; Zhang, 2016; Bae & Joshi, 2017).

13. Deletion

In English, students are asked to delete syllables or phonemes from words that are said out loud by the adults. For instance, the child has to say /batman/ without /bat/ (syllable-level deletion), or say /bat/ without /b/ (phoneme-level deletion) (Wang, Yang, & Cheng, 2009; Wang, Ko, & Choi, 2009; Reddy & Koda, 2013; Lü 2017).

14. Collaborative writing

In some classrooms, there are students who are not bilingual, which is not a limitation when writing, pairs of the same-language can get involved in the writing process. Papers can be written in their native language, after, translated into the second language with the help of their classmates and then shared with the complete group (Hornberger & Link, 2012; Delbridge & Helman, 2016). Gort proposes a writing workshop that lasts from 45-60 minutes, first the language to write is chosen, second, students read aloud and third, comments are made by students and finally the written production is improved based on the comments (2008).

C. *Strategies in High School*

The following section provides an overview of the nine strategies (genre writing, morphological relation, reading and writing for pleasure, home literacies, translation, chalk talks, morphological awareness, writing sequence, and social networks) found across the analysis of the documents, the code frequency was 19 among the 61 documents as it was shown in figure 5. While the analysis was carried out, they were taken into account the different grades included in high school and the activities that foster biliteracy growth.

1. Genre writing

It mixes the understandings from literacy and bilingualism to enrich polyglot authors to cultivate and practice genre proficiency in different languages (Gentil, 2011). It is based on promoting writing by using any genre known by students.

2. Morphological relation

It teaches students to relate and be conscious about where words come from, for instance, teach-teacher, students have to make pairs in order to identify the relationship between them. And get to know the affixes and how words are change depending on them, unhappy-happy (Zhang & Koda, 2014).

3. Reading and writing for pleasure

It is necessary to promote the free reading and writing production, it is not necessary to link them to an academic task. Teens can read any kind of material, such as, comics, baseball novels, surfing on the internet, historical and action books. Furthermore, they can practice writing through mailing friends (Haneda & Monobe, 2009).

4. Home literacies

Model reading at home is crucial and it does not matter the age, it is extremely important that parents show kids that they read too. It could be books, newspapers, children's books. In addition to this it is necessary to share activities as watch TV or listening to the radio and playing computer games (Obied, 2010).

5. Translation

A bilingual representation is the product of translation. It is a process that involves selecting from the target language the necessary corresponding counterparts of the second language in the context of the source text. When translating for practical purposes, the overriding objective is to endow the target text with the same communicative effect as that of the source text (Ngan, 2009).

6. Chalk talks

It is an activity where a long piece of paper is used with a question written on it. Students can answer the question orally or written on the paper. Students can also make extra questions to the teacher and their classmates in their home language or the foreign language, both are acceptable in this strategy (Rubinstein-Ávila et al., 2015).

7. Morphological awareness

It refers to the capability to recognize, examine and use the language units. In addition, it can promote students' comprehension skills. Research results have indicated that metalinguistic awareness on orthographic and phonological parts are important skills for early literacy development in different languages (Bae & Joshi, 2017).

8. Writing sequence

In academic writing it is advisable to follow some steps to guarantee a high quality written production, the steps are: prewriting, drafting, proofreading, revising, and publication (Pu, 2010).

9. Social networks

They can be used to foster writing and to connect with people with mother tongue or the second language that students want to learn (Hornberger, 2007; Worthy, Nuñez, & Espinoza, 2016).

D. *Strategies in Higher Education*

The following section provides an overview of the five strategies (Narratives, Bilingual dictionaries, Genre theory, Projects, Code-switching) found across the analysis of the documents, the code frequency was 14 among the 61

documents as it shows figure 5. While the analysis was carried out, it was taken into account any reference to higher education.

1. Narratives

This strategy is done when stories are written by students, telling their own life experiences, regarding their literacy process. Narratives allow teachers know students' understanding and interpretation within some specific contexts, making them improve their own writing quality (Cho, 2010).

2. Bilingual dictionaries

They are used to comprehend the meaning of demanding vocabulary, helping users with web pages or thesaurus (Walt & Dornbrack, 2011).

3. Genre theory

It uses the genre knowledge and meta-knowledge in the first language as a resource for navigating academic writing tasks in second language. Two concepts from genre studies have particular resonance: the notions of genre repertoire and genre competence. Looking at genres as not only socially situated, but also as interconnected is critically important, and the concept of genre repertoire draws attention to precisely these connections (Mein, 2012).

4. Projects

Class projects can be used as the channel to foster the development of multiple skills, since they have to write, read and interact with mates, which implies listening and speaking, for instance a book project telling a variety of experiences like a biography (Hornberger, 2007; Hornberger & Link, 2012b; Crhová & Domínguez, 2016).

5. Code-switching

This strategy is used in every single educational level, as it is defined as an oscillation of two languages within a single discourse, but it can be seen as a problem from monolingual mindset (Crhová & Domínguez, 2016). Code-switching could be considered as a tool in learning ability development as it helps students' knowledge grow. In research, it has been classified as code-mixing, code-switching, and translanguaging (Kwon & Schallert, 2016).

Based on the previous information some common strategies were found among the educational levels, code-switching and home literacy appeared in 3 out of 4 levels, first, code-switching, it works as evidence of the importance that this strategy has during the whole process of getting a second language, this can be used as a transition and to show some similarities between languages, making easier for learners the acquisition of a foreign language. Second, home literacy, the information found states the relevance and how significant the learner's family is in the learning process, family members are crucial to improve students' skills, it is not necessary to have planned activities to develop as a family, their daily life and experiences are a font of significant input to students if they are well supported and company the person.

On the other hand, storytelling, phonological awareness, and morphological awareness appeared in 2 of educational levels. First, storytelling shows the relevance to work with it in preschool and primary, it develops students' skills for reading but also; it improves their vocabulary and their speaking skills, since; they are able to tell their own stories; they learn about the sequence of a write-up and apply it not just to tell something, they learn to plan their own activities in order to follow a sequence. and last, storytelling in those ages motivate students to read and stimulate their imagination, since each story takes them to different worlds. Second, phonological and morphological awareness are crucial in the acquisition of a language, both work from the smallest to the biggest part of a language, and when students are aware of it, it is much easier for them to gain fluency when they talk, write or read. If they can understand how phonological and morphological awareness work, they will be able to comprehend what they learn, making the process meaningful and unforgettable.

E. Curriculum

There were strategies implemented in some research projects that were not possible to place in a specific educational level, since they affect the whole curriculum. During the analysis of the documents, this code was used 13 times.

There have been some research papers that emphasize on the necessity to enrich the policies, programs, pedagogies, and practices that lead to biliteracy and cultural pluralism (Rodríguez & Cadiero-Kaplan, 2008; Evans, 2013). A good example can be seen in Mainland China, where it is mandatory the learning of Pinyin at the beginning of primary school, it makes part of the national curriculum (Lü, 2017). More over it is necessary to include texts that include both languages and enable the family know about it in the curriculum regarding the biliteracy and individuality growth. The idea is to move beyond a monolingual pedagogy and to include family stories and literacies through the writing of dual language books in order to foster the development of students skills (Hill, 2015; Delbridge & Helman, 2016).

1. Dual language immersion program

This program consists on the instruction of students from any language background and they are instructed solely in their mother language, from preschool to first grade. Then when students get in to fifth grade, the curriculum becomes 70% for natives and 30% for foreign. The percentage increased through the time until it got 50/50 (Granados, 2017).

2. Abilities limitation

Curriculum sometimes limits the abilities of bilingual students to develop academic competence in both languages. (Smith & Murillo, 2013). For institutions, children whom grow up in homes and communities with two or more languages can be a problem, since teachers must design and implement strategies for developing the classes and guarantee their learning.

This analysis has reviewed empirical research on the strategies used to work on biliteracy. Existing studies have reported both positive and negative aspects of them. In terms of positive effects, findings have suggested a range of specific areas where biliteracy strategies are advantage.

Firstly, it is worthier that the two writing codes are equals, it means, the characters are the same, the phonemes may be different but most of the letters exist in both languages (Kang, 2012), as in English and Spanish. It also helps to transfer skills between the two languages, for instance in preschool, when the two languages are English and Spanish, students realize about similarities for writing and reading, at the beginning students read as they do it in Spanish, it is not correct but they are getting used to read in a second language, and with practice and rehearsal students can differentiated both languages writing rules. Secondly, when languages have similar written systems, there is a correspondence among skills: It corresponds to numerous biliteracy research projects, which say relevant cross-linguistic associations in metalinguistic abilities as in phonological and morphological awareness (Nakamura et al., 2014) also; it is possible to say that even when some skills are equals among languages, it is more difficult to work on a second language if there is a skills development gap in the first language, for instance, if students have complications about phonological awareness in their native language, it will be harder to get a second language. Thirdly, findings offer signs that a battery of English cognitive exams delivered in preschool can predict the reading skills in both languages. The batteries must comprise phonological awareness, grammatical skills, letter-sound and word recognition (Jared et al., 2011). This point of view is hard to carry out, taking into account that literacy in some countries does not appear in preschool curriculums, It is usually thought in a higher level like primary, however, this particular strategy is possible but it will depend on several factors, for instance, the institution context, the ages of the student, the exposure to the language, among others. Fourthly, books should have cultural features in the stories that allow kids to realize about where they belong to in the world, unfortunately, most of the kids stories are fiction and try to leave a moral for them, but, there are few books that show cultural features in their narrations, it should be worthier and easier to show cultures through tales. Fifthly, results propose the transference of skills when getting two similar writing codes. For instance, the phonological transference happens when the phonological unit appears in both languages. Cross-language morphological transference occurred for compound structure awareness. The findings highlight the shared processes among languages, however, in the case of spelling, it is considered as a precise language process (Wang et al., 2009).

In terms of negative effects, it can be said that the writing system sometimes is not as easy to work with. For instance, the letter-sound correspondence it is not as exact as people will expect, for example, the /th/ sound does not exist in some languages, making more difficult to relate the sound with students' background knowledge (Hu & Commeyras, 2008). Besides, it also makes difficult the decoding process, since students sometimes needs to learn a complete whole set of sounds and characters correspondence (Nakamura et al., 2014). It may be difficult but at the same time it helps students to improve in their own native language, they have to train themselves and to educate their ear to listen carefully and discriminate sounds. Also, when talking about reading material such as books, the selected material must be chosen with special care, since it may not be culturally sensitive and can leave students feeling at best confused and at worst marginalized and offended (Delbridge & Helman, 2016). As it was mentioned before the amount of material available regarding cultural features is few, it makes more difficult to try to show beliefs, philosophies, politics, etc. from a book, it is sometimes easier to create the material needed, nonetheless, it can be bias, as it is a subjective material created by the teacher.

IV. CONCLUSIONS AND PROSPECTIVE

To sum up, the strategies mentioned for the different educational levels do not belong to a specific grade, most of the strategies can be used from preschool to university level. The strategies just need to be adapted to the corresponding level, it is evident since some strategies are common in 2 or 3 educational levels, for instance code switching. However, to carry out those adaptations, it is necessary to have the appropriate group of people to instruct students in the best way. It is not the same to work on phonological awareness in preschool and primary, some features are common, but the methodology used is different, that is the reason to have the necessity to count with proficient people to carry out the task. Teachers assume a crucial role in biliteracy process and development. A teacher to work on biliteracy must fulfil some requirements.

Firstly, teachers should create an environment in which biliteracy development is supported, an environment that makes students feel confident and safe to use both languages, and plan activities that validate and include bilingual and biliterate perspectives and practices (Gort, 2008; Delbridge & Helman, 2016). Also, teachers must encourage students' oral language, literacy, and cultural knowledge, in that way they can improve their communicative skills, and expand their cultural knowledge.

Secondly, teachers can engage children in multiculturally themed units to link them to different cultures through content and students' own culture and language, to show different backgrounds and the importance to get to know philosophies. To do this, teachers can group and mix students who have or not similar language or cultural surroundings and backing them while they interact in their first language and practice a second one. To do that teachers should learn about bilingual students' background knowledge, cultural repertoires, and daily home practices (Ro & Cheatham, 2009; Rodriguez-Valls et al., 2014; Fránquiz et al., 2015), if teachers do so, they will be more effective while working with their students, and their progress maybe faster and worthier.

Thirdly, as a mandatory task teachers should be in charge to provide access to high-quality bilingual books in and out the classroom to promote reading in two languages (Medina et al., 2010; Giambo & Szecsi, 2015). It can reflect a variety of cultures (Reyes, 2012). It can help kids in many aspects, such as, word recognition, grammar structures recognition, and they can learn about multiple cultures while they read.

Finally, educators must be extremely careful while designing the instruction and plan for interactions that build on translanguaging practices and transnational literacies (Hornberger & Link, 2012a). Without a well-structured plan, it is not possible to guarantee a biliteracy acquisition process. As there are so many aspects to work on biliteracy, it is necessary to plan in order to not leave behind any factor that contribute to the dual literacy.

On the other hand, there are few articles regarding the biliteracy topic, as it was mention before, there are 291 documents, based on this, it is necessary to keep conducting research in all the educational levels, results indicate that most of the documents are focused on primary, some in preschool but few in secondary and university, it shows the necessity of investigation in those levels, especially when in those levels the amount of bilingual students is high .

Instead, the strategies implemented used printed material, it means they used physical resources, but, it seems that teachers are not using the different tools that ICT can provide to work on biliteracy, some strategies like CALL (Computer-assisted language learning) are used to work on one language, but based on the information provided from the systematic review, there is not enough evidence to say that teacher are really using ICT tools to work and develop biliteracy skills, there are some apps that could support the process for morphological awareness, word recognition, and phonological awareness, among others. It is a field that needs to be more explored and it could provide worthy results.

REFERENCES

- [1] Babino, A. (2017). Same program, distinctive development: Exploring the biliteracy trajectories of two dual language schools. *Bilingual Research Journal*, 40(2), 169–186. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15235882.2017.1307290>.
- [2] Bae, H. S., & Joshi, R. M. (2017). Role of morphological awareness in biliteracy development: Within- and cross-language perspectives among Korean ESL learners in grades five and six. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 49, 21–31. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cedpsych.2016.11.001>.
- [3] Bongartz, C. M., & Torregrossa, J. (2017). The effects of balanced biliteracy on Greek-German bilingual children's secondary discourse ability. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, in press (0), 1–16. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2017.1355888>.
- [4] Boutte, G. S., & Johnson, G. L. (2013a). Do Educators See and Honor Biliteracy and Bidialectalism in African American Language Speakers? Apprehensions and Reflections of Two Grandparents/Professional Educators. *Early Childhood Education Journal*, 41(2), 133–141. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10643-012-0538-5>.
- [5] Boutte, G. S., & Johnson, G. L. (2013b). Funga Alafia 1: Toward Welcoming, Understanding, and Respecting African American Speakers' Bilingualism and Biliteracy. *Equity & Excellence in Education*, 46(3), 300–314. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10665684.2013.806850>.
- [6] Brochin, C. (2012). Literacies at the border: transnationalism and the biliteracy practices of teachers across the US–Mexico border. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 15(6), 687–703. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2012.699948>.
- [7] Burgoyne, K., Duff, F. J., Nielsen, D., Ulicheva, A., & Snowling, M. J. (2016). Bilingualism and Biliteracy in Down Syndrome: Insights From a Case Study. *Language Learning*, 66(4), 945–971. <https://doi.org/10.1111/lang.12179>.
- [8] Cho, S. (2010). Academic biliteracy challenges: Korean scholars in the United States. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 19(2), 82–94. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2010.02.002>.
- [9] Chung, K. K. H., McBride-Chang, C., Cheung, H., & Wong, S. W. L. (2013). General auditory processing, speech perception and phonological awareness skills in Chinese-English biliteracy. *Journal of Research in Reading*, 36(2), 202–222. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9817.2011.01500.x>.
- [10] Crhov á J., & Dom íguez, M. del R. (2016). Mexican university teacher-researchers' biliteracy beliefs and practices. *Journal of Language and Cultural Education*, 4(3), 3–31. <https://doi.org/10.1515/jolace-2016-0023>.
- [11] Cu é B., D áz, G., D áz, A., & Vald é, M. (2008). El art ículo de revisi ón. *Revista Iberoamericana de Enfermería Comunitaria*, 1(6), 1–11. <http://ref.scielo.org/sf4xjh>.
- [12] Day, R. A. (2005). Cómo escribir y publicar trabajos científicos. (Tercera ed, Vol. 0). Organizaci ón Panamericana de la Salud.
- [13] Reyes, M. (2012). Spontaneous Biliteracy: Examining Latino Students' Untapped Potential. *Theory Into Practice*, 51(4), 248–255. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00405841.2012.726052>.
- [14] Delbridge, A., & Helman, L. A. (2016). Evidence-Based Strategies for Fostering Biliteracy in Any Classroom. *Early Childhood Education Journal*, 44(4), 307–316. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10643-015-0712-7>.
- [15] Evans, S. (2013). The Long March to Biliteracy and Trilingualism: Language Policy in Hong Kong Education Since the Handover. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 33, 302–324. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0267190513000019>.
- [16] Fr ánquiz, M. E., Leija, M. G., & Garza, I. (2015). "Figuring" Bidirectional Home and School Connections Along the Biliteracy Continuum. *Bilingual Research Journal*, 38(2), 152–171. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15235882.2015.1063552>.
- [17] Fr ánquiz, M. E., & Ortiz, A. A. (2012). Coeditors' Introduction: Home, School, and Program Influences on Bilingualism and Biliteracy. *Bilingual Research Journal*, 35(November 2014), 253–257. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15235882.2012.736846>.
- [18] Gentil, G. (2011). A biliteracy agenda for genre research. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 20(1), 6–23. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2010.12.006>.
- [19] Giambo, D., & Szecsi, T. (2015). Promoting and maintaining Bilingualism and biliteracy. *The Open Communication Journal*, 9, 56–60.

- [20] Gort, M. (2008). "You give me idea!": Collaborative strides toward bilingualism, biliteracy, and cross-cultural understanding in a two-way partial immersion program. *Multicultural Perspectives*, 10(4), 192–200. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15210960802526086>.
- [21] Granados, N. R. (2017). Mobilities of Language and Literacy Ideologies: Dual Language Graduates' Bilingualism and Biliteracy. *Journal of Literacy Research*, 49(2), 210–239. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1086296X16686143>.
- [22] Haneda, M., & Monobe, G. (2009). Bilingual and biliteracy practices Japanese adolescents living in the United States. *Journal of Asian Pacific Communication*, 19(1), 7–29. <https://doi.org/10.1075/japc.19.1.02han>.
- [23] Hornberger, N. H. (2007). Biliteracy, transnationalism, multimodality, and identity: Trajectories across time and space. *Linguistics and Education*, 18(3–4), 325–334. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.linged.2007.10.001>.
- [24] Hornberger, N. H., & Link, H. (2012a). Translanguaging and transnational literacies in multilingual classrooms: a biliteracy lens. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 15(3), 261–278. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2012.658016>.
- [25] Hornberger, N. H., & Link, H. (2012b). Translanguaging in Today's Classrooms: A Biliteracy Lens. *Theory Into Practice*, 51(4), 239–247. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00405841.2012.726051>.
- [26] Hu, R., & Commeyras, M. (2008). A case study: Emergent biliteracy in English and Chinese of a 5-year-old chinese child with wordless picture books. *Reading Psychology*, 29(1), 1–30. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02702710701260581>.
- [27] Jared, D., Cormier, P., Levy, B. A., & Wade-Woolley, L. (2011). Early Predictors of Biliteracy Development in Children in French Immersion: A 4-Year Longitudinal Study. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 103(1), 119–139. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0021284>.
- [28] Kang, J. Y. (2012). Bilingual PA and its influence on biliteracy for Korean English as a foreign language learners. *Reading and Writing*, 25(6), 1307–1326. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11145-011-9319-6>.
- [29] Kwon, H. J., & Schallert, D. L. (2016). Understanding translanguaging practices through a biliteracy continua framework: Adult biliterates reading academic texts in their two languages. *Bilingual Research Journal*, 39(2), 138–151. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15235882.2016.1167139>.
- [30] Lindholm-Leary, K. (2014). Bilingual and biliteracy skills in young Spanish-speaking low-SES children: Impact of instructional language and primary language proficiency. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 17(2), 144–159. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2013.866625>.
- [31] Lü, C. (2017). The Roles of Pinyin Skill in English-Chinese Biliteracy Learning: Evidence From Chinese Immersion Learners. *Foreign Language Annals*, 50(2), 306–322. <https://doi.org/10.1111/flan.12269>.
- [32] Lucero, A. (2010). Dora's program: A constructively marginalized paraeducator and her developmental biliteracy program. *Anthropology and Education Quarterly*, 41(2), 126–143. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1548-1492.2010.01074.x>.
- [33] Medina, C., Jo, S., Bobmztjt, U. I. F., Ipx, T., Tuvefout, U. I. F., Bsf, S., Npwnfntout, U. (2010). Translocal Discourses and Cultural Flows in Literature Discussions, 45(1), 40–60.
- [34] Mein, E. (2012). Biliteracy in context: the use of L1/L2 genre knowledge in graduate studies. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 15(6), 653–667. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2012.699946>.
- [35] Menard-Warwick, J. (2007). Biliteracy and schooling in an extended-family Nicaraguan immigrant household: The sociohistorical construction of parental involvement. *Anthropology & Education Quarterly*, 38(2), 119–137. <https://doi.org/10.1525/aeq.2007.38.2.119.119>.
- [36] Miles, M. B., & Huberman, M. A. (2009). *Qualitative data analysis: An expanded sourcebook*, Thousand Oaks: SAGE Publ.
- [37] Nakamura, P. R., Koda, K., & Joshi, R. M. (2014). Biliteracy acquisition in Kannada and English: A developmental study. *Writing Systems Research*, 6(1), 132–147. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17586801.2013.855620>.
- [38] Ngan, H. Y. W. (2009). Developing biliteracy through studying the bilingual representation phenomenon in translation texts. *Babel*, 55(1), 40–57. <https://doi.org/10.1075/babel.55.1.03nga>.
- [39] Obied, V. M. (2010). Can one - parent families or divorced families produce two - language children? An investigation into how Portuguese-English bilingual children acquire biliteracy within diverse family structures. *Pedagogy, Culture & Society*, 18(2), 227–243. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14681366.2010.488047>.
- [40] Proctor, C. P., & Silverman, R. D. (2011). Confounds in Assessing the Associations Between Biliteracy and English Language Proficiency. *Educational Researcher*, 40(2), 62–64. <https://doi.org/10.3102/0013189X11403138>.
- [41] Pu, C. (2010). The Influence of Heritage Language and Public Schools on Chinese American Children's Biliteracy Development. *Bilingual Research Journal*, 33(2), 150–172. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15235882.2010.503459>.
- [42] Rauch, D. P., Naumann, J., & Jude, N. (2012). Metalinguistic awareness mediates effects of full biliteracy on third-language reading proficiency in Turkish-German bilinguals. *International Journal of Bilingualism*, 16(4), 402–418. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1367006911425819>.
- [43] Reddy, P. P., & Koda, K. (2013). Orthographic constraints on phonological awareness in biliteracy development. *Writing Systems Research*, 5(1), 110–130. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17586801.2012.748639>.
- [44] Reyes, I., & Azuara, P. (2008). Emergent biliteracy in young Mexican immigrant children. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 43(4), 374–398. <https://doi.org/10.1598/RRQ.43.4.4>.
- [45] Reyes, I., Kenner, C., Moll, L. C., Orellana, M. F., Reyes, I., & Moll, L. C. (2012). Biliteracy Among Children and Youths. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 47(3), 307–327. Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org.ez.unisabana.edu.co/stable/pdf/43497522.pdf>.
- [46] Ro, Y. E., & Cheatham, G. A. (2009). Biliteracy and Bilingual Development in a Second-Generation Korean Child: A Case Study. *Journal of Research in Childhood Education*, 23(3), 290–308. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02568540909594662>.
- [47] Rodriguez-Valls, F., Montoya, M., & Valenzuela, P. (2014). Biliteracy Summer Schools: Breaking the Cycle of Monolingualism in Migrant Families. *Childhood Education*, 90(2), 107–115. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00094056.2014.894813>.
- [48] Rodríguez, J. L., & Cadiero-Kaplan, K. (2008). Bilingualism & biliteracy: Issues of equity, access, & social justice for English language learners: Introduction to this special issue. *Equity & Excellence in Education*, 41(3), 275–278. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10665680802179139>.

- [49] Rubinstein-Ávila, E., Sox, A. A., Kaplan, S., & McGraw, R. (2015). Does Bilingual + Mathematical Discourse = Binumerate Development? Language Use in a Middle School Dual-Language Mathematics Classroom. *Urban Education*, 50(8), 899–937. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0042085914536997>.
- [50] Sandra I. Musanti. (2015). “Porque se los Dos Idiomas.” *Biliteracy Beliefs and Bilingual Preservice Teacher Identity*, 24. <https://doi.org/10.1108/S1479-3687201524>.
- [51] Smith, P. H., & Murillo, L. A. (2013). Repositioning biliteracy as capital for learning: lessons from teacher preparation at the US–Mexico border. *International Journal of Qualitative Studies in Education*, 26(3), 301–323. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09518398.2012.762473>.
- [52] Soltero-González, L., Sparrow, W., Butvilofsky, S., Escamilla, K., & Hopewell, S. (2016). Effects of a Paired Literacy Program on Emerging Bilingual Children’s Biliteracy Outcomes in Third Grade. *Journal of Literacy Research: JLR*, 48(1), 80. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1086296X16653842>.
- [53] Soto, M. E. (2012). Guiding biliteracy development: Appropriating cross-linguistic and conceptual knowledge to sustain second-language reading comprehension. *Bilingual Research Journal*, 35(November 2014), 179–196. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15235882.2012.703638>.
- [54] Toloa, M., McNaughton, S., & Lai, M. (2009). Biliteracy and language development in Samoan bilingual classrooms: the effects of increasing English reading comprehension. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 12(5), 513–531. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13670050802366465>.
- [55] Walt, C., & Dornbrack, J. (2011). Academic biliteracy in South African higher education: strategies and practices of successful students. *Language, Culture and Curriculum*, 24(1), 89–104. <https://doi.org/10.1080/07908318.2011.554985>.
- [56] Wang, M., Ko, I. Y., & Choi, J. (2009). The importance of morphological awareness in Korean-English biliteracy acquisition. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 34(2), 132–142. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cedpsych.2008.12.002>.
- [57] Wang, M., Yang, C., & Cheng, C. (2009). The contributions of phonology, orthography, and morphology in Chinese–English biliteracy acquisition. *Applied Psycholinguistics*, 30(2), 291. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0142716409090122>.
- [58] Worthy, J., Nuñez, L., & Espinoza, K. (2016). “Wow, I get to choose now!” Bilingualism and biliteracy development from childhood to young adulthood. *Bilingual Research Journal*, 39(1), 20–34. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15235882.2016.1139518>.
- [59] Yeung, S. S., & Ganotice, F. A. (2014). The Role of Phonological Awareness in Biliteracy Acquisition Among Hong Kong Chinese Kindergarteners Who Learn English-as-a-Second Language (ESL). *Asia-Pacific Education Researcher*, 23(3), 333–343. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s40299-013-0108-7>.
- [60] Zhang, D., & Koda, K. (2014). Awareness of derivation and compounding in Chinese–English biliteracy acquisition. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 17(1), 55–73. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2012.736949>.
- [61] Zhang, D., Koda, K., & Sun, X. (2014). Morphological awareness in biliteracy acquisition: A study of young Chinese EFL readers. *International Journal of Bilingualism*, 18(6), 570–585. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1367006912450953>.



John J. Ducuara was born on August 7, 1988, in Bogotá Colombia. He obtained his degree in languages, English, French and Spanish at Salle University, Bogotá Colombia, 2012. He is developing his master’s degree in educational computing at Sabana University and his research focus on educational technology and biliteracy.

He has work as English teacher in several institutions, such as private schools, as a high school English and literature teacher. In addition, He has work with kids in a cultural center. The current job is as English teacher at San Bartolomé la Merced, he has been working there for three years in preschool section.



Hugo A. Rozo was born on September 6, 1985, in Bogotá Colombia. He obtained his degree in Information Systems and Documentation at Salle University, Bogotá Colombia, 2012. He then obtained his master’s degree in educational computing, at Sabana University, Chia, Colombia, 2015. From his undergraduate to master’s degree, his action field has been the social sciences. Finally, he is developing his Doctorate in Education studies at Sabana University and his research focus on educational technology.

He has been working for four years as a professor and researcher at Sabana University, in Chia, Colombia, specifically at the Technology Center for the Academy, where he directs undergraduate and postgraduate classes. He leads a research project related to educational practices of the 21st century and in his PhD he is researching the theories of experiential learning with technology. Among the activities carried out at the University, he is the coordinator of a Seedbed of Research in Digital Competence. He has published articles and book chapters related to the field of research.

Hennig, C., Rozo, H., & Segovia, Y. (2016). Training professors in ICT: Personal Learning Environments. A grounded theory research study. *Journal of e-Learning and Knowledge Society*, 12(1).

Rozo, H. (2016). Desarrollo de la competencia digital en estudiantes universitarios: un estudio de caso. *Opción*, 32(10).

Ramírez, M., Celis, M., Rodríguez, L., & Rozo, H. (2017). El grafiti como artefacto comunicador de las ciudades: Una revisión de literatura. *Encuentros*, 15 (1), 77-89. doi:<http://dx.doi.org/10.15665/re.v15i1.812>

Prof. Rozo, belongs as a researcher to the research group Proventus, classified by Colciencias in A category. He is a researcher of the Observatory of Technology and Educational Innovation, belongs to the academic committee of the Ibero-American Network of Researchers in Innovation and Educational Technology RIIITED, and he is organizer of the International Congress of Technology and Educational Innovation (CITIE). Last year, he won an award from the Ministry of Culture of Colombia, for designing an innovative service with the use of ICT.

An Assessment of Chinese Adult Learners' English Phonological Awareness*

Min Hu

Southwest University of Political Science & Law, Chongqing, China

Abstract—The present study aims to conduct a valid comprehensive assessment of Chinese adult learners' phonological awareness (PA) in English. To do so, 408 college students were classified into three groups based on their English proficiency; four tasks (oddity, segmentation, blending, and deletion) with varying complexity employed to test all three levels of PA (syllable awareness, onset-rhyme awareness, and phoneme awareness). The results revealed that 1) overall PA improved with English proficiency; 2) among four tasks, only the performances on oddity were not significantly affected by English proficiency; 3) English proficiency attained significance for all three levels of PA; and 4) in terms of subtest where task and PA interacted, English proficiency's impact was mediated by the complexity of task and level of PA. This study is meant to guide PA researchers on a valid PA assessment and Chinese English teachers on PA training for their Chinese English learners.

Index Terms—phonological awareness, PA assessment, Chinese English learners

I. INTRODUCTION

Phonological awareness (PA) is an important language skill unfamiliar to Chinese English teachers. They have gone to great lengths to improve their Chinese learners' English proficiency with neglect of the causes of their students' problems with English learning. PA has been found to a factor integral to L1 or L2 language skills such as pronunciation, spelling, listening, and reading (e.g., Carson, Gillon & Boustead, 2013; Cheung, 1999; Fracasso, 2016; Liberman et al., 1974; Stainthorp et al., 2013; Tang, 2009; Wade-Wolley, 2016). Therefore, knowledge of PA research is indispensable to Chinese English teachers in that the former will guide the latter on enhancing their students' English skills by boosting their PA first. Then, what is PA? According to Treiman and Zukowsik (1996), PA is an awareness of a word's phonological structure. Specifically, a word can be divided into syllables, a syllable segmented into an onset and a rhyme, and then a word further divided into phonemes. Accordingly, PA is commonly accepted as a holistic skill consisting of three levels of awareness: syllable awareness, onset-rhyme awareness, and phoneme awareness. Research on Chinese learners' PA in English is abundant, but with limitations: 1) primarily targeting child learners in an ESL environment, 2) focusing on phoneme awareness, and 3) testing three levels of PA using different tasks. As a result, the present study intends to not only add to PA research on Chinese English learners, but also provide implications for Chinese English teachers by assessing PA in English of adult English learners in China.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

In the past 30 years, research on English PA of Chinese English learners in China have been focused on the relationship between PA and children's reading, with the finding that PA is essential to the improvement of beginning English learners' reading skills (e.g., Dong & Wen, 2010; Li, Tao & Dong, 2011; Sun et al., 2015). Other researchers (e.g., Holm & Dodd, 1996; Li et al., 2011; Lin et al., 2011; Xu & Dong, 2005) have investigated factors that could facilitate or hinder Chinese English learners' PA and found that language experience such as spoken language, bilingualism, or Mandarin learning can actually boost Chinese learners' PA in English. However, scarce research has centered on a comprehensive assessment of English PA skills of Chinese learners, either child or adult.

Pan (2012) investigated the phoneme awareness of Chinese students (N=294) in elementary school, middle school, high school, and university. Adapted from Stahl & Murray (1994), the testing measures included four phoneme tasks: 1) blending several sounds (say, /k/, /a/, /t/) into a word (/kat/); 2) isolating one sound from a word (e.g., /fud/—/f/); 3) deleting one sound from a word and then pronouncing the rest (e.g., /cat/-/at/); and 4) segmenting a word (say, /fat/) into phonemes (/f/-/a/-/t/). The results showed that in terms of task, isolation was the easiest, followed by blending, deletion, and segmentation. Pan attributed this finding to more difficult processing skills required by deletion and segmentation. In terms of age, development of phoneme awareness was the fastest from grades one to three, arriving at the peak at grade three, and then declined to a slow but steady growth after grade three.

Pan & Gai (2013) compared English PA between 294 Chinese speakers and 109 English speakers ranging from elementary school to college. The subjects completed blending and segmentation for syllable awareness; blending and

* Sponsored by the Ministry of Education of PRC (13YJC740031) and Southwest University of Political Science & Law (2013-XZRCXM006).

oddity for onset-rhyme awareness; and blending, isolation, deletion, and segmentation for phoneme awareness. The results revealed different developmental patterns for both groups: English speakers had already developed strong PA skills by grade three while Chinese speakers' PA developed the fastest from grades one to three, but still comparatively weak. As the grade increased, the gap between two groups did not decrease because Chinese speakers lacked sufficient English input to improve their PA skills.

Bai's study (2014) focused solely on Chinese adult learners' PA in English. The study examined 178 college students who were divided into two groups based on their English proficiency with dissimilar tasks for three levels of PA. For syllable awareness, syllable counting and segmentation were used. For rhyme awareness, there were rhyme oddity (select the word that did not rhyme with the other two) and identification (find the word out of four that rhymed with the token). For onset-rhyme awareness, employed were isolation (isolate the onset or rhyme of a token) and creation (give a word that had the same onset or rhyme with the token). For phoneme awareness, the subjects were tested on phoneme processing by means of identification, segmentation, blending, substitution, and deletion as well as on phoneme creation by telling a required sound in letters or words. The results displayed that the upper-level group had significantly better PA skills than the lower-level group on all measures.

Xu & Zhang (2015) also examined college students ($N=159$). They employed two tasks for all three levels of PA: syllable same or different and syllable counting; onset or rhyme oddity as well as onset and rhyme transposition (swap the onset and rhyme and then write down the IPA of the resulting new word); and phoneme differentiation and counting. The results manifested that the performance on onset-rhyme awareness was significantly better than that on syllable awareness which was significantly better than that on phoneme awareness. The authors interpreted this finding as consistent with the developmental trajectory of PA in which rhyme awareness develops the earliest. They were surprised that the subjects failed to score high enough on syllable awareness tasks, but attributed this result to Chinese students' poor phonetic knowledge, esp. of syllables. In terms of task, the score on differentiation was significantly higher than that on counting because, based on the authors, the two tasks imposed differing cognitive processing skills on the subjects: Differentiation required a holistic awareness while counting called for a more difficult skill—deletion.

Some other PA studies also targeted Chinese college students, but for different purposes. For example, Yu (2010) investigated the relationship between PA and vocabulary output. He used a battery of tasks to test 52 non-English majors: syllable counting and differentiation; rhyme differentiation and oddity; and onset or coda differentiation and oddity. The results revealed a positive correlation between the subjects' PA and their use of vocabulary as well as a predictive effect of the former on the latter. Yang & Zhang (2015) studied the relationship between PA and reading skill. Thirty English majors completed syllable blending and segmentation; onset-rhyme blending and oddity; and phoneme blending, deletion, isolation, and segmentation. The results showed that PA was positively correlated with reading and that onset-rhyme awareness was most closely correlated with reading. Hu (2013) explored the effect of PA in Mandarin on English PA using six tasks: syllable oddity, syllable counting, onset oddity, rhyme oddity, phoneme oddity, and phoneme counting. The results displayed that the subjects' performances on the four oddity tasks suggested a difficulty order for the four types of PA: syllable < phoneme < onset < rhyme and that PA in Mandarin significantly affected overall PA and all types of PA. Hu ascribed the lowest score on rhyme tasks to the difference in testing materials in that two-syllable words were employed for rhyme tasks while only one-syllable ones for phoneme tasks.

The literature review has pointed to insufficient research on an assessment of Chinese adult learners' PA in English and thus a necessity for more studies in this field. The question then is how to assess PA in a valid way. To answer this question, Lewkowicz (1980) reviewed previous PA studies and observed that researchers usually did not consider the variety and complexity of PA tasks, which could threaten the validity of research results. To solve this problem, Adams (1990) divided PA measures into five levels in the order of difficulty: 1) memorizing familiar rhymes, 2) oddity tasks of detecting the rhyme and alliteration, 3) blending and syllable-splitting tasks, 4) phoneme segmenting tasks, and 5) creating a new word by manipulating a phoneme in the original word.

Apart from task variety and complexity, two more factors vital to the validity of PA research should be considered. The first one is to assess three levels of PA with the same tasks for valid comparisons between the three levels; the second one consider different levels of subjects' English proficiency for a more accurate investigation of learners' English PA. The aforesaid studies on Chinese college students' PA failed to take into consideration all the above factors. Accordingly, the present study aimed to conduct a valid comprehensive assessment of Chinese college students' English PA. To achieve this goal, we not only varied PA tasks but homogenized tasks for the three levels of PA; we also categorized the subjects based on their English proficiency to explore how PA skills would vary with the English level.

III. METHOD

A. Participants

The participants were 408 sophomores with non-English majors from a first-class university in Mainland China. All with at least seven-year English learning, they varied in English proficiency. They were classified into three groups based on their scores on the English final exam of last semester, which tested speaking, listening, reading, and writing skills. The upper-level group had 85 students with a score 75 or above ($M = 78.56$, $SE = 0.47$); the intermediate group consisted of 220 ones with a score between 60 and 74 ($M = 67.64$, $SE = 0.29$); and the lower-level group had 103 ones with a score of 60 or below ($M = 53.50$, $SE = 0.43$). The one-way ANOVA revealed that there was a significant group

difference ($F = 791.6139$, $p < .0001$). The Turkey-Kramer HSD analysis showed a significant difference between any two groups (all $ps < .0001$).

B. Materials

Adapted from Hu (2018), the audio English PA test included three sets of subtests for each level of PA (syllable, onset-rhyme, and phoneme); each set consisted of the same four tasks (oddity, blending, segmentation, and deletion) with varying difficulty. All together, there were 12 subtests with ten items each. Since using the same tasks to assess the same level of PA, this design assured more valid comparisons between different levels of PA skills. So did it a comprehensive assessment because the subjects' PA was examined across both task and level of PA.

Oddity instructed the subjects to identify the word out of three which had a different syllable, onset or rhyme, or initial phoneme. Segmentation asked the subjects to divide a word into its components: syllables, an onset and a rhyme, or phonemes. Blending required the subjects to blend into a word several sounds (two syllables, an onset and a rhyme, or four phonemes). Deletion instructed the subjects to delete a syllable, an onset or rhyme, or an initial phoneme and then provide the remainder. All test items, recorded by one English native speaker into mp3 files, were fake words complying with English phonological structures to control for the word frequency.

C. Procedure

We divided the subjects into three groups at random with approximately the same number of students and assigned a different experimenter to each group. The subjects of the same group were tested one by one in the experimenter's office. For each subtest, the experimenter instructed the subjects with simple guidance, two demonstration items, and three practice items with answers. After that, the experimenter played the test items in the mp3 files via the Window Media Player on the office computer. The subjects were allowed five seconds for each item to provide their answers which were recorded by a recorder on the computer. It took approximately one hour to test one subject.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Tables I and II display the subjects' performances as four sets of mean scores and standard errors by overall PA, task, level of PA, and subtest. The PA performances of participating college students will be analyzed based on their English proficiency as follows.

TABLE I.
MEANS AND STANDARD ERRORS BY OVERALL PA, TASK, AND LEVEL OF PA

Measures		Subjects All $N = 408$	English proficiency		
			Upper-level $N = 85$	Inter-mediate $N = 220$	Lower-level $N = 103$
Overall PA		5.96 (0.08)	6.29 (0.09)	6.09 (0.09)	5.50 (0.08)
Task	Oddity	8.61 (0.07)	8.64 (0.08)	8.70 (0.06)	8.49 (0.08)
	Segmentation	7.32 (0.10)	7.53 (0.13)	7.74 (0.08)	7.06 (0.11)
	Blending	3.22 (0.08)	3.79 (0.10)	3.45 (0.07)	2.58 (0.10)
	Deletion	4.51 (0.09)	5.20 (0.12)	4.72 (0.07)	3.89 (0.11)
Level of PA	Syllable	6.52 (0.10)	6.89 (0.14)	6.70 (0.09)	6.10 (0.13)
	Onset-rhyme	6.01 (0.13)	6.43 (0.17)	6.19 (0.11)	5.53 (0.16)
	Phoneme	5.22 (0.12)	5.54 (0.12)	5.37 (0.08)	4.88 (0.11)

TABLE II.
MEANS AND STANDARD ERRORS BY SUBTEST

Measures		Subjects All $N = 408$	English proficiency		
			Upper-level $N = 85$	Inter-mediate $N = 220$	Lower-level $N = 103$
Oddity	Syllable	9.54 (0.08)	9.41 (0.17)	9.60 (0.10)	9.51 (0.15)
	Onset-rhyme	9.10 (0.08)	9.26 (0.17)	9.17 (0.10)	8.81 (0.15)
	Phoneme	7.24 (0.08)	7.22 (0.17)	7.31 (0.10)	7.13 (0.15)
Segmentation	Syllable	7.09 (0.08)	7.36 (0.17)	7.07 (0.10)	6.91 (0.15)
	Onset-rhyme	8.37 (0.08)	8.63 (0.17)	8.50 (0.10)	7.89 (0.15)
	Phoneme	6.67 (0.08)	6.66 (0.17)	6.78 (0.10)	6.45 (0.15)
Blending	Syllable	4.06 (0.08)	4.28 (0.17)	4.34 (0.10)	3.30 (0.15)
	Onset-rhyme	2.98 (0.08)	3.66 (0.17)	3.01 (0.10)	2.36 (0.15)
	Phoneme	2.90 (0.08)	3.55 (0.17)	2.98 (0.10)	2.21 (0.15)
Deletion	Syllable	5.63 (0.08)	6.60 (0.17)	5.70 (0.10)	4.72 (0.15)
	Onset-rhyme	3.83 (0.08)	4.28 (0.17)	4.03 (0.10)	3.07 (0.15)
	Phoneme	4.30 (0.08)	4.78 (0.17)	4.33 (0.10)	3.85 (0.15)

English proficiency had a significant effect on overall PA ($F = 26.7628$; $p < .0001$). The upper-level group's score ($M = 6.29$) was higher than the intermediate group ($M = 6.09$), but the difference was not significant ($p = 0.1187$). The intermediate group scored significantly better than the lower-level group ($M = 5.50$) ($p < .0001$). Analyzed from task, the effect of English proficiency attained significance for all tasks but oddity ($F = 2.3157$; $p = 0.0991$). Although no significant difference was found between the upper-level and intermediate groups ($p = 0.9130$) for segmentation, the

difference was significant between any two groups for blending and deletion (all $ps < .05$). Analyzed from the level of PA, English proficiency exerted a highly significant effect on all three phonological units (all $ps < .0001$). A significant difference showed not between the upper-level and intermediate groups, but between the intermediate and lower-level groups for all three levels (all $ps < .005$). Analyzed from the 12 subtests, English proficiency significantly affected eight ones: onset-rhyme oddity; onset-rhyme segmentation; syllable, onset-rhyme, and phoneme blendings; and syllable, onset-rhyme, and phoneme deletions (all $ps < .001$).

The results shed light on a potent facilitative role of English proficiency in English PA performances. This factor had a strong effect on overall PA, all tasks but oddity, as well as all levels of PA. This study has demonstrated that English proficiency improves L2 learners' PA in English. Higher proficiency entails larger vocabulary size. With more words added to learners' repertoire, as Gorman (2012, p. 110) proposes, "their phonological systems become more sensitive to the sound differences between words". In turn, this process may further foster skills of manipulating phonological segments, thus promoting PA development.

For all language groups, their scores on syllable awareness were the highest while those on phoneme awareness the lowest. This finding replicated previous research with either native or nonnative speakers of English (e.g., Liberman et al., 1974; Pan & Gai, 2013; Treiman & Baron, 1981; Treiman & Zukowski, 1991), in that syllable awareness developing earliest poses less difficulty than onset-rhyme awareness which in turn is easier than phoneme awareness developing the last. The reason is that to decode a larger unit like syllables requires lower level awareness of intraword structures than such a smaller unit as phonemes.

However, high English proficiency did not guarantee a causal relationship between English proficiency and PA in English. The results revealed that the higher-level and intermediate groups did not differ significantly from each other in overall PA, the segmentation task, and all levels of PA even if the main effects were significant for these measures. These non-significant differences could be due to the assignment of subjects to three language groups rather than to higher- and lower-level groups, which may have reduced cross-group differences.

In addition, English proficiency failed to significantly affect the oddity task which obtained the highest score among four tasks. Its effects reached significance for one oddity subtest and one segmentation subtest, but all three blending subtests and all three deletion subtests. Considering that blending and deletion subtests obtained much lower scores than oddity and segmentation subtests, the findings demonstrate that the facilitative role of English proficiency is constrained by the type of processing skills. PA seems to "develop along a continuum of skills, including tasks that represent a range of difficulty" (Sodoro, Allinder, & Rankin-Erickson, 2002, p. 226). More difficult PA tasks require deeper awareness than easier ones (Treiman & Zukowski, 1991). Oddity only requires distinguishing sounds and thus surface-level awareness of the phonological structure of English whereas segmentation, blending, and deletion require more sophisticated skills of manipulating subsyllabic units and thus deeper awareness. The gap in difficulty may explain the non-significant effect of English proficiency on the oddity task, but its significant effects on all three subtests of blending and deletion. What these findings, taken together, suggest is that while English proficiency exerts a definitive impact on overall PA in English, its impact on a specific level of PA is modified by the operative demands of a task.

V. CONCLUSION

This study assessed Chinese college students' English PA based on their English proficiency by diversifying tasks with varying difficulty and homogenizing tasks for the same level of PA. The results demonstrated how PA performances varied with English proficiency: Generally, the English level was an important facilitator for overall PA; specifically, its effects on the PA performances in terms of task were conditioned by the difficulty of processing skills required by a specific task, those in terms of level of PA by the phonological unit's size of a specific level of PA, and those in terms of subtest by the interplay between the difficulty of processing skills and size of phonological units.

Theoretically, the findings suggest the necessity for researchers to consider the possible effects of task, level of PA, and English proficiency to undertake a valid comprehensive assessment of Chinese English learners' PA in English. Pedagogically, the findings can guide English teachers on designing PA training which takes into account the interaction between complexity of task and level of PA to improve their students' PA in English. Future studies should explore more varieties of task (say, substitution, transposition, isolation, etc.) and consider other factors (such as L1 experience) to gain a further understanding of Chinese learners' English PA skills.

REFERENCES

- [1] Adams, M. J. (1990). *Beginning to read: Thinking and learning about print*. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.
- [2] Bai, L. (2014). An English phonological awareness scale for Chinese college English majors. *Foreign Language World*, 162, 79-87.
- [3] Carson, K. L., G. T. Gillon & T. M. Boustead. (2013). Classroom phonological awareness instruction and literacy outcomes in the first year of school. *Language, Speech, and Hearing Sciences in Schools*, 44, 147-160.
- [4] Cheung, H. (1999). Improving phonological awareness and word reading in a later learned alphabetic script. *Cognition*, 70, 1-26.
- [5] Dong, L. & S. Wen. (2010). The relationship between Chinese children's English phonological awareness and their spelling. *Studies of Psychology and Behavior*, 8, 146-149.

- [6] Fracasso, L. E., K. Bangs & K. S. Binder. (2016). The contributions of phonological and morphological awareness to literacy skills in the adult basic education population. *Journal of Learning Disabilities*, 49, 140-151.
- [7] Gorman, B. K. (2012). Relationships between vocabulary size, working memory, and phonological awareness in Spanish-speaking English language learners. *American Journal of Speech-Language Pathology*, 21, 109-123.
- [8] Holm, A. & B. Dodd. (1996). The effect of first written language on the acquisition of English literacy. *Cognition*, 59, 119-147.
- [9] Hu, M. (2013). A Preliminary Study on the Development of Chinese College Students' English Phonological Awareness and Its Contributing Factors. *Foreign Language Learning Theory and Practice*, 2, 28-35.
- [10] Hu, M. (2018). L1 language experience and phonological awareness in English of Chinese college students. Unpublished work.
- [11] Lewkowicz, N. K. (1980). Phonemic awareness training: What to teach and how to teach it. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 72, 686-700.
- [12] Li, R., S. Chen, Y. Wang & G. Li. (2011). Children's phonological experience and their phonological awareness. *FLC (Foreign Languages in China)*, 39, 36-43.
- [13] Liberman, I. Y., D. Shankweiler, F. W. Fisher & B. Carter. (1974). Explicit syllable and phoneme segmentation in the young children. *Journal of Experimental Child Psychology*, 18, 201-212.
- [14] Lin, Y. L. Wang, Q. Qian & J. Qiu. (2011). The influence of Shanghai dialect on preschool children's Chinese phonological awareness. *Journal of Psychological Science*, 34, 414-417.
- [15] Pan, Y. (2012). Characteristics of mandarin-speaking students' English phonological processing development. *Foreign Languages and Their Teaching*, 6, 17-21.
- [16] Pan, Y. & X. Gai. (2013). A comparison of the developing trends of English phonological awareness between Mandarin-speaking students and English-speaking students. *Studies of Psychology and Behavior*, 11, 73-77.
- [17] Sodoro, J., R. Allinder & J. Rankin-Erickson. (2002). Assessment of phonological awareness: Review of methods and tools. *Educational Psychology Review*, 3, 223-260.
- [18] Stahl, S. A. & B. A. Murray. (1994). Defining phonological awareness and its relationship to early reading. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 86, 221-34.
- [19] Stainthorp, R., D. Powell & M. Stuart. (2013). The relationship between rapid naming and word spelling in English. *Journal of Research in Reading*, 36, 371-388.
- [20] Sun, B., B. Zhu, J. Chen & H. Zhu. (2015). The effects of phonological awareness training on the reading performance by child EFL learners in China. *Chinese Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 38, 339-354+369.
- [21] Tang, L. (2009). The correlation between phonological awareness and reading ability of adult Chinese EFL learners. Unpublished master's thesis. Chongqing University, Chongqing, China.
- [22] Treiman, R. & J. Baron. (1981). Segmental analysis ability: Development and relationship to reading ability. In G. E. MacKinnon, & T. G. Waller (Eds.), *Reading research: Advances in theory and practice*, Vol. 3. NY: Academic Press, 159-198.
- [23] Treiman, R. & A. Zukowski. (1991). Levels of phonological awareness. In S. A. Brady & D. P. Shankweiler (Eds.), *Phonological processes in literacy: A tribute to Isabelle Y. Liberman*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum, 67-83.
- [24] Treiman, R. & A. Zukowski. (1996). Children's sensitivity to syllables, onsets, rimes, and phonemes. *Journal of Experimental Child Psychology*, 61, 193-215.
- [25] Wade-Woolley, L. (2016). The contributions of prosodic and phonological awareness to reading. *Reading and Writing*, 29, 1-12.
- [26] Xu, F. & Q. Dong. (2005). Research on the relationship between development of Chinese and English phonological awareness in primary school. *Psychological Development and Education*, 1, 31-35.
- [27] Xu, Y. (2015). College Students' Chinese Phonological Experience and English Phonological Awareness. *Journal of Chengdu Normal University*, 32, 16-19.
- [28] Xu, Y. & X. Zhang. (2015). An empirical study on English phonological awareness development of non-English majors. *Journal of Zhejiang Sci-Tech University (Social Sciences)*, 34, 212-16.
- [29] Yang, X. & Z. Zhang. Correlation study of English major's phonological awareness and their English reading ability. *Journal of Zhaotong University*, 37, 99-102.
- [30] Yu, X. (2010). The Correlation between English phonological awareness and vocabulary output of non-English majors. *Technological Information (Heilongjiang)*, 30, 172.

Min Hu is an Associate Professor of English at the School of Foreign Languages, Southwest University of Political Science & Law, China. She obtained her Ph.D. degree in English from Auburn University, USA. She specializes in second language acquisition and teaching English as a foreign language.

The Face View of China and Foreign Countries under Cross-cultural Communication*

Qian Hong

University of Shanghai for Science and Technology, Shanghai, China

Gaofeng Yu

University of Shanghai for Science and Technology, Shanghai, China

Abstract—“MianZi” is something that everyone is pursuing, it is the combination of “Lian” and “Mian”. It refers to the psychological feeling that is obtained from the comments of others on our speech and behavior. “Having face” is the psychological feeling when one person obtains affirmation and praise, and “losing face” is the psychological feeling of suffering criticism or negation. “Lian” and “Mian” are quite different in their meanings. Pure face is beautiful and fascinating. It is just like a ordinary man, even though he looks very average, but when he is with a little decoration, a little powder, he looks charming at once. But in many times, there are always some people who want to win others' approval so that they can win face for themselves, so they do not hesitate to use improper means to achieve their personal goals, such faces are disgusting and rebarbative. The concept of “face” embodies people's values and relates to social morality. It should play an active role in promoting the harmonious development and stability of our society.

Index Terms—MianZi, psychological feelings, values, morality

I. INTRODUCTION

The Chinese view of face is of great significance from ancient times to the present time. The concept of “face” embodies people's values to the world, to life and to everything. In different cultural atmosphere, different understanding and feelings of “face” influence people's behaviors. Just as you can see, on the one hand, the “face” view of western countries is a reflection of western culture and on the other hand, the “face” view of China stands for the characteristics of Chinese culture. From this point, exploring and discussing the different “face” views under different cultures is helpful for us to give full play to the positive role of the “face” view, with which we can use its education function to promote the harmonious development and stability of our society. At the same time, it is helpful for us to study the foreign cultures and promote the cultural exchange and extend mutual contacts and development.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW OF FACE VIEW

It can be seen from the dictionary that “Mian Zi” originally means the front of human face, the surface and appearance of the objects. Later it is extended to face, face value and so on. As a result, it is usually regarded as something that is related to fame, reputation, prestige, goodwill, credit, integrity, loyalty, etc. In terms of the two words “Lian” and “Mian”, the history of the latter is much longer than that of the former one. As early as the 4th century BC, the word “Mian” had appeared and represented a symbolic meaning which refers to the relationship between an individual and his or her society. Comparing to this, “Lian” is a more modern word which has no such a long history. But from the sense of medical, it is the faces of human, the front of the head, which is from the forehead to the chin. The “Mian”, contrast to “Lian”, mainly refers to a person's “dignity”, “face”, “good name”, “self-pride” and “esteem”. The earliest allusions that were quoted in the Kangxi dictionary came from the Yuan Dynasty (1227 AD to 1367AD). The word appeared to come into being in northern China and gradually replaced the word “Mian” in a physical sense and gradually gained some symbolic meanings. At the same time, the word “Mian” which is combined with the abstract function word “Zi”, derived various meanings which it did not have before. But even so, “Mian” has more meanings than “Lian” for the reason that everyone of us has no more than one “Lian”, but it is no denying that we have many “Mian”---the good one, the bad one, the real one, fake one, the honest one, the disguising one and the tricky one. To some degree, the view about face significantly reflects the characteristics of Chinese culture. However, face is not limited to China, nor is it only the product of Oriental culture. Originally, it is used by the English community in China, with reference to the continual devices among the Chinese to avoid incurring or inflicting disgrace. The exact phrase appears not to occur in Chinese, but “to lose face”, and “for the sake of his face”, are common. In this way, it is absolutely reasonable that people in Western countries translate “Lian” and “Mian” into “face”. Except for that, there are many other expressions like “countenance” and “visage” which have the same meaning with “face”. As a

* This paper is supported by USST Humanities and Social Science Foundation 2017, (NO: SK2017ZD05)

consequence, there are many statements about face that are similar to that of in China. Such phrases as “lose face” and “save face” are often used in western countries. For example: She had been trapped beyond any chance of a face-saving lie. This sentence is the perfect one to illustrate the use of face in the West.

As a matter of fact, the concept of “face” is first introduced to the Western countries by Chinese anthropologists, Ms. Hsien Chin Hu (1944). On the basis of this concept, American scholar Erving Goffman (1967) discussed interpersonal relations in detail and provided a lot of data for sociolinguistics research. In his view, “face” is something that one pursues in the process he interacts with people. He makes adjustments to adapt to the communication. So, Goffman thinks such interaction is just like a kind of performance in which everyone shows their images by the appearance, information and behaviors. All of these can represent their ability and convey the message that they deserve respect. Brown and Levinson (1987) made a systematic study on “face”, and put forward the view of “face saving”. Scollon. R and S.W. Scollon (1995) further deepened the face view, and pointed out that face is sometimes full of paradoxes. But in later times, many scholars believed that face has different cultural characteristics in different cultural backgrounds. People in a culture choose strategies of face according to the cultural expectation and requirement.

III. CHINESE “FACE” THEORY

As is mentioned earlier, the notion of “face” in Chinese culture consists of two parts which are “Lian” and “Mian”, (Mao, 1994) whose definition was also studied by Ms. Hsien Chin Hu with semantic analysis in the first time. She defined “face” as “public recognition of a person's reputation and status achieved through success and ostentation”; and “Lian” as the respect from community for right behaviors and actions of one individual who accords with the social and internal ethical standards. (Ho, 1994)

The Chinese view of face is mainly derived from the spirit of “literati and bureaucrats” in the ancient times, and its main cause lies in “fear” of being “marginalized”, that is, so-called respect. Our country has been influenced by Confucian culture for a long time. From the start of it, Confucian culture has been teaching people to pay great attention to “propriety”, “righteousness”, “honesty” and “shame”, which are the four dimensions of the country, if all the four dimensions have been taken into consideration carefully, then the country will be rich and strong, the people in this country will all behave well and comply with the manners and etiquette. Confucius also held the opinion that “If one does not know the rites, he then has nothing to support himself, as a result, he can not have his own foot stand on the world,” meaning that everyone should act in accordance with the rules of etiquette, otherwise they will lose fame and face. Therefore, expressions of the concept of face which are most frequently used to describe Chinese daily life and communication are as follows: losing face, shameless, thick-skinned, decency, giving face, saving face and so on. Therefore, “face” view in Chinese culture is deeply rooted in its history and traditional culture. Such sentences as “People want faces, trees want skins”, “having no appearance to see old father and people in Jiangdong (the name of a place in Chinese history)” and “slapping one's face until it's swollen in an effort to look imposing” are all the best examples that vividly describe the face psychology of Chinese people. In addition, since ancient times, the concept of rank and superiority in the hierarchical system of China, such as “monarch and subject, father and son, old and young” and many other relationships showing the social status also showed the attitude of Chinese view of face. The way of preserving face carried out by those with higher status or higher rank is to safeguard their authority and positions. In such a hierarchical system, the relationship between people is vertical, which means that it emphasizes that individuals should strictly accord to their position in the hierarchy to regulate their own words and deeds, to the greatest extent from the group or society to which they belong to make sure they can achieve the standards of social ethics.

IV. WESTERN VIEW OF FACE

Brown and Levinson define face as the personal image that every member of society wants to earn for themselves in the public. (Brown & Levinson 1987:61) By communicating with others, this image can be damaged, lost, maintained, or enhanced, and therefore must be constantly attended to be in interpersonal interaction. In their view, politeness is the various rational behaviors of a Model Person (MP) to satisfy his face wants. A Model Person has two special properties --- rationality and face. And they think face is the public self-image that every member wants to claim for himself. It refers to that emotional and social sense of self that everyone has and expects everyone else to recognize. They are in favor of the fact that every social participant has two kinds of face, one is the positive face and the other is the negative face. Positive face is the hope of getting the approval, love, appreciation, praise and respect of others. It is the basic claim to territories, personal preserves, rights to non-distraction .i.e. to the freedom of action and freedom from imposition. And of course, Negative face is opposite to positive face and it refers to an individual's right of freedom of action and his/her need not to be imposed upon by others. In another word, positive face is the positive consistent self-image or “personality” (crucially including the desire that this self-image be appreciated and approved of) claimed by others. Negative face means the people do not want to pose threats to hearers, nor do they want to be posed. Anyone who keep this kind of face view will convey a message that they don't want to be forced by others in any forms and in anytime, their behavior is free from interference and hindrance, and they have the freedom to choose their own actions. (Brown & Levinson, 1987:62.)

V. DIFFERENCES OF FACE BETWEEN CHINA AND THE WEST

Because of the different cultural backgrounds, the view of face in China and the Western countries also reflects differences between the two sides. In the first place, Chinese take care of face, so they will do many things to “win face”, “struggle for face” and “save face”. Because of the influence of core value which names “harmony between nature and man” in traditional culture and the thought of “benevolence” put forward by Confucius, Chinese people always attach great attention to harmonious interpersonal relations, maintaining of social public order. They put their eyes on the “public face”, that is, in public places, if there is a conflict or collision, in order to make everyone “feel they have face”, Chinese always persuade themselves to cool down and not to quarrel with others face to face as soon as possible to maintain harmony on the scene. And, In daily life, “face struggle” is synonymous with “glory struggle”, “losing face” has the same meaning with “feeling shameful” and “being disgraceful”. From all the statements above, what the conclusion can be got is that the Chinese people's so-called “Lian” has a close relationship with “glory”, “courage”, “people”, “shame”, “manner”, etc. Face contains the meaning of “respect”, “love”, “praise”, “flattering”. It can be seen from this that the Chinese people's respect for face is also reflected in “human society” and “relationships”.

Considering the “human feelings” and “relation”. Chinese people always want to save face for others when dealing with their own relations with them. In many cases, Chinese minimize the benefit but maximize the cost to themselves so that they can keep the relation with others. And given the politeness principle, Chinese are accustomed to minimizing disagreement between self and others but maximizing agreement between each other even if someone is wrong, it should not be pointed out face to face. Even if they have suffered losses from the so-called “related” people or who they call “friends”, they can do nothing but bear all these bad things. This is what the famous Chinese saying goes ---A dumb person eats the bitterest medicine *Coptis chinensis*, he can not tell anybody that how terrible the taste is but feeling bad in his mind. He keeps silent in some matters for fear that others will think they are stingy and make them feel losing face if they speak it out.

Chinese love face, which may also refer to the courage or the backbone of spirit. As Lin Yutang described and analyzed face in 1936, the Chinese face can not only be washed and shaved, but it can also be humiliated, appreciated and contested. Face, sometimes seems the most important thing in our life, so, for saving face, it is worthwhile to do everything, even losing all the property and wealth, and nobody thinks it is too much. Therefore, Chinese face has something to do with “integrity” and “dignity”. For example, the story *Do not eat food in handouts* is such a story that describes a person who was so hungry but he refused to accept the food from others because the person who gave him the meal was not polite enough to him, which hurt the hungry person's dignity and made him feel insulted, so this person resolutely did not eat anything, and finally he starved to death. This story conveys the right view of face. There are also many other examples about “good face”. Those people who believe “An honourable death is better than a disgraceful life” and “An upright man prefers death to humiliation” are worthy of admiration. Chinese respect for face, which is also reflected in the attitude toward their vanity. In many places of China, especially some rural and country areas, many people think that when their daughters or sons get married or their families pass away, they hold the opinions that the greater the ceremony of marriage and funeral are, the better they will feel. They believe that doing like this can be a symbol of a “decent” performance and they hold the opinion that their sumptuous meals can show their richness. When treating, Chinese people are always accustomed to serve dishes as many as possible to show their generosity and keep constantly advising the guests eating more. Obviously, there are a lot of dishes already, but Chinese will definitely keep saying, “There is a little to eat, everybody just has a light meal.” All these things are done to let themselves have the chance to not lose face in front of people and get approval from others, and it is much better if they get praise and the envy from others. In the contrast, Westerners usually order only what guests like or what they like when they take an order, and when they finish their meal and ready to leave, they pack up the rest of the food without wasting it. But if Chinese take away the leftovers, they feel shameless and will be regarded as mean.

The Chinese view of face is also reflected in vanity and comparison. Nowadays, many parents in China tend to send their children to study abroad. In their eyes, it seems that sending their children abroad has more “foreign flavour” than at home. But as a matter of fact, many of these children are students that have not been admitted to university in China or have not been admitted to a good university, so they have to spend their own money to study abroad, by which way they can hide from the questioning. There are also some children who are sent abroad because their parents think that their neighbors' children have gone abroad and their families are not worse off than others, so they also send their children abroad to show that they are not poorer than others. But the result of sending children abroad is that they have to save money on food and expenses, otherwise they cannot afford the high fees of school. But what surprises us is that many children who go abroad do not necessarily study hard. Many of them are unable to keep up with the curriculum because of their different living habits, language difficulties and many other reasons, so they have not learned anything at all. What is even worse, some students behave badly and contract all kinds of bad habits during the time they stay abroad. It is common for the Chinese people to swallow insult and humiliation silently in order to preserve face. As the famous Chinese saying goes, “Domestic shame should not be made public”. It describes that some Chinese care about face and even encounter disreputable matters that are harmful to their families (in general, even some disrepute things about the country), sometimes also known as family troubles, such as impiety of their children, husbands' ill-treating to wives, women are raped by bad people, hen-pecked man, and many other things. Rather than speak them out, Chinese will keep their mouths shut for fear of being laughed at. Hence, when Chinese solve family disputes, the most

frequently sentence they say is “You have to swallow all the pain even you break your own teeth”. So, from this point, we can conclude that Chinese view of face is group-oriented, to which individual subordinate. By way of contrast, one feel not difficult that Chinese view of face does not contain the element of “negative face” defined by Brown and Levinson.

Unquestionably, the process of saving one’s face leads to curious results in other countries than China. Because westerners attach much importance to personal awareness and personal needs. So the face view in West countries emphasizes the feeling of satisfaction to freedom and personal desire of individual action. There is little difference in “positive face” between West countries and China, because when they are appreciated by others, it is almost the same between East and the West. However, Westerners attach greater importance to “negative face” than Chinese. In China, it is perfectly normal to give up one’s seats to “the old”, “the young”, “the sick”, “the disabled” and “the pregnant women.” Because all these people are considered to be in need of help, and that the right behaviors are when we meet them, we should offer our hands to them without second thought. For those people. They feel good when they are treated politely and finally they receive the help from others. What impresses us most is that these think it is the kindness of others, and in response to the kindness of others, they will choose to accept it. In Western countries, the behavior of “offering one’s seat to others” does not have the same effect as that of in China, and sometimes it may even cause misunderstanding and unhappiness to others. Because Westerners think that they no longer need help, so others’ offering help means that they regard him as a weak person and it is a behavior of disrespect for him. As a result, most of the time, westerners start by asking “May I help you?” to show respect to each other. Similarly, “negative face” is also reflected in different eating habits. Chinese hospitality urges them to constantly serve food for the guests and persuade them to “eat more”, which in fact violates the Westerners’ right of freedom because they don’t like to be forced. Therefore, they just simply say “Enjoy your food” or “Help yourself” to show respect for each other. Face view is also very different in form of address. In China, it is typical of people to call the elders whose age are same or approximately same with their seniors grandfather, grandmother, aunts, uncles, big brother and sister, even to outsiders who are not related by blood at all. This is in line with the “politeness principle” of Chinese face view. For those whose ranks are higher than themselves, people always look respectful and address each other with official positions, such as “Minister Zhang”, “Chief Li”, “Manager Wang” and so on. On the contrary, calling one’s name directly is considered disrespectful or impolite. But Westerners stress the idea that everyone is equal, with the exception of some special relatives. High officials seldom dictate to their subordinates or act as he pleases without considering the feelings of others, nor do they consider it a “face-saving” behavior to order others to do anything in front of other employees. On the contrary, they believe that mutual respect, equality and friendly cooperation are “face giving” to each other.

VI. THE REASONS FOR THE DIFFERENCES OF “FACE” BETWEEN CHINA AND THE WEST

The different views of face in China and Western countries have their own features based on their respective cultural characteristics. In order to better understand face view, it is necessary to go deep into specific culture to explore the reasons for their differences.

The western culture originated from the ancient Greek culture in the 20th century. Karl Jaspers, the German philosopher of history, once pointed out that the Greek city-states have laid foundation for the consciousness of freedom, of free thought in the West. Therefore, the western culture has been imprinted with democracy and freedom since its birth, especially the humanism in the Renaissance Period, which emphasizes “humanity” and opposes “God”, advocates the liberation of individuality and opposes religious shackles and asceticism. Affirming human nature and human values and demanding the enjoyment of the world lead to the pursuit of individual value in Western countries. The “negative face” in Western face view is formed in this kind of value pursuit.

Chinese culture originated from the Confucian culture two thousand years ago. Confucianism emphasizes “courtesy” and “manners”. In such a cultural system, the individual is a part of society, and has the obligation and responsibility to do his or her duty to make contribution to the construction of harmony in our society and the stability of the community. It is precisely in this relationship that the Chinese people have formed the habit of maintaining the image of the group and standardizing their own behaviors for the sake of “collective face”. Through which way, they try their best to reach the standard of social morality, get collective approval, gain face for themselves.

VII. CONCLUSION

The cultural differences between China and the West lead to different connotations of “face”. The face view in China is centered on collectivism, while westerners pay more attention to the “negative face” theory, which is centered on individualism. Both views have their instructive function to our interpersonal communication. As far as I am concerned, Chinese culture can absorb experience and lessons from the western theory of “negative face” so that we can make it correspond to China’s cultural view of “Do as you would be done by”, which can better promote the relationship among people. Apart from this, as Chinese are vulnerable to the influence of vanity and face psychology of “human relationship”, and they are apt to do things against morality and law for the sake of gaining face for the time being. As a result, here come several suggestions: 1. Everyone should clarify the relationship between face and dignity. They have to keep it in mind that dignity is good, it is a valuable quality that cannot be lost. Without dignity, even if we earn face,

it is only false, untrue and meaningless, and people cannot get true spiritual satisfaction from it. Also, do not seek face in the name of dignity. 2. We should have the courage to discipline ourselves and dare to fight against vanity. Vanity is a bad psychological reaction and is a psychological defect of human. Once dominated by vanity, blind striving of face will make one suffer enormous mental and economic pressure, which one cannot actually afford. 3. We can not give up the principle when pursuing face. No matter what we do, we should have our own bottom line, don't do things that are contrary to morality and you can not just save your own face by hurting others or damaging somebody's reputation. 4. Don't ignore the consequences when paying much attention to face. Any purposeful behavior has its corresponding consequences. We should take care of face in appropriate way and never do anything beyond our ability. 5. Always be kind and do somebody a favor when he or she is in need, only in this way can we better keep our face more brilliant and charming.

REFERENCES

- [1] Brown P. & Levinson S.C. (1987). *Politeness: Some Universals in Language. Usage: Politeness Phenomena*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- [2] Erving Goffman. (1967). *Interaction Ritual*. New York: Doubleday Anchor.
- [3] He Zhaoxiong. (2000). A new summary of pragmatics. Shanghai: Shanghai Foreign language Education Press.
- [4] Ho DYF (Jan.1976). On the Concept of Face. *American Journal of Sociology*, Vol. 81, No. 4, pp. 867-884.
- [5] Hsien Chin Hu&Huang Guangguo. (2004). *Face---the Chinese Game of Thrones*. Beijing: China Renmin University Press.
- [6] <http://baike.so.com/doc/6788417-7005026.html>(accessed 25/3/2018).
- [7] http://m.soh.com/a/142574906_662210(accessed 17/3/2018).
- [8] <http://www.doc88.com/p-6177023502054.html>(accessed 2/4/2018).
- [9] <http://cpc.people.com.cn/n/2014/0522/c64387-25048530.html>(accessed 29/12/2017).
- [10] http://top.chinaz.com/site_www.3Y.UU456.COM.html(accessed 2/4/2018).
- [11] Huo Xuewei. (2001). *Logic of Action in China*. Beijing: social sciences academic press.
- [12] Lin Yutang. (2015). *My Country and My People*. Wuhan: Changjiang Literature & A-rt Press.
- [13] Mao Luming. (1994). Beyond Politeness Theory: "face" Revisited and Renewed. *Journal of Pragmatics*, (12): 403-426.
- [14] Scollon, Ron and Suzanne Wong Scollon. (2000). *Intercultural Communication: A Discourse Approach*. Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching Press. Oxford: Blackwell Publishers Ltd.
- [15] Wu Tiejun. (2004). A review of the definition and function of "face". *Psychological Science*, 27(4), 927-930.

Qian Hong was in Hubei province, China in 1993. She is currently a postgraduate in the College of Foreign Languages, University of Shanghai for Science and Technology, Shanghai, China. Her major is Master of Translation and Interpretation.

Gaofeng Yu graduated from Nankai University in 1988. He is currently an Associate Professor at University of Shanghai for Science and Technology. His research interests mainly are cognitive linguistics and translation theory and practice.

Long Vowels and Nasal-consonant Sequences in Kisa

Emily Ayieta Ondondo

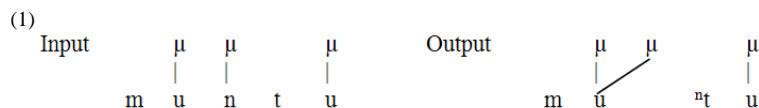
Department of Linguistics, Languages and Literature, Jaramogi Oginga Odinga University of Science and Technology (JOUST), P.O. Box 210-4060, Bondo, Kenya

Abstract—Nasal Consonant (NC) sequences, in Bantu languages, and the long vowels preceding them remains a puzzle in Bantu literature and research. This paper provides a descriptively oriented analysis of the relationship between long vowels and nasal consonant sequences in Kisa, a dialect of Luhya, a Bantu language spoken in Khwisero Constituency Western Province, Kenya. The data used in this paper was generated by the author as a native speaker of Kisa. The central descriptive fact is that NC sequences in words consisting of native Kisa morphemes are usually, but not obligatorily, preceded by long vowels.¹ As such, NC sequences usually appear as part of an overall VVNC sequence. This pattern is widely found in Bantu languages, and the modelling of this preference for VVNC sequences has been a significant topic in phonological research on Bantu languages. Kisa provides evidence against the predominant analysis of the VVNC preference in Bantu-compensatory lengthening. The paper shows that compensatory lengthening does not provide a well-motivated analysis of Kisa.

Index Terms—Bantu, Kisa, Nasal Consonant Sequences, compensatory lengthening

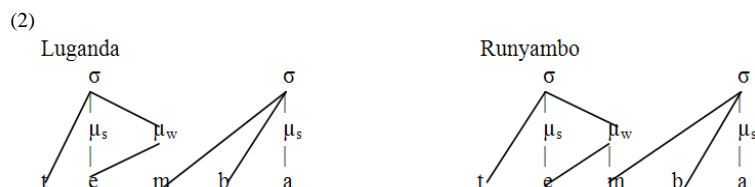
I. INTRODUCTION

The analysis of the origin of the long vowels preceding NC sequences in Bantu languages as compensatory lengthening was initially proposed by Clements (1986, p. 47, 52-53). Clements' original proposal was in terms of CV phonology. Its interpretation in moraic analyses (Downing, 2005, p. 185, Hubbard, 1995, p. 244, Hyman, 1992, p. 256, Maddieson & Ladefoged, 1993, p. 274-278, Tak, 2011, p. 134) is illustrated in (1).



As shown in (1), the compensatory lengthening analyses posit that the N is moraic in input representation. The moraic linkage of the N is not maintained in the output. Most analyses do not provide an explicit motivation for the non-maintenance of the moraic linkage of the N. Tak (2003, p. 507) proposes that phonological requirements, such as constraints against codas, and constraints against moraic consonants; provide a motivation for the change in linkage. In order to preserve the mora of the N, it is linked to the preceding vowel, thereby causing lengthening. In other words, the preceding long vowel is exhaustively explicable in terms of phonological requirements targeting the N in NC sequences. This is the principal advantage of the compensatory lengthening analysis. It provides a single phonological analysis for the distribution of VVNC sequences.

There is debate as to the output representation of the NC sequence. As indicated in (1), under the Clements analysis, the output is a singleton complex segment – a pre-nasalized stop. Hubbard (1995, p. 251) proposes that the NC sequence is a cluster, and that there is language specific variation in the nature of moraic linkage in the output.

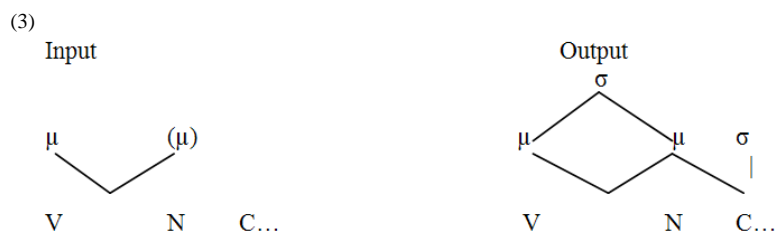


While Hubbard and Clements differ in their analyses of the NC sequence, both propose that it is a syllabic onset

Downing (2005, p. 186-190) argues against the compensatory lengthening analysis. She provides evidence that a VVNC output is cross-linguistically widespread, and that compensatory lengthening analyses cannot account for this preference in a number of non-Bantu languages. She surveys phonetic factors potentially motivating a VVNC output.

¹There are other Bantu languages where NC sequences may be preceded by short vowels: e.g. Kimatumbi (Odden, 1996, p. 136).

She suggests that vowels may be lengthened to avoid being confounded with a following nasal. She suggests also that the duration of homorganic NC sequences may be more similar to single segments than clusters.² The combination of these two factors further favours VVNC outputs. She proposes the input and output representations in (3) for NC sequences in Bantu languages (2005, p. 197).



Under Downing's analysis, the N is exhaustively syllabified as a coda.

The paper supports Downing's proposal that VVNC is an independent target, and that compensatory lengthening analyses cannot satisfactorily account for this target. The Kisa evidence against compensatory lengthening is different in nature to that considered by Downing. The Kisa evidence is morpho-phonological in nature, and concerns the factors conditioning the distribution of VVNC sequences in Kisa. The VVNC preference in Kisa is not solely governed by phonological factors. It is also partially governed by two morphological factors. First, the VVNC preference shows a greater consistency of attainment root-internally, than across affixal boundaries. Second, in some environments involving affixation, if a standard stem input would result in output form with a VNC sequence rather than a VVNC sequence, then an alternate non-standard stem is selected such that the output does involve a VVNC sequence.

The first factor, the distinction between root-internal domains and domains involving affixation, is a standard, independently supported component of general phonological theory. Its interaction with the VVNC preference does not affect the viability of compensatory lengthening analyses. The second factor, alternate stem choice to attain a VVNC output, is not a standard component of general phonological theory. It is this factor that the paper is principally concerned with. It provides the evidence that VVNC is a distinct target in Kisa, independent of any compensatory lengthening analysis.

In any consideration of morphologically governed data, the first question that arises is whether or not there is evidence that the patterns are productive. If patterns show significant lexicalization and/or irregularity, then they may not fall within the purview of synchronic morpho-phonological analysis. The paper shows that the VVNC preference in the native Kisa lexicon involves only minimal lexicalisation and/or irregularity. Further, it provides evidence from recent loan vocabulary that the preference for VVNC sequences over VNC sequences, including those involving alternate stem choice, is synchronically active in Kisa. Consequently, any synchronic analysis of Kisa must include the VVNC preference, and alternate stem selection to attain this preference.

While the paper supports the generality of Downing's analysis, it does not adopt her specific formal representations, as set out in (3). There are two reasons why the paper does not adopt her formal proposal, or indeed any other formal proposal. First, the potential alternate analyses require detailed phonetic and phonological evaluation of a range of issues: e.g. comparative length of NC vs singleton C; perceptual confoundability of VN sequences vs VVN sequences; motivations for the assignment of syllable boundaries. The proper evaluation of this range of issues is beyond the scope of this paper. Second, it is the aim of this paper to provide the data in as theory-neutral a fashion as possible, such that it is available for (re-)analysis in a variety of frameworks.

II. KISA SEGMENTAL INVENTORY AND ORTHOGRAPHY

The IPA representation of the Kisa consonantal inventory is presented in Table 1

TABLE 1:
KISA CONSONANTAL INVENTORY - IPA

	Bilabial	Labio-dental	Alveolar	Palato-alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Stops	p		t			k	
Affricates			ts	tʃ			
Fricatives	β	f	s	ʃ		x	h
Nasals	m		n	ɲ		ŋ	
Trill			r				
Lateral			l				
Glides	w				j		

Table 2 presents the practical orthography representation of the Kisa consonantal inventory.

² All NC clusters in Kisa are homorganic.

TABLE 2:
KISA CONSONANTAL INVENTORY – PRACTICAL ORTHOGRAPHY

	Bilabial	Labio-dental	Alveolar	Palato-alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Stops	p		t			k	
Affricates			ts	ch			
Fricatives	b	f	s	sh		kh	h
Nasals	m		n	ny		ng'	
Nas-Stop	mb		nd			ng	
Nas-Aff			nz	nj			
Trill			r				
Lateral			l				
Glides	w				y		

Kisa has a classic five vowel system /a, e, i, o, u/. Length is contrastive for all five vowels (See section B).

III. PARTS-OF-SPEECH AND MORPHOLOGICAL TEMPLATES

Kisa shows standard Bantu morphological patterns. It has three principal parts-of-speech: nominals, particles, and verbs. The basic morphological template for singular common nouns, plural common nouns, and plural proper nouns is set out in (4).

(4) Locative/Augment-Class marker-Root

The class system for common nouns is set out in Table 3.

TABLE 3:
COMMON NOUN CLASS SYSTEM

Singulars				Plurals			
	AUG	Cl	Semantic Domains		AUG	Cl	Semantic Domains
1	o-	mu-	Humans	2	a-	ba-	Regular plurals of class 1
3	o-	mu-	Trees, plants	4	e-	mi-	Regular plurals of classes 3 and 20
5a	Ø-	lii-	Fruits	6	a-	ma-	Regular plurals of class 5, liquid masses
5b	e-	li-					
7	e-	shi-	Nouns of manner	8	e-	bi-	Regular plurals of class 7
9a	i-	Ø-	Loans	10a	e-	tsi-	Regular plurals of class 9a
9b	i-	ny-	No clear semantic domain associations	10b	Ø-	tsiiny-	Regular plurals of class 9b
9c	i-	ny-	Gerunds with the meaning 'style or way of doing things'	10c	Ø-	tsiiny-	Regular plurals of class 9c/d
9d	i-	nz-		10d	Ø-	tsiinzi-	
12	a-	kha-	Diminutives	13	o-	ru-	Regular plurals of class 12
15	o-	khu-	Infinitives/gerunds	14	o-	bu-	Abstract entities, mass nouns
20	o-	ku-	Augmentatives				

It may be noted that the Augment prefix is Ø- in Classes 5a and Classes 10b/c/d, and that the Class prefix is Ø- in Class 9a. There is only one environment where the Augment prefix does not appear with common nouns. This is with the interrogative **shiina** 'which', as illustrated in (5).

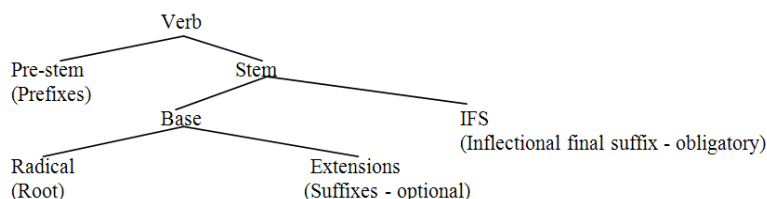
- (5) a. **o-mu-khaana** b. **mu-khaana** **shiina**
 AUG-1-girl 1-girl which
 'girl' 'Which girl?'

In all other environments, the Augment appears. This includes citation, so the citation form of 'girl' is **o-mu-khaana** and not **mu-khaana**. Singular proper nouns differ from other nouns. They do not take either an Augment or a Class marker. The template for singular proper nouns is set out in (6).

(6) Locative-Root

The morphological structure of verbs follows general Bantu patterns, as summarized in (7).

(7)



Particles do not permit affixation, and consist of just a root.

IV. VOCALIC PHONOLOGY

This section is principally concerned with the distribution of long vowels. However, it begins by examining vowel hiatus, as hiatus resolution is an important contributor to the appearance of long vowels in output forms.

A. Vowel Hiatus Resolution

Resolution of vowel hiatus is a complex matter, and its analysis is not germane to the purposes of this paper. The general patterns found within root and affixal domains in Kisa are set out in Table 4.

TABLE 4:
HIATUS RESOLUTION

Vowel 1	Vowel 2	Hiatus resolution
i	e	yee
i	a	yaa
i	o	yoo
i	u	yuu
u	i	wii
u	e	wee
u	a	waa
u	o	woo
a	i	ee
a	e	ee
a	o	oo
a	u	oo

There is one other pattern of hiatus resolution - complete progressive assimilation. This pattern is found only with the 1sgO prefix **iny-**.

(8) Output **b-a-am-bis-a** ***b-e-em-bis-a**

Input **b-a-iny-bis-a**

3plS-FARP-1sgO-hide-IND

'They hid me.'

(9) Output **ba-la-mu-un-dool-er-a** ***ba-la-mwi-in-dool-er-a**

Input **ba-la-mu-iny-dool-er-a**

3plS-HODF-3sgO-1sgO-pick-APPL-IND

'They will pick him/her up for me.'

The only other /i/ initial prefix, the reflexive i- shows standard hiatus resolution, as illustrated by the comparison of 0 with 0.

(10) Output **b-e-e-bis-a** ***b-a-a-bis-a**

Input **b-a-i-bis-a**

3plS-FARP-REFL-hide-IND

'They hid themselves.'

B. Phonology and Phonotactics of Vowel Length

Vowel length is contrastive for lexical morphemes in Kisa, as illustrated in Table 5.

TABLE 5:
LEXICAL VOWEL LENGTH CONTRASTS

sab-a	'Ask for something!'	i-m-bale	'new shoots'
saab-a	'Wash!'	i-m-baale	'gravel'
mer-a	'Shoot up!'	a-ma-bere	'millet'
meer-a	'Become drunk!'	a-ma-beere	'milk'
sir-a	'Fence!'	i-shima	'rust'
siir-a	'Jump over!'	i-shiima	'respect'
bol-a	'Rot!'	o-lu-kosi	'neck of a fowl'
bool-a	'Speak!'	o-lu-koosi	'favouritism'
ruk-a	'Rule/govern!'	lii-kuku	'grass (sp.)'
ruuk-a	'Jump!'	lii-kuuku	'pigeon'

Vowel length is also contrastive for grammatical morphemes.

(11) **b-a-shi-kul-a** **b-aa-shi-kul-a**

3plS-FARP-7O-buy-IND 3plS-REMP-7O-buy-IND

'They bought it. (Some time back)' 'They bought it. (Long time ago)'

Long vowels may appear in adjacent syllables, both within roots, and across the prefix – root boundary.

(12) **Ø-lii-tiimooni**

AUG-5a-demon

'demon'

There is one general restriction on long vowels in Kisa - vowels at root and word boundaries are always short. This includes all cases where a root initial vowel is followed by an NC sequence. There are 33 noun roots and 21 verb roots

in Kisa that begin with a vowel followed by a NC sequence. The sequence $_{\text{Rt}}[\text{VNC}]$ is not therefore a marginal pattern in Kisa. All vowel-initial prefixes which can appear word-initially have an initial short vowel. Consequently, vowels are always short in word-initial position.

V. NC SEQUENCES AND MORPHOLOGICAL STRUCTURE

Kisa has both tautomorphemic and heteromorphemic NC sequences.

A. Tautomorphemic NC Sequences and Preceding Vowel Length

Tautomorphemic NC sequences are very common in Kisa, but they are overwhelmingly found in non-initial positions. There are only 12 morphemes from the native Kisa lexicon with an initial NC sequence.

- (13) a. Nominal roots: **mbuuya** ‘personal name’, **mbootso** ‘niece’, **ngalashiinga** ‘bet’
 b. Particles: **mbula** ‘so that’, **mbushiina** ‘why’, **mberi** ‘before’, **mbaanga** ‘awkward’
 c. Clitics: **mbu**= ‘(so) that’, =**mbu** ‘like that, in that way’
 d. Prefixes: **nz-** ‘class 9d’, **ndi-** ‘1sgS’, **nz-** ‘1sgO’

Of the morphemes listed in (13), all can appear word-initially (i.e. without overt prefixation), except for **ngalashiinga** ‘bet’, =**mbu** ‘like that, in that way’, and **nz-** ‘1sgO’. There are six loan nominal roots from Swahili with initial NC sequences.

- (14) **ndeeche** ‘plane’, **ndiimu** ‘lime’, **ngaano** ‘wheat’, **ngaasi** ‘ladder’, **ngamya** ‘camel’, **nguume** ‘fist’

Subject to the constraint against long vowels at root and word boundaries, vowels preceding NC sequences in roots are long. There are four exceptions, the two colour terms in (15), and the two particles in (16).

- (15) **ranzaayi** ‘red’, **rambiyi** ‘orange’
 (16) **nende** ‘and’, **shinga** ‘like’

There are three affix allomorphs where a tautomorphemic NC sequence is preceded by a vowel. Two involve a long vowel, and one involves a short vowel.

- (17) **tsiinz-** ‘class 10d’, **inz-** ‘1sgO’, **-VVng** ‘Imperfective’

B. Tautomorphemic NC Sequences and Preceding Vowel Length in Loans

Loan words show the same patterns as the native vocabulary. If the vowel preceding the NC sequence is the root-initial vowel, then it is short.

- (18) **embulooy-a**
 employ-sgS
 ‘Employ!’

Otherwise, vowels preceding NC sequences are long, regardless of the orthography or pronunciation in the source language.

- (19) **koombiit-a**
 compete-sgS
 ‘Compete!’

The paper takes this as evidence that VVNC is a synchronically active phonological target in Kisa.

C. Heteromorphemic NC Sequences

Heteromorphemic NC sequences most commonly arise in Kisa when one of the nasal-final prefix allomorphs in (20) is prefixed to a morpheme beginning with a stop or the bilabial fricative /β/.

- (20) **ny-** ‘Class 9b/c’, **tsiiny-** ‘Class 10b/c’, **eny-** ‘1sgS’, **iny-** ‘1sgO’, **ny-** ‘1sgO’

The prefix nasal assimilates in place. The following stop or bilabial fricative assimilates in manner, and is realized as a voiced stop. These assimilation processes are productive and apply to loans.

- (21) Output **en-deep-a**
 Input **eny-teep-a**
 1sgS-tape-IND
 ‘I tape.’

Heteromorphemic NC sequences also arise from two unproductive assimilation processes. One process involves /l/. If one of the prefixes in (20) is attached to a native root with an initial /l/, then the output is an NC sequence.

- (22) Output **en-dol-a**
 Input **eny-lol-a**
 1sgS-see-IND
 ‘I see.’

This process is subject to Meinhof’s Law. If the following consonant is a nasal or an NC sequence, then the heteromorphemic NC sequence is reduced to an N.

- (23) Output **e-num-ae-noond-a**
 Input **eny-lum-a** **eny-loond-a**
 1sgS-bite-IND 1sgS-follow-IND

‘I bite.’ ‘I follow.’

Neither Meinhof’s Law nor the assimilation are attested in loans, which show only deletion of the prefix-final nasal and preservation of the /l/. The other unproductive process is found only with roots which begin with the trill /r/ when they take the Class 9b and Class 10b prefixes.

- (24) Output **i-n-dama** **Ø-tsiin-dama**
 Input **i-ny-rama** **Ø-tsiiny-rama**
 AUG-9b-cheek AUG-10b-cheek
 ‘cheek’ ‘cheeks’

This process is not attested with loans or elsewhere in the native lexicon. Otherwise, the prefix final nasal is deleted and the trill is preserved.

- (25) Output **e-ruuk-a**
 Input **eny-ruuk-a**
 1sgS-jump-IND
 ‘I jump.’

VI. THE VVNC PREFERENCE AND AFFIXATION

As previously stated, all vowel-initial prefixes which can appear in word-initial position have an initial short vowel, even when followed by an NC sequence. This conforms to the general constraint against word-initial long vowels.

The distribution of vowel length before NC sequences elsewhere in affixal domains is complex. The critical data for the analysis of the VVNC preference comes from the Locative forms of Class 9b/c/d nouns. The general prefix complex for Classes 9b and 9c is **i-ny-** ‘AUG-9b/c’, and that for 9d is **i-nz-** ‘AUG-9d’. In Locative prefixation, the Locative prefixes, which are listed in (26), replace the Augment prefix.

- (26) **ha-** ‘by/at’, **khu-** ‘on’, **mu-** ‘in’

Consequently, the predicted Locative prefix forms for Class 9b/c/d nouns are those listed in (27).

- (27) **ha-ny-** ‘by/at-9b/c’, **ha-nz-** ‘by/at-9d’, **khu-ny-** ‘on-9b/c’, **khu-nz-** ‘on-9d’, **mu-ny-** ‘in-9b/c’, **mu-nz-** ‘in-9d’

However, in the actual forms, the vowels in the prefix complex are long, as in (28).

- (28) **haa-ny-** ‘by/at-9b/c’, **haa-nz-** ‘by/at-9d’, **khuu-ny-** ‘on-9b/c’, **khuu-nz-** ‘on-9d’, **muu-ny-** ‘in-9b/c’, **muu-nz-** ‘in-9d’

As assimilation across the prefix-root boundary in Classes 9b and 9c produces an NC sequence, the final output word forms have a long vowel before an NC sequence.

- (29) Class 9b **muu-n-do** ‘in the bucket’
 Class 9c **muu-n-gul-a** ‘in the buying style’

In Class 9d forms, the prefix supplies an NC sequence.

- (30) Class 9d **muu-nz-ay-a** ‘in the plucking style’

At first sight, these Locative forms might appear to support a compensatory lengthening analysis. However, as we will see, there are a number of reasons why a compensatory lengthening analysis cannot be supported.

Rather, the paper proposes that these forms involve the selection of an alternate non-standard stem for locative prefixation. Specifically, the paper proposes that they involve the selection of the citation form as the stem for locative prefixation. The regular stem selection is illustrated in (31), and the proposed alternate stem selection in (32).

- (31) Locative_{-stem}[Class marker-Root]_{stem}

- (32) Locative_{-stem}[Augment-Class marker-Root]_{stem}

The derivation of Class 9b/c/d Locative forms is illustrated in (33).

- (33) **mu-u-n-do** **mu-u-n-gul-a** **mu-u-nz-ay-a**
mu-i-ny-to **mu-i-ny-kul-a** **mu-i-nz-ay-a**
 in-AUG-9b-bucket in-AUG-9c-buy-INF in-AUG-9d-pluck-INF
 ‘in the bucket’ ‘in the buying style’ ‘in the plucking style’

As illustrated, this proposal involves non-standard total progressive assimilation, which is otherwise only attested with the /i/ initial prefix **iny-** ‘1sgO’. The forms according to standard assimilation are set out in (34).

- (34) **mw-ii-n-do** **khw-ii-n-do** **he-e-n-do**
mu-i-ny-to **khu-i-ny-to** **ha-i-ny-to**
 in-AUG-9b-bucket on-AUG-9b-bucket by-AUG-9b-bucket
 ‘in the bucket’ ‘on the bucket’ ‘by the bucket’

Though this proposal involves both non-standard stem selection and non-standard assimilation, the paper nonetheless shows that it provides a better motivated analysis of the relevant Kisa data than a compensatory lengthening analysis.

Given that Locative prefixes are outer prefixes, the analysis of the Kisa 9b/c/d Locative data under compensatory lengthening models would be that compensatory lengthening applies in all affixal domains, subject to independently motivated factors which might inhibit lengthening in particular environments. The general Kisa constraint against long vowels in word-initial position would be an example of such an independently motivated factor.

By contrast, the analysis proposed here predicts that long vowels will fail to appear in the two environments listed in (35) and (36).

(35) When alternate stem selection is inhibited by an independently motivated factor

(36) When there is no alternate stem

Both these environments are attested in Kisa. The paper begins by considering the environment in (35). In this case, the data involves the interrogative **shiina** ‘which’. This is the only form which consistently blocks the appearance of the Augment prefix (Section III). Under the proposal, where the citation form is selected as the alternate stem, the additional mora required for a long vowel in the Class 9b/c/d Locatives is supplied by the Augment prefix. As **shiina** blocks the Augment prefix, Class 9b/c/d Locative constructions involving **shiina** should not involve long vowels. As illustrated in (37), this is the case.

(37) Class 9b **mun-do shiina** ‘in which bucket?’

Class 9c **mun-gu-la shiina** ‘in which buying style?’

Class 9d **mun-za-ya shiina** ‘in which plucking style?’

It is not evident how the data in (37) could be accommodated under a compensatory lengthening analysis. The distribution of phonologically motivated patterns may be affected by particular aspects of prosodic or syntactic structure. However, they are not affected by the appearance or non-appearance of individual lexemes.

The second environment in (36) involves two distinct sets of data. One set concerns the Locative forms of singular proper noun roots with initial NC sequences.

(38) **ha-mbootso** **ha-mbuuya**
by-niece by-personal name
‘by the niece’ ‘by Mbuuya’

As shown, these Locatives have a short vowel and not a long vowel. Under the analysis this paper proposes, this follows from the fact that singular proper nouns do not show substantive prefixation for either Class or Augment. Consequently, there is no alternate stem which can be selected. The root is the only stem. Again, it is not evident how this data would be accommodated by a compensatory lengthening analysis. In phonological terms, the environment in (38) does not appear distinguishable from that found with Class 9b/c/d Locatives. Consequently, compensatory lengthening analyses would predict that there should be lengthening in the environment in (38).

The other set involves noun class prefixes attaching to a root with an initial NC sequence.

(39) 5	Ø-lli-ngalashiinga	‘bet’	6	a-ma-ngalashiinga	‘bets’
12	a-kha-ngalashiinga	‘little bet’	13	o-ru-ngalashiinga	‘little bets’
20	o-ku-ngalashiinga	‘big bet’	4	e-mi-ngalashiinga	‘big bets’

As shown in 0 if a root with a morpheme-initial NC sequence takes a class prefix, then that prefix maintains its inherent quantity – short prefixes remain short. Under the analysis proposed here, this follows from the fact that noun class prefixes are inner prefixes, which attach directly to the root. Consequently, there is no alternate stem for them to select. Alternate stem selection is only an option for outer affixes.

By contrast, there is no evident reason why lengthening should fail to occur under a compensatory lengthening analysis. One hypothesis might be that the Locative prefixes and the Class prefixes constitute distinct phonological domains, and can therefore show distinct phonological patterns. Compensatory lengthening would apply to the Locative prefixes, but not to the Class prefixes. However, any proposal of this nature would face a major problem: compensatory lengthening would show a discontinuous domain distribution. The template for common nouns is repeated in (40) for convenience.

(40) Locative/Augment-Class marker-Root

If the long vowels in the Locative forms of Class 9b/c/d nouns result from compensatory lengthening, then it would be necessary to propose that compensatory lengthening applied to roots, and to the outer Locatives, but not to the inner Class markers. This would be a most unusual domain distribution for a phonological process.

Alternate Stem Selection and VVNC in Loans

As discussed in section I, in considering morphologically governed patterns, information on productivity is important. In this section, I present data from recent loan vocabulary establishing that alternate stem selection to attain a VVNC output is synchronically active. The principles for the assignment of loans to noun classes are set out in (41).

(41) a. If the referent is human, then assign the noun to Class 1

b. If the referent is non-human, but belongs to a lexical domain which has a prototypical association with a particular Class, then assign the loan to that Class.

c. If the loan is a Swahili word, then assign the loan to the phonotactically and semantically similar class in Kisa.

d. If none of the preceding factors apply, then assign the loan to Class 9a.

It is the interaction between principles (c) and (d) which is of interest. Principle (c) gives priority to structural similarity considerations over default assignment.

(42) **o-mu-furechi** **m-fereji** (Swahili)
AUG-3-faucet 3-faucet
‘faucet’

Semantically, ‘faucet’ has no clear association to any class in Kisa, and therefore it should be assigned to Class 9a in terms of semantics. However, the structural similarities favour assignment to Class 3. There is also the factor that most Class 3 Swahili forms have an initial heterorganic cluster, a strong signal to morphologically divide the initial cluster.

The situation where a Swahili loan has an initial homorganic cluster is more complicated. Let us consider the Swahili form **n-dege** '9-plane'. This form is structurally similar to the Kisa Class 9b, and this is the class to which such loans are assigned. However, there are some morphophonemic complications, as (43) – (45) illustrate.

(43) 9b	i-n-do	'bucket'	10b	Ø-tsiin-do	'buckets'
12	a-kha-to	'little bucket'	13	o-ru-to	'little buckets'
20	o-ku-to	'big bucket'	4	e-mi-to	'big buckets'
(44) 9b	i-Ø-ndeeche	'plane'	10b	Ø-tsii-ndeeche	'planes'
12	a-kha-ndeeche	'little plane'	13	o-ru-ndeeche	'little planes'
20	o-ku-ndeeche	'big plane'	4	e-mi-ndeeche	'big planes'
(45) 9a	i-Ø-kalaamu	'pen'	10a	e-tsi-kalaamu	'pens'
12	a-kha-kalaamu	'little pen'	13	o-ru-kalaamu	'little pens'
20	o-ku-kalaamu	'big pen'	4	e-mi-kalaamu	'big pens'

The paradigm in (43) is the standard paradigm for Class 9b nouns. The paradigm in (44) is that found with Swahili loans which have an initial homorganic cluster. The diminutive and augmentative paradigms in (44) show that the root is **ndeeche**, whereas if the loan were a standard Class 9b form, then the root should be **teeche**. It may be noted that the class prefixes in the diminutive and augmentative paradigms are short, as predicted by the analysis proposed in this paper. The plural Class 10b form is underlyingly **Ø-tsiiny-ndeeche**. As Kisa does not permit NN sequences, the paper posits that the nasal of the prefix is deleted. Similarly, for the singular Class 9b form, the paper posits that the input is **i-ny-ndeeche**, and that parallel to the plural, the prefix nasal is deleted, leaving no actual substantive noun class prefix. However, it may be noted that the output form **i-Ø-ndeeche** is identical to a Class 9a singular (45). The Locative forms of these loans with initial NC sequences show the Class 9b patterning.

- (46) **mu-u-Ø-ndeeche mu-Ø-ndeeche shiina**
 in-AUG-9b-plane in-9b-plane which
 'in the plane' 'in which plane?'

The locatives of loans in Classes 9c and 9d show the same patterning.

- (47) **mu-u-m-buuk-a mu-m-buuk-a shiina**
 in-AUG-9c-book-INF in-9c-book-INF which
 'in the booking style' 'in which booking style?'
- mu-u-nz-alaaw-a mu-nz-alaaw-a shiina**
 in-AUG-9d-allow-INF in-9d-allow-INF which
 'in the allowing style' 'in which allowing style?'

The Locative forms of Class 9b/c/d loans, and the short Class prefixes in the Diminutive and Augmentative paradigms in 0, show that alternate stem selection is synchronically active in Kisa.

VII. CONCLUSION

The paper has provided evidence that there is a synchronically active preference for NC sequences to be preceded by long vowels in Kisa – the VVNC target. This appears to be the most reasonable analysis of the patterning of vowels before NC sequences in loans. It is the only evident motivation for the selection of an alternate stem in Class 9b/c/d/ Locatives, a pattern which is also active in loans. Given that VVNC is a synchronically active target, it requires a synchronic analysis.

However, the fact that one of the ways in which the VVNC target can be attained is through alternate stem selection means it is not possible to exhaustively account for attainment of that target by a phonologically motivated analysis. Consequently, compensatory lengthening analyses cannot provide a complete account of the VVNC target in Kisa. Given that non-compensatory analyses of VVNC are required for general phonological theory in any case, there is no advantage to a compensatory lengthening analysis for Kisa.

As Downing (2005) points out the requirement for non-compensatory analyses of VVNC raises a question about the advantage of compensatory lengthening analyses in Bantu. The Kisa data raises this question in a perhaps more acute form. As illustrated in this paper, the phonology and morphology of Kisa conform to the general patterns of Bantu. It is not the case that Kisa displays a wide range of unusual, sui generis phonological and morphological patterns and/or structures. Therefore, it would appear that any overview analysis of the VVNC preference in Bantu should include the Kisa data. As such, the advantage of compensatory lengthening analyses in Bantu generally is in question.

REFERENCES

- [1] Clements, G. (1986). Compensatory lengthening and consonant gemination in Luganda. In L. Wetzel & E. Sezer (eds), *Studies in compensatory lengthening*, 37-77. Dordrecht: Foris.
- [2] Downing, L. (2005). On the ambiguous segmental status of nasals in homorganic NC sequences. In M. van Oostendorp & J. van de Weijer (eds), *The internal organization of phonological segments*, 183-216. Berlin & New York: Mouton de Gruyter.
- [3] Hubbard, K. (1995). 'Prenasalized consonants' and syllable timing: evidence from Runyambo and Luganda. *Phonology* 12:235-256.
- [4] Hyman, L. M. (1992). Moraic mismatches in Bantu. *Phonology* 9:255-265.

- [5] Maddieson, I. & P. Ladefoged. (1993). Phonetics of partially nasal consonants. In M. Huffman & R. Krakow (eds), *Nasals, nasalization and the velum*, 251-301. San Diego: Academic Press.
- [6] Odden, D. (1996). The phonology and morphology of Kimatumbi. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- [7] Tak, J.-Y. (2003). Prenasalised consonants in Bantu: a cluster or a unit in Optimality Theory. *Studies in Phonetics, Phonology and Morphology* 9:499-513.
- [8] Tak, J.-Y. (2011). Universals of prenasalized consonants: phonemic or derived, single or complex? *Journal of Universal Language* 12:127-158.

Emily Ayieta Ondondo, PhD, studied Linguistics at the University of Newcastle, New South Wales, Australia. She is LECTURER of Linguistics at Jaramogi Oginga Odinga University of Science and Technology (JOUST), Kenya. She was formerly LECTURER of Linguistics, Pwani University, Kenya, Kigali Institute of Education, Rwanda, VISITING LECTURER, National University of Rwanda and CASUAL LECTURER, University of Newcastle, Australia. She has authored: The Kisa Verb Phrase. *International Journal of English Language and Linguistics Research*, 3(5), 9-24, United Kingdom: European-American Journals, 2015. The Kisa Noun Phrase. *Us-China Foreign Language*, 13(10), 687-700, New York: David Publishing Company, 2015. Acquired Language Disorders as Barriers to Effective Communication. *Theory and Practice in language Studies*, 5(7), 1324-1329, United Kingdom: Academy Publication, 2015. Effects of Communication Impairments on Knowledge Acquisition, *Us-China Foreign Language*, 24(10):805-813, New York: David Publishing Company, 2014. *Kisa Part-of-Speech Classes: A Morphological Perspective*. Germany: Lambert Academic Publishing, 2013. *Lexical Cohesiveness in Kisa: Textuality and Text Organisation*. Germany: Lambert Academic Publishing, 2013. She is interested in research in Bantu and African Linguistics: Documentation, Phonetics, Phonology, Morphology, Syntax, Lexicography and Lexical Computing. Dr. Ondondo is a registered and active member of Australian Linguistic Society and the Linguistic Society of America.

A Research on Postgraduate English Curriculum Based on the Academic English^{*}

Yuan Kong

School of Foreign Languages, Jining Medical University, Jining, China

Abstract—In this paper, the current research situation of academic English is reviewed. From the perspective of curriculum research, we investigate the implementation of Public English curriculum and the needs of academic English, and then put forward some specific measures for the construction of academic English courses. This paper mainly discusses three aspects of the requirement, setting and teaching of academic English courses. On the basis of previous studies, there are not many academic English courses for postgraduate students in Colleges and universities. According to the theory that education is ahead of the economic development, it is an advanced research path to explore the establishment of academic English course in the teaching of postgraduate English. The object of this study is a very representative University in a certain area, which can reflect the overall level of higher education in the region to a certain extent. Both the hardware and the software facilities can provide practical possibilities for the proposal and implementation of this article, and also have a reference for the national colleges and universities.

Index Terms—Academic English, postgraduates, curriculum reform

I. INTRODUCTION

Under the background of internationalization of science, technology and education in China, postgraduates are frequently required to attend academic lectures, participate in academic seminars, and conduct academic exchanges. The graduate English Teaching in China has always been dominated by general English, which is unable to meet the requirements of the current era for Postgraduates' Academic English ability. It has attracted the attention of scholars in educational circles for academic English (EAP). Since twenty-first Century, the teaching of College English has been reformed many times, and the reform of postgraduate English has gradually entered the public view (Cai, 2014). In 2004, the Ministry of Education issued *the Master's Degree and Doctoral Degree English Teaching Syllabus*. It clearly pointed out that postgraduate English teaching is aimed at students' learning and international communication in English. *The Outline of the National Medium and Long-Term Educational Reform and Development Plan (2010-2020)*, issued in 2010, puts forward that we should improve the level of education internationalization and cultivate a large number of international talents with international vision, international rules and participation in international affairs and international competition. This requires graduate students to be able to use English to communicate in various disciplines and fields. At present, graduate students generally improve the standard of English, basic English course has been unable to meet the individual English learning and social needs of graduate students, Graduate English curriculum reform is imperative, in the graduate student stage set up academic English course has become the only way which must be passed postgraduate English curriculum reform and development.

II. AN ANALYSIS OF THE NECESSITY OF ACADEMIC ENGLISH COURSES

A. *The Need for the Development of the Subject*

In the field of foreign language education in Colleges and universities, foreign language education has been gradually combined with subject and professional teaching. Foreign language teaching is no longer just a purely language learning, but more for discipline and professional services (Cai, 2015). This phenomenon can be reflected in the ESP courses offered by universities, such as business English, medical English, tourism English and law English. Most of these courses are in the form of professional compulsory courses, and elective courses for other non-English majors are not popularized. At present, the demand for academic English courses is more common in Colleges and universities in China than in professional English courses. In the developed areas of the world, academic English is one of the required courses for international students. Though the degree of internationalization of Chinese universities is not balanced, the school leaders attach great importance to the international exchanges and cooperation of discipline development. Some

^{*} Funding Sources: A Project of Shandong Province Higher Educational Humanities and Social Sciences Research (Grant No. J17RA054); An Industry-University Cooperative Project of Ministry of Education; Social Science Planning Research Program of Shandong Province (Grant No. 17CWZJ38); Research Program of Young Teachers' Education and Teaching of Shandong Province (Grant No. 16SDJ232); Key Program in Art Science of Shandong Province (Grant No. ZX2015005); Youth and Adolescents Quality Education Work Planning Program of Shandong Province (Grant No. 13AJY090); Scientific Research Program of Jining Medical University (Grant No. JY2013RW032); The Visiting Scholar Funded Program of Young Backbone Teachers in Jining Medical University; College Students' Innovative Training Project of Jining Medical University (Grant No. cx2017052); Scientific Research Project of College Students in Jining Medical University (Grant No. JYXS2017RW017)

universities cooperate with foreign universities to establish new departments and new specialties. It helps to cultivate students' academic thinking and improve their ability to participate in academic activities in English and the ability of relying on discipline development, but also help universities and students understand the international discipline development newest achievement of domestic professional development and promotion of state discipline and promote international exchanges and cooperation.

B. The Needs of Students

The English Syllabus for Non-English Major Postgraduates in our country stipulates that graduate students should be able to use this tool of English to carry out their professional learning, research and international communication (Du, 2015). As a graduate student of various disciplines, high-end graduates often use a lot of foreign literature to acquire and master the latest information of this specialty, and communicate with professionals in oral or written English. However, not every student of English has its unique linguistic features in vocabulary, syntax, rhetoric and discourse, the traditional general courses in English language knowledge cannot cover all disciplines of core components, and graduate students in professional cannot communicate with English. Therefore, special and systematic academic English learning is very necessary.

C. The Needs of Society

To train talented people with international competitiveness is the core goal of the training of higher education talents in China. Compared with the past, our era has undergone tremendous changes. In the age of information and technology, the competitiveness of talents is the most important soft power of national development. In the political, economic, cultural and other aspects of our country's communication and cooperation in the world, the demand for diversified comprehensive talents is becoming higher and higher (Liu, 2004). As a high-level talent trained by the state, postgraduate is not only required to have solid knowledge and skills, but also to have a high level of foreign language that can participate in international affairs. For literacy of college talents and social development mainly reflects the creation of courses in Colleges and universities, according to the requirements of the quality standard of national development strategy and personnel training, improve the graduate English level and improve their ability to use English to do research work, to improve their English application ability has become an important task of English Teaching for Postgraduates in china (Jia, 2014). In the University, in addition to the cultivation of foreign language talents, non-English Majors' academic and professional education is not enough, many graduate students can not use English to retrieve the latest research results, read foreign literature, foreign participation in international academic conferences, the ability training and lack of social participation in international affairs, need a large number of talents the demand is in conflict. In order to meet the needs of talents training in the society, the postgraduate English Curriculum in Chinese universities need to make corresponding adjustments, so as to transform the general English ability of graduate students to cultivate their academic English and further to the direction of professional English (Rao, 2005).

III. THE PROBLEMS OF GENERAL ENGLISH ORIENTED PUBLIC COURSE

A. Different Colleges and Universities Have Great Differences in Curriculum Arrangement

With the increase of autonomy of postgraduate training institutions, colleges and universities have made many reforms on Public English teaching. Even some colleges and universities have more credits and hours of Public English courses than professional classes.

B. It Lacks of Cohesion with College English Courses

Some college students study English curriculum orientation is not clear, the continuation of undergraduate curriculum content of English courses, pay no attention to the differences between graduate students and undergraduates in learning needs and learning characteristics, such as graduate students have more academic exchanges and professional learning needs, which requires the reform of English curriculum, meet graduate students under the new situation of English learning needs. Taking writing course as an example, we repeated learning how to write theory from high school, undergraduate to postgraduate, but failed to complete a standardized English academic article. Graduate English course to undergraduate English courses and good convergence, lay a good foundation English writing undergraduate to graduate should combine professional disciplines, increase the subject or interdisciplinary and different subjects, on the basis of practical discourse learning to imitate, rewriting, creation, and accumulation the rich corpus, grasp the corresponding writing skills and writing norms, really improve their academic writing skills, improve Postgraduates' academic research ability.

C. The Construction of Teachers' Team Must Be Strengthened

The construction of teaching staff of postgraduate public English curriculum is mainly reflected in the following three aspects: first, the number of teachers is not enough; in recent years, the number of graduate enrollment and the number of graduate students has increased annually, but the number of College English teachers has not increased correspondingly. In Colleges and universities, the number of English classes for postgraduate English is more than fifty

or sixty. Second, teachers are mainly composed of undergraduate foreign language teachers; undergraduate public English teachers or professional English teachers themselves are not only light on teaching tasks, but now they also need to increase their teaching tasks, teachers' heavy workload and lack of teachers. Third, the graduate students of Public English course lack teacher training. In the era of progress, science and technology in the rapid development of information technology, personnel training in this situation but also to keep up with the pace of social development, especially when the teaching duty teachers should constantly update their knowledge system, teaching contents, teaching methods, teaching ideas to inject new vitality, also the shortage of teachers, teaching the heavy task, in this case it is easy to produce occupation burnout teaching bottleneck, more needs of the local administrative department of education or university teacher training organization.

D. It Is Unable to Meet the Practical English Needs of Postgraduate Students

Postgraduate English curriculum mostly follows the undergraduate curriculum mode of foreign language curriculum, attaches importance to the cultivation of students' general comprehensive ability, and does not pay enough attention to students' academic oral communication, academic written communication and the cultivation of professional learning ability in English. In the cultivation of comprehensive ability, we should pay attention to reading ability and despise the improvement of listening and writing ability. According to the survey, colleges and universities usually set up professional English in the second semester of postgraduate, 2 credits, 16 hours, usually by the professional teachers, but due to professional differences, some majors do not set up. From the courses, postgraduate English courses continued and repeated undergraduate English learning content can not meet the basic requirements of international personnel training to master the international language of English and can make a variety of disciplines and professional communication in English.

E. Graduate Students' English Level Is Uneven

The survey results show that the current level of English proficiency of graduate students is TEM 8 and 4, CET 6 and 4, and CET 4 below. English level can be divided into advanced, intermediate, primary and lower levels. Because of the uneven English level of graduate students, the students who have different English levels are arranged in the same class for teaching. The students of the junior and below level can not be carefully coaching and training, while the middle and senior students can not further improve their English ability and repeat their time and energy. Therefore, the diversification of students' English proficiency will definitely require diversified English courses.

F. The Course Is Single and Lacks of Innovation in the Class

Graduate English curriculum is similar to undergraduate college English in terms of lesson type, with a single set of class settings, and extensive English Intensive Reading and English listening course. English courses are mostly Basic English courses, and academic and professional English courses are missing. In addition, teachers use the traditional teaching method of teachers' center, teaching is mainly knowledge, teaching means and methods are single, and reading and translation teaching are the main ways (Peng & Zhang, 2010). This teaching model is difficult to achieve the goal of the graduate students' Public English course. Many colleges and universities in the aspects of teaching hardware and teacher construction cannot meet the needs of teaching. The update speed is far behind the growth rate of graduate enrollment. Graduate English class teaching, teacher's teaching for students of different majors and class teaching are neat and uniform, but they are unable to meet the needs of small class and individualized English teaching

IV. THE INVESTIGATION AND ANALYSIS OF THE ACADEMIC ENGLISH COURSE

A. The Training of Postgraduates' Academic English Ability in Universities

In this paper, teachers, teaching materials, teaching activities and academic ability training are used to reflect the importance of the cultivation of students' Academic English ability. Through the analysis of the above four aspects, we can see that the College English curriculum and professional related English textbooks rarely, learn English and learn professional knowledge from; professional teachers is mainly Chinese teaching, not related to the professional English learning; teachers do not pay attention to English literature reading, ignoring students' academic skills in English exercise; school related English academic activities is not much, not actively create English academic atmosphere; both in class teaching and after-school academic guidance, academic and cultural environment, colleges and universities have larger deletions in the cultivation of academic English ability of students.

B. Graduate Students' Academic English Level

In academic English, the listening and oral level of the students is low. They are unable to complete the task of teaching. The average size of students' Academic English listening and oral expression is inversely proportional to the level of their English proficiency, that is, the higher the English level is, the lower their academic English listening and speaking ability is.

In the field of academic English writing, 40% of the students think the biggest problem is that the reserve of professional vocabulary is not enough. 30% of the students have large problems in vocabulary, grammar, structure and genre, and need a large number of revisions. 20% of the students may have some professional vocabulary, but also have

some understanding of the formal style, but there are obstacles in the structure and style of the article. 7% of the students think the biggest problem of their writing is to master the grammatical style of formal style. Only 3% of the students believe that their vocabulary, grammar, structure and genre can basically meet the requirements of academic publication. English academic publication requirements strictly, in addition to master a large number of professional vocabularies, grammar, style and structure, theme, genre or format, punctuation has special requirements for this usually did not receive English writing training students is undoubtedly a great difficulty.

V. SUGGESTIONS ON THE COURSE SETTING OF ACADEMIC ENGLISH FOR NON-ENGLISH MAJOR GRADUATE STUDENTS

The experts of foreign language education published and expounded their views on “academic English” and “general English”. Jigging Cain advocates the transfer of English teaching emphasis from the current general English to the professional English, especially the academic English. Shoran Wang thinks that academic English must be built on the basis of needs analysis, and pay enough attention to academic English. But it does not praise students' English content as the whole content of College English teaching. It is suggested that colleges and universities decide the proportion of academic English based on the actual situation. Qi fang Wen agreed to push forward the English teaching system coexisting with general English and special English, and improve teaching effect by reforming teaching objectives, teaching contents, teaching methods, assessment methods and teaching modes. As different colleges and universities have great differences in school level, location, category and source, the development of academic English Teaching in Colleges and universities in China is not balanced. In addition, the degree of internationalization of higher education in universities is different. There are obvious differences between international scholars and teachers and students, in terms of technology and culture cooperation, overseas students, foreign professors and visiting scholars, and frontier research. The students' needs for academic English (such as overseas visits, listening to English lectures, and learning some English major courses) are different.

A. *The Integration of English Learning and Academic Activities*

The construction of academic English course is student centered, method oriented, and four, four and five. Four education refers to higher education, foreign language education, humanistic education, general education academic thinking of mutual penetration; refers to the four ideas, tools and cultural and educational combination; five refers to training with language, communication, academic and cultural exchanges, international competition ability of talent. The academic English course combines language learning with academic activities to enable students to master English skills in the course of academic activities. The goal is the process, namely, the process is the result. In the academic activity level, we have targeted, planned and organized English listening, speaking, reading and writing activities, learning content and academic related methods and academic skills training, making the English curriculum itself an academic demonstration activity (Tang, 2015).

B. *The Co-exist of Exemptions and Elective*

Due to the expansion of the enrollment of graduate students, the English level of the graduate students is not balanced. Some students at the undergraduate level English ability is relatively outstanding, had already reached the demands of English postgraduate standard, but there are a lot of basic skills of the students in English listening, speaking, reading, writing and translation being relatively weak. According to this situation, this paper proposed the implementation of the exemption system of graduate English course in Colleges and universities. The study on the English test reaching a certain standard of living can be exempted from general English courses directly into the academic English courses of study. Through the diversion measures, it can avoid the waste of curriculum resources and also help students personalized learning and autonomous learning, which makes the research of English Teaching in English teaching and undergraduate students more fluent.

C. *General English and Academic English*

According to the survey of the English level of postgraduate students in the University, the level of postgraduate English is uneven. In addition, most of the academic English needs of graduate students stay in English reading professional literature, listening to English academic reports, and making English academic speeches and reports. Their academic activities are low in internationalization, which is also closely related to the regional economy and the degree of internationalization of higher education. Considering the level of higher education in Jiangxi Province, the degree of internationalization of higher education and the situation of academic English curriculum at home and abroad, this paper suggests that we should set up an English course in general English and academic English in Colleges and universities.

1. General English curriculum arrangement

The general English curriculum arrangement of postgraduate English Curriculum in universities should first consider the general English course. Only when students have certain Basic English skills can they learn better academic English related to majors and disciplines. In the specific operation, according to the national unified college entrance examination students study English or study the school to organize themselves to develop students' English exam admission grade general English exemption criteria of students who fail to obtain exemption qualifications, must use the

new English curriculum, the curriculum is a required course, curriculum types into English listening and speaking and reading, writing and translation, aims to cultivate students' basic skills of listening speaking reading writing and translation.

2. The course arrangement of academic English

Academic English is divided into general and special academic English Academic English, opened in a progressive way, obtained a general English exemption qualification for students, can directly go to the general academic English courses, general academic English courses students into academic English course learning (Wang, 2008).

According to the survey, there is a great demand for students' Academic English reading and writing. It is suggested that academic English writing and academic English communication should be offered in the general academic English stage. It mainly teaches students to retrieve and consult literature, select topics, standardize academic writing language, participate in conference exchanges and discussions, and cooperate with groups.

The general academic English course is set up in the second semester, and special academic English is set up in the third semester. Because students have certain professional knowledge, learning academic English is more targeted. General academic English courses for a semester, based on the division of the university students as teaching classes, in particular: literature and history, science and engineering academic English Academic English Academic English and art. Academic English set up time for a semester, mainly teaching on specific subjects, vocabulary, syntax and discourse genre and communicative strategies, thought that the professional needs of service concept for the guidelines, according to disciplines set up different professional English curriculum aims to help students acquire vocabulary, skilled professional language, access to cutting-edge information related to the field, cultivating the ability of students in the professional work in the English context.

D. *The Cooperation between Language Teachers and Professional Teachers*

BALEAP, a professional institution, has a faculty member who is directly engaged in academic English teaching activities. Regular academic exchange meetings are held annually, and English academic courses are evaluated. It has made outstanding contributions to improving the quality of academic English Teaching in the UK, promoting the improvement of teachers' abilities and career development, and promoting the dissemination of research results related to academic English. There is no way to form such a complete system in our current academic English. However, universities in China can learn from the practice of BALEAP in the UK, organize regular academic exchange meetings, regular training for academic English teachers, or select teachers to learn and communicate at colleges and universities that are developing well in academic English. Secondly, cooperation letters between professional teachers and English teachers need to be strengthened. Graduate schools should play the role of leadership, organization and coordination, actively communicate with different colleges and support teachers, and form different teaching groups according to their majors, research directions and interest in teaching. The cooperative teaching of language teachers and professional teachers is various. Considering the integrity and pertinence, it can not only carry out cooperation in every aspect of teaching process, but also divide and cooperate in a specific link of teaching. For example, in the teaching process of writing, professional teachers can guide students' topic selection, research methods, document retrieval and reading, etc. language teachers can check whether students' academic language is standardized.

E. *Teaching Materials and Corpus Construction*

First of all, teaching materials can reflect the quality of teaching, is an essential part of the curriculum. The teaching material should be able to reflect the real teaching situation and teaching task, relying on the content of the subject. Therefore, in order to ensure the authenticity and original ecology of textbooks and enable students to adapt to the real and complicated academic English context, we must keep the authenticity of the original language and content. In addition, in order to improve students' academic innovative thinking, try to present different or opposite theme articles, providing students with opportunities to think, contrast, evaluate and communicate (Xia, 2005).

Secondly, we should make full use of the network teaching resources and create a corpus. The convenient network platform and rich learning resources provide the content and method support for the construction of the corpus. Teachers can cultivate students' ability of independent learning and self education, and recommend some good academic corpus and database to help students select high-quality curriculum resources. Corpus is a powerful electronic resource, which stores corpus information in the form of documents (Xia, 2002). It uses the function of computer analysis to present high-frequency language phenomena and characteristics in corpus. For the learning of academic English, we can retrieve context in text by searching key words and index in corpus, and learn how to use it in real context. Teachers can also build their own corpus according to the needs of the curriculum.

VI. SUGGESTIONS ON THE TEACHING OF ACADEMIC ENGLISH FOR NON-ENGLISH MAJOR GRADUATE STUDENTS

Academic writing is one of the essential English application abilities for Postgraduates in international academic exchanges. Cultivating non-English Major Postgraduates' English academic writing ability has become an essential part of developing their international exchange capacity. Especially in academic exchanges, scholars have less verbal communication opportunities, and most of the academic interaction is carried out in written form. Academic writing ability has a decisive influence on the effect of the dissemination of academic achievements. According to the survey,

there is a great demand for academic English reading and writing in college students. Taking the academic English writing course as an example, based on summarizing the opinions of Postgraduates' Academic English writing, this paper puts forward some teaching suggestions on Academic English writing.

A. *The Combination of Writing Skills Training and Academic Activities and Subject Content*

After years of English learning, graduate students have mastered a certain number of vocabularies, grammar and basic writing skills. Therefore, this stage of writing instruction should seek more advanced learning objectives, cater to the academic writing needs of postgraduates, emphasize professional direction and expand their academic fields. For graduate students, how to improve their academic writing ability, express their academic views and put forward scientific research findings is a common problem when writing (Wen, 2004). Writing skills training and postgraduate academic activities and academic content combination is a major characteristic of postgraduate English writing, in the teaching process of English academic writing courses, teachers should combine professional knowledge and literature, to guide students to read and analyze the structure of the genre, notes cite, specification format and then master the writing form and operation specification. At the same time, we should focus on the understanding and application of strategies in the various steps of academic writing, such as selection, information, first draft, and revision (Wen, 2014).

B. *The Combination of Classroom Teaching with Independent and Cooperative Learning after Class*

The graduate students generally have better self-learning ability and self-supervision ability. The awakening of self-awareness of this kind of learning is beneficial to language learning. In teaching organization, it is suggested to combine classroom teaching with after-school independent cooperative learning to give full play to postgraduates' self-learning ability and cooperation consciousness. Teachers need to play a supplementary role in giving effective guidance and timely feedback and evaluation to students.

The teacher in the classroom teaching and practical system of basic theoretical knowledge of English academic writing; reasonable arrangement of teaching content, combined with lecture notes, essays, academic conference reports and other auxiliary materials for teaching; cooperative activities, the students according to different professional or common learning task groups, targeted to carry out teaching activities. After class, independent and cooperative learning includes students' independent self-study, and the after-school counseling service provided by the school. Internet is the best platform and channel for students to learn independently. Rich Internet resources can expand students' corpus input, and students can compare exchange and reflect each other through Internet, and constantly improve their writing level. The establishment of the school after-school tutoring center for academic writing needs students to provide guidance and assistance, academic writing center teachers regularly to guide students, this approach targeted to solve individual students encountered in academic writing difficulties, you can make up for lack of unified class teaching.

C. *Selecting Appropriate Textbooks According to the Classification of Students' Subject and the Level of English*

Through the analysis of the academic English writing materials of domestic graduate students, the author classifies them and puts forward some suggestions for the selection of new textbooks.

1. The current classification of academic English writing materials for graduate students in China

The first is a book written by domestic scholars for all English Academic English writing. Mainly in English academic writing knowledge and skills of case teaching and training, cultivating students' English academic awareness from the aspects of academic discourse structure, words rule, coherence and cohesion, and the application of academic research in writing and communication related to the cultivation of students' practical writing skills. The advantage of this kind of book is to combine reading and writing, and to cultivate students' academic thinking ability of research and discovery based on the empirical and logical characteristics of English academic discourse.

The second kind, the Chinese instruction compiled by the domestic scholars, is the main English Academic Writing Book supplemented by English. This book covers the content more comprehensive, including academic writing basic components (such as methods, results and conclusions) and writing (such as data search, collection and collation, syllabus construction, notes), academic discourse (such as diction, sentence, discourse, etc.). This book will not put in academic English academic writing in the context of training, discourse pattern is easily affected by the influence of mother tongue thinking, the students are prone to writing syntactic monotonous, excessive use of certain words, showing strong stylistic features of spoken English, is not conducive to the cultivation of English academic writing thinking. This kind of book is suitable for English level (Yang, 2009). It is impossible to learn English textbooks directly (Song, 2015). It needs a large number of students with Chinese guidance.

The third is a book on English academic writing by foreign scholars. Domestic experts select foreign high-quality writing materials and introduce a number of more classic textbooks. This kind of book system introduces the basic requirements, format norms and methods and skills of academic writing, covering a wide range of topics, including selecting topics, consulting and collating materials, determining articles outline, and citing references. This kind of book is suitable for students with better English level, which helps to cultivate students' thinking in English writing (Wu, 2014).

2. The selection of Graduate academic English writing materials

From the subjects of colleges and universities use the textbooks directory and content can be seen, the course is a continuation of the University and senior high school English writing skills Professor, although the content according to

the features of English learning and learning needs of students, set up academic writing, but not from the academic level to improve study on the writing ability of the students (Xu & Jiang, 2014). Therefore, in the academic English stage after general English, I suggest that graduate students choose their own classes according to their own situations, and there are differences between the textbooks of different subjects, different classes and classes. Academic English writing textbooks are divided into two categories: one is the social science, science, art and academic English reading teaching materials, a total of three copies, according to the different disciplines to students with a book; the other is the special academic English writing teaching, the teaching material has two kinds, one is for primary and intermediate the learner, the other is for senior learners.

Students can choose primary and middle-class or middle-class courses independently according to their English level or needs. In the social sciences at the beginning of the intermediate students as an example, to grant them a social science academic English reading course, reading the one hand to expand student's corpus, accumulated enough input for academic English writing; on the other hand is convenient for teachers with reading course content in academic articles as an example for the teaching of academic English writing teaching is placed in the real context, the actual use of more students (Yin & Wang, 2015). The other is the intermediate and intermediate academic English writing course (Yang & Yang, 2013). The selection of this kind of teaching material can be referred to the second category of the academic English writing teaching material, which is compiled by Chinese scholars. Try to choose the teaching material that is capable of improving the ability of academic English writing on the basis of the student level. No kind of teaching material is fully in accordance with the requirements of teaching. No matter what kind of teaching materials to choose, teachers should not be able to copy the content of the teaching material completely according to the status and demand of the students' writing level. Teachers should carry out reasonable selection and arrangement of teaching contents and teaching order, together with the self-made lectures, corpus resources and other electronic resources, classroom teaching and after-school tutoring, combination group and other forms of teaching, so as to give full play to each kind of material use value.

VII. CONCLUSION

The main purpose of postgraduate English teaching is to cultivate students' ability to read professional books and periodicals more skillfully. Therefore, emphasis must be placed on the application of teaching, combined with the characteristics of professional English, highlighting the training of reading, writing and translation, and correctly dealing with the relationship between reading, writing, translating, listening and speaking. Graduate English teaching should be promoted from reality, pragmatic, and learn widely from others strong points, in strengthening the theoretical research and Practice on the basis of summing up, and strive to explore and establish research suitable for China's English teaching system.

Basic English and professional English are two parts closely related to the whole process of postgraduate English teaching. They undertake the task of training students' ability to get the syllabus. In Basic English, we should try to combine the characteristics of professional English and cultivate the students' ability to use English. Specialized English should consolidate and improve students' ability to acquire in Basic English stage, expand their professional vocabulary, ensure a large number of English reading practices, enable students to truly acquire and communicate information needed by their majors by means of English. The professional teacher is responsible for the material selection and guidance of the foreign language and the writing of abstract or summary; the English teacher is responsible for the writing and reading skills.

REFERENCES

- [1] Cai, J. G. (2014). "From General English to Academic English back to College English Teaching Standard." *Foreign Languages and their Teaching* (1): 9-14.
- [2] Cai, J. G. (2015). "Exploration and Research on General Academic English Evaluation System." *Shandong Foreign Languages Teaching Journal* (4): 40-47.
- [3] Du, X. S. (2015). "Lexical Chunks in Colloquial Discourse of Different Disciplines based on BASE Corpus." *Overseas English* (8): 207-208.
- [4] Department of higher education of the Ministry of Education. (2004). Requirements for the Teaching of College English Courses (Trial). Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press.
- [5] Liu, R. Q. (2004). English Language Studies. Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press.
- [6] Jia, G. M. (2014). "An Enlightenment of the EAP Mode of University of Canberra in Australia on the Reform of English Teaching for Postgraduates in China." *Journal of Chongqing University of Technology* (6): 118-121.
- [7] Peng, S. Y. & Y. Y. Zhang. (2010). International Academic Exchange and Paper Writing. Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press.
- [8] Rao, Z. H. (2005). A Course of Postgraduate English Writing and Translation. Jiangxi: Jiangxi University Press.
- [9] Song, H. Y. (2015). "The Construction of EAP Oriented College English Curriculum System." *Journal of Hubei University of Economics* (2): 210-211.
- [10] Tang, L. (2015). "On the Selection of Subject Matter of EAP Teaching Materials in Colleges and Universities." *Journal of Lanzhou Institute of Education* (8): 123-124.
- [11] Wang, S. R. (2008). A Report on the Development of Foreign Language Education in Universities and Colleges. Shanghai:

Shanghai Foreign Languages Education Press.

- [12] Wen, Q. F. (2004). *A Research Method and Paper Writing in Applied Linguistics*. Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press.
- [13] Wen, Q. F. (2014). "The Controversy between General English and Special English in College English Teaching: Problems and Countermeasures." *Foreign Languages and their Teaching* (1):1-8.
- [14] Wu, X. H. (2014). "A Study of Improving the English Proficiency of Non-English Major Graduate Students -- Taking Guangdong University of Foreign Studies as an Example." *Journal of Guangdong University of Foreign Studies* (4): 94-97.
- [15] Xia, J. M. (2002). *The Theory and Practice of Modern Foreign Language Curriculum Design*. Shanghai: Shanghai Foreign Languages Education Press.
- [16] Xia, J. M. (2005). *Senior English Reading and Writing: A Supplementary Lesson plan for Academic English*. Shanghai: Shanghai Foreign Languages Education Press.
- [17] Xu, J. Q. & G. Y. Jiang. (2014). "The Concept of Curriculum Model Derived from Cognitive Needs." *Mind and Calculation* (2): 64-69.
- [18] Yang, X. L. & X. Y. Yang. (2013). *Academic English Writing*. Shanghai: Shanghai Jiao Tong University press.
- [19] Yang, B. J. (2009). *The Writing Basis of Postgraduate English Academic Papers*. Shanghai: Fudan University Press.
- [20] Yin, Y. F. & X. H. Wang. (2015). "A Probe into the Reform of English Testing Methods in Colleges and Universities: Inspiration from the Teaching and Assessment Methods of EAP in DIT." *Journal of Kaifeng Institute of Education* (4): 58-60.

Yuan Kong received her M.A. degree in linguistics. She is currently a lecturer at the School of Foreign Languages, Jining Medical University, Jining, Shandong, China. She teaches various subjects including: English intensive reading, English extensive reading, listening, nursing reading and so on. Her research interests mainly include English language teaching, applied linguistics, cross-cultural communication, etc.

Stylistics and the Teaching of *Advanced English* for Senior English Majors

Chuanmei Kang
Chongqing Institute of Humanity and Science, China

Abstract—This paper first briefly reviews that stylistics is applied to the teaching of English by scholars both abroad and in China, then discusses what and how to do stylistic analysis, and then by means of three sample analyses it aims at illustrating the view that as an effective method, stylistic analysis is conducive to improving students' abilities of reading and appreciation, and it concludes that it is both necessary and practical to apply stylistics to Advanced English teaching.

Index Terms—stylistics, stylistic analysis, sample analysis, *Advanced English* teaching

I. INTRODUCTION

Since last century, pedagogical stylistics has been inherently associated with the teaching of written texts (and especially literary texts) to speakers of English as a second language. R. Carter (2000) put forward the teaching strategies of literature, which includes 5 steps: prediction---cloze procedure-----summary-----forum-----guided rewriting. Some other stylisticians such as H.G. Widdowson (1975), Guy Cook (2000), Urszula Clark & Sonia Zyngier (2003), etc., are enthusiastic about applying stylistics to the teaching of English to both home and foreign students. The principal aim of stylistics in the classroom is to make students aware of language use within chosen texts, and what characterize pedagogical stylistics is classroom activities that are interactive between the text and the (student) readers (Clark & Zyngier, 2003).

In China, as early as in 1984, Wang Zuoliang claimed that the course of stylistics may take the place of the 4-year-long "intensive reading" course for English majors. Actually, some other Chinese scholars, such as Hu Zhuanglin (2004), Liu Shisheng (2004), Xu Youzhi (2005), Dong Qiming (2004), Wu Xianyou (2003), etc. have made great efforts to put stylistics to use. Moreover, according to "National Syllabus for University English Majors" (National Advisory Board on University Foreign Language Teaching, 2000), both the New Curriculum and English textbooks attach great importance to improving students' text awareness, style awareness as well as their abilities of reading and appreciation, which is not fully realized in Advanced English teaching as a result of various reasons. We hold that it is both necessary and practical to apply stylistics to Advanced English teaching.

II. THEORETICAL PRELIMINARIES

What is stylistics?

According to Mick Short, stylistics is an approach to the analysis of (literary) texts using linguistic description. It "aims at providing a methodology of analysis---a clear technique of description which, ideally, will allow any persons to cope with any text they want to study, a procedure that can ensure that no items of stylistic significance is overlooked. It replaces a sporadic approach with a systematic one and seeks to avoid over-reliance on intuitive ability in stylistic analysis" (Xu, 2004, P.42). It "is concerned both with interpretation and with the codes themselves; with both what the text means and why and how it means what it does" (Cook, 2000, P.152). Rooted in linguistics, stylistics is a comprehensive study of the particular linguistic features of a text or a writer and it is relatively scientific, objective and effective in dealing with texts.

What is stylistic analysis?

"Stylistic analysis, by starting with linguistic facts, relates description to interpretation and formal features to their artistic function" (Xu, 2004, P.18). "The goal of most stylistic studies is not simply to describe the formal features of texts for their own sake, but in order to show their functional significance for the interpretation of the text; or in order to relate literary effects or themes to linguistic 'triggers' where these are felt to be relevant"(Wales, 2001, P.372-373). It lays stress on the study of language functions and the different structures dictated by these functions. "Such linguistic-stylistic analysis can have considerable benefits for the study of the language and thus aids the integration of language and literature study..." (Carter, 2000, P.110). The process of stylistics analysis will be: take the object of study---a text, examine the text carefully, note down its stylistic features, and discuss them in terms of a number of levels of language. Stylistic analysis usually consists of three steps: description, interpretation and evaluation. By describing and interpreting some specific linguistic features of a certain text, readers are in a better position to understand the text; by evaluating those features, readers are more likely to fully appreciate the stylistic or aesthetic effects of a text. So stylistic analysis is generally believed to be systematic, objective and practical. The most

noteworthy example is M. A.K. Halliday's thesis "Linguistic Function and Literary Style: An Inquiry into the Language of Willam Golding's *The Inheritors*".

III. SAMPLE ANALYSES

Language is often likened to a code. As a code, language is multi-leveled. Apart from the level of semantics, there are some other levels like lexis, grammar, phonology and graphology, which together construct the giant building of language. So style may exist at various levels of language such as phonology/graphology, lexis, grammar and semantics, and any linguistic choice is a potential stylistic marker. (Leech & Short, 2001) Here are our sample analyses of some texts From *English* (Huang Yuanshen and Zhu Zongyi, 2001).

1. At phonological level

Typhoon (Book 6) is a narrative text dealing with men caught up in a vicious gale. It traces man's growing awareness of the tremendous power of the typhoon and his final realization of his own impotence in face of such great natural force. In order to render in language the sinister yet mysterious power of the typhoon and man's desperate endeavor to understand it, the author Conrad has employed many cases of sound patterning, especially the use of alliteration.

1) Definition

Alliteration is known as "head rhyme" or "initial rhyme", the parallelism of the initial consonant cluster in stresses syllables in any sequence of neighboring words (Wu, 2015). "As a deliberate phonological device, it is associated mostly with literary, especially poetic language; but it is also found in popular idioms (e.g. rack and ruin; as dead as a doornail), tongue twisters (Peter Piper picked a peck of pickled pepper.) and advertising language (Guinness is good for you)" (Wales, 2001, P.12).

2) Functions

A. for emphasis (speech is silver, silence is golden)

B. for humorous effect (tongue twisters)

C. for linking together words that are similar in feeling or thought (as cool as a cucumber)

D. for forming a connection of similarity or a connection of contrast (the best laid schemes o' mice and man)

3) Alliteration in the text

out of breath and bruised, with a brutal bang, stem to stern, regular rolling, the sudden smashing...

Analysis:

The author make use of words which are intrinsically onomatopoeic, like *bang*, as well as words which are phonaesthetic in a less direct sense, such as *breath and bruised, brutal* in which the similarities of sound connote similarities of meaning. The repeated stop consonant /b/ the sudden bursting-out and the heaviness of the harshness of the destructive gale just as the sound /b/ does. And the repeated /br/ sound shows the heavy and depressed mood of people which are victimized by the gale. The repeated consonant cluster /st/ reminds the reader of the enormous frictional force of typhoon to the ship. The sound /s/ indicates the shrill noise of the all-conquering nature power when it is willing to destroy the others. That the sound /r/ is repeated makes readers form a connection to the regularity of the ship's movement and the articulation of the sound reminds readers of the rolling of ship.

Apart from alliteration, some other sound patterning are employed, such as assonance in *ragged mass*, the repeated short vowel /æ/ indicates the heaviness and the depressing atmosphere. The continuous use of sound patterning gives the prose certain qualities of poetry. It seems that the terrible experience of man against a ferocious nature deserves a form of language more intense than plain prose. More examples about sound patterning can be found in *Salvation* (book 5), *Appetite* (book 5) and so on.

2. At lexical level

Philosophers among carrots (book 6) is written in the form of an essay. Its author manages to unite the two otherwise incompatible human endeavors in a pleasantly ironic way. Highly noteworthy are: 1) the collocational clash in the title, 2) juxtaposition of philosophic terms and household terms and 3) an abundant use of dynamic verbs denoting domestic activities as well as of stative verbs denoting perception or cognition.

The first thing that catches our eye is the title which obviously contains a collocational clash. Normally we do not expect "philosophers" to be found "among the carrots". Our knowledge about the world tells us that philosophers represent the best brains of mankind whereas carrots are perhaps one of the commonest kinds of food-stuff one can think of. Here the semantic incongruity of the two terms not only gives an ironic touch to the whole essay but also focuses the readers' attention on the key issue of the piece: what has college education to do with being a housewife?

This point is further highlighted by the writer's abundant use of the elevated language of philosophy interspersed among terms denoting common household objects and activities. We find words like *fantasy, manifestation, metaphysical, philosophy, sense, unity, variety*, etc. which are all of Latin origin alongside common core Anglo-Saxon words like *apple, cake, cook, cup, eat, shoes, socks, underwear*, etc. by placing the two sets of vocabulary side by side, the writer succeeds in forcing us to relate one to the other while maintaining the ironic tone.

It is also noteworthy that a large part of the verbs (finite or nonfinite) used in the essay are stative ones denoting perception or cognition such as: *eye, gaze, look, find, know, recall, reflect, remember, see, think, understand, wonder* etc. where such a verb is missing, the writer often uses a construction which expresses a cognitive process such as "followed the train of my thoughts" and "indulged in ... fantasies" as if the "I" in the essay is trying to identify herself with the

immediate world she perceives. In the meantime, we notice that these verbs are accompanied by a number of dynamic ones describing domestic objects and activities such as: *clean, comb, cut, dump, eat, immerse, pick up, put on, spray*, etc. Both the dynamic verbs and stative ones occur in the structure “as I ..., I ...” so that we have a clear picture of a busy housewife whose training in philosophy has enabled her to perceive and interpret her household routine in the light of great philosophical truths. She seems to be poking fun at herself (a college graduate) as well as at philosophy for it can be quoted to justify any situation. The effect is unmistakably ironic. By employing the above-mentioned linguistic devices, the writer manages to unite the two otherwise incompatible human endeavors in a pleasantly ironic way.

Another example at the lexical level can be found in *Daydreams of What You'd Rather Be* (Book 6). The author of the text, Lance Morrow, discusses man's yearning to escape from the self to be something different. This conflict between the self and antiself is demonstrated in part by the author's choice of a restricted self of lexical items depicting man's preoccupation with this issue. Lance Morrow adopts overlexicalization to highlight the major theme of the text. Overlexicalization refers to the availability, or the use of profusion of terms for an object or concept (Roger Fowler, 1986). In other words, it is the use of synonyms or near-synonyms to refer to the same thing. When it happens in a text, the particular set of vocabulary and the idea it stands for are foregrounded. In *Daydreams of What You'd Rather Be*, the key word “antiself”, repeated ten times, is accompanied by its synonyms and near-synonyms such as alternative self (twice), self renewal, self annihilation, the selves we might be, endless series of selves, everything that we are not, soul's next life, what you'd rather be, etc.. And it is also accompanied by the verb phrases to be something else, to leap out of the interminable self and into another skin, another life etc. All these expressions contain the feature /-self/, so man's daydream of being someone other than the self is extensively lexicalized. Its overlexicalization in the text seems to create an extremely active antiself, existing in man's fancy, fantasy, dream, imagination, impulsive moments, which form another set of terms overlexicalized in this text. Since the second set of terms all describe man in his unconscious or half-conscious state, they serve to symbolize the ultimate futility of man's yearning. It seems that by the use of a profusion of terms in these semantic fields the author is able to draw the reader's attention to his theme of man's estrangement from himself.

3. At syntactical level

The power of habit argues that although a habit is developed after birth, it becomes actually no less an inborn quality of a human creature than his character, and it can control one's behavior as powerfully as one's character (Huang, 2001). The author makes a consistent use of schematic patterning which, especially the use of parallelism, highlights the major arguments of the essay.

(1) Definition

Parallelism is defined as “consisting of phrases or sentences of similar constructions and meaning placed side by side, balancing each other”. Parallelism may appear at the word, phrase, or clause level. The usual way to join parallel structures is with the use of coordinating conjunctions such as “and” or “or”. (*Dictionary of Literary Terms*. qtd. in *English* (Book 6), Huang, 2001, p. 57)

(2) Functions

A. Contrast (opposite in meaning)

Speech is silver; silence is golden.

Not that I loved Caesar less, but that I loved Rome more. (*Julius Caesar*)

B. Similarity

Reading maketh a full man;

conference a ready man; and

writing an exact man. (Proverb by Francis Bacon)

C. Building up a climax and expressing strong emotions

“Let every nation know, whether it wishes us well or ill,

that we bear any burden,

meet any hardship,

support any friend,

oppose any foe to assure the survival and

the success of liberty.”

(John F. Kennedy, Inaugural Address, <http://www.presidency.ucsb.edu/ws/?pid=8032>)

(3) Parallelism in the text

Example 1:

“It alone is what keeps us all within the bounds of ordinance;

It alone prevents the hardest and most repulsive walks of life from being deserted by those brought up to tread therein

It keeps the fisherman and deckhand at sea through the winter;

It holds the miner in his darkness, and ...

(It) nails the countryman to his log-cabin and his lonely farm through all the months of snow;

It protects us from invasion by the natives of the desert and the frozen zone;

It dooms us all to fight out the battle of life upon the lines of our nurture or our early choice, and to make the best of a pursuit that disagrees, because there is no other for which we are fitted, and it is too late to begin again

It keeps different social strata from mixing.” (Huang, 2001, p. 52)

Analysis:

(1) The list seems to be an open-ended one. We feel as if more sentences describing the power of habit could be added to them. In other words, habit could display a greater power than the space would allow the writer to mention. Affected by the power of habit, the writer seems to get into the habit of using the “It is / does...” structure unconsciously.

(2) The non-human pronoun “it”, serving as the subject or the doer of an action instead of the object or receiver, seems to make habit the all-powerful initiator of actions whereas human beings are reduced to nothing but the affected participants of these actions. People are dominated, as it were, by their own habits. Here, parallelism helps to strengthen James’ argument that our habits constrain our behavior. So it is of great importance for us to develop useful habits as early as possible.

The schematic patterning gives the prose a regularly measured rhythm, adding much to the poetic flavor of the text. James’ repeated use of the same structure helps to build up a climax, thus contributing much to the theme of the text: the enormous power of habit.

Example 2

“...you see the professional mannerism settling down
on the young commercial traveler
on the young doctor
on the young counselor-at-law
... you see the little lines of cleavage running
through the character
the tricks of thought
the prejudices
the ways of the “shop””(Huang, 2001, p.52)

Analysis:

(1) Parallelism often goes hand in hand with repetition, which is fully revealed in the above example. The same sentence structure “you see...” is repeated in the next sentence, the prepositional phrase “on the young ...” is repeated twice, and parallelism is employed after the prepositional phrase “through”

(2) They are used for emphasis and emotional appeal. It shows that peculiar professional habits as well as traits of a person’s character are truly formed at an early age. It goes without saying that habit concerns us all, such as a businessman, a doctor, a lawyer, etc. The reader seems to be led step by step to accepting the writer’s view by the latter’s clever manipulation of the language.

The same kind of schematic patterning runs through the whole essay to emphasize the content, to express strong emotions and to give balance to the writing.

IV. IMPLICATIONS OF THIS STUDY IN THE TEACHING OF OTHER ENGLISH COURSES

“Stylistics has come to be used as a significant teaching tool in language and literature studies for both native and foreign speakers of English” (Wales, 2001, P.273). Known as systematic, objective and practical, stylistics has come to be used as a significant teaching tool in the senior English major classes. It is widely used in the teaching of such courses as literature, reading, writing, oral speaking and translation as well, and it will play a big role in the field of teaching.

V. CONCLUSION

The stylistic approach to advanced English teaching enables students both to understand and appreciate those texts, and to improve their competence in the English language. Short (1983) refers to such an approach as “a powerful double-edged tool” for the teacher and explains that “by showing how meanings come about he increases enjoyment and sensitivity to good literature; at the same time he increases the students explicit awareness of the general norms and conventions governing English usage” (Short, 1983, p.73). This approach is particularly suitable to Chinese students who have been learning English grammar carefully and systematically. Their familiarity with linguistic terminology will enable them to cope with the detailed and fairly technical stylistic description with little difficulty. In addition to the above, in stylistic analysis students are always asked to base their interpretation and comment on careful and systematic analysis of the language of the text so as to eliminate impressionistic remarks. This requirement will enable students to learn to substantiate argument with evidence and helps students to cultivate habits of logical thinking and objective analysis. Thus, it lays a good foundation for students to carry out research in a scientific way in the future. So it is necessary and feasible to apply stylistics to English teaching (especially advanced English teaching) in China.

REFERENCES

- [1] Cai Jigang. (2001). *A Contrastive Study of English and Chinese Writing*. Shanghai: Fudan University Press.
- [2] Carter, R. (2000), *Linguistic Models, Language, and Literariness: Study strategies in the teaching of literature to foreign*

- students. In C.J.Brunit and R.A.Carter(eds.): *Literature and Language Teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- [3] Christopher Brumfit, & R.Carter. (2000), *Literature and Language Teaching*. Shanghai: Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press.
- [4] Chen Shifa & Dongyeshengshi. (2009). A Stylistic Model to the Teaching of Advanced English. Kunming: *Journal of Yunnan Agricultural University*. Vol4, Pp.56-61, 80.
- [5] Clark, Urszula & Sonia Zyngier. (1996). Towards a Pedagogical Stylistics. *Language and Literature*, Vol. 12, No. 4, 339-351 (2003) Martin's.
- [6] Cook, Guy. (2000). Texts, Extracts, and Stylistic Texture, In Christopher Brumfit, & R. Carter. *Literature and Language Teaching*. Shanghai: Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press.
- [7] Dong Qiming. (2004). The Application of Stylistic Analysis in the Close Reading Course for Senior English Majors. Wang Shouyuan, Guo Hong.etc. *The Development of Stylistics Research in China*. Shanghai: Shanghai Foreign Language Press.
- [8] Douthwaitej. (2000).Towards a Linguistic Theory of Fore-grounding. Alessandria: Edizioni dell' Orso. P.19.
- [9] Fang Yan. (1998). A Brief Discussion of Genre. Shanghai: *Journal of Foreign Languages*. Vol 1. Pp: 18-23.
- [10] Fowler,Roger. (1996). *Linguistic Criticism*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- [11] Hu Zhuanglin & Liu Shisheng. (2004). The Development of Stylistics Research in China. Wang Shouyuan,Guo Hong.etc. *The Development of Stylistics Research in China*. Shanghai: Shanghai Foreign Language Press.
- [12] Hu Zhuanglin. (2000). *Theoretical Stylistics*. Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press.
- [13] Huang Yuansheng & Zhu Zhongyi. (2001). *English*. Shanghai: Shanghai Foreign Language Press.
- [14] Kay,H,et al. (1998). Genre: What Teachers Think. *ELT Journal*. Vol52 (4), Pp: 308-314.
- [15] Kennedy, John F. Inaugural Address, 5/1/2018. <http://www.presidency.ucsb.edu/ws/?pid=8032>.
- [16] Lambrou, M.,Stockwell, P. (2007). *Contemporary Stylistics*. London: Continuum.
- [17] Leech, Geoffrey N. & M. Short. (2001), *Style in Fiction: A Linguistic Introduction to English Fictional Prose*. Peking: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press.
- [18] Leech, G. (2008). *Language in Literature: Style and Foregrounding*. London: Routledge.
- [19] Liu Shisheng. (2004). Study on English Varieties and English Thinking. The 4th National Stylistics Annual Conference. Kaifeng, Henan.
- [20] Luo zhaohui. (2013). The Application of Stylistic Approach to the Intensive Reading for Senior English Majors. Guangzhou: *Journal of Guangdong Agriculture Industry Business Polytechnic*. Vol29 (02). pp: 33-37.
- [21] M.A.K, Commings, M., R. Simmons. (1983). *The Language of Literature: A Stylistic Introduction to the Study of Literature*. Oxford: Pergman Press.
- [22] Mills, Sara. (1995). *Feminist Stylistics*. London: Routledge.
- [23] National Syllabus for University English Majors. (2000). Shanghai: Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press.
- [24] Nida Eugene A. (1993). *Language, Culture and Translating*. Shanghai: Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press
- [25] Qin Xiubai. (2002). *Essentials of English Stylistics*. Shanghai: Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press.
- [26] Schank RC, Abelson RP. (1977). *Scripts, plans, goals, and understanding: An inquiry into human knowledge structures*. New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- [27] Short, M. H. (1983). Stylistics and the Teaching of Literature. In C. J. Brumfit(ed.). *Teaching Literature Overseas: Language Based Approaches*. Oxford: Pergamon.
- [28] Short, M. (1997). *Exploring the Language of Poems, Plays and Prose*. Harlow: Addison Wesley Longman Limited.
- [29] Swales, John M. (1990). *Genre Analysis---English in Academic and Research Settings*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- [30] Toolan, M. (1990). *The Stylistics of Fiction*. London: Routledge.
- [31] Wales, Katie. (2001). *A Dictionary of Stylistics*. Harlow: Pearson Education Limited.
- [32] Wang Feng. (2016). Review on Major Issues in English Stylistics. Tianjin: *Journal of Tianjin Foreign Language University*.,Vol23 (03), pp:77-79.
- [33] Wang Shouyuan. (2000). *Essentials of English Stylistics*. Jinan: Shandong University Press.
- [34] Weber, Jean Jacques, Ed. *The Stylistics Reader: From Roman Jakobson to the Present*. New York: St.
- [35] Werth, P. (1999). *Text Worlds: Representing Conceptual Space in Discourse*. London: Longman.
- [36] Widdowson, H. G. (1975), *Stylistics and the Teaching of literature*. London: Longman.
- [37] Wood. B. Dan. (2010). *The Myth of Presidential Representation*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press
- [38] Wu Xianyou. (2003). *The Theoretical Framework and Application of General Stylistics*. Xi an: Foreign Language Education.
- [39] Wu Xianyou. (2015). *English Rhetoric and Practical Writing*. Shanghai: East China Normal University publication.
- [40] Xu Youzhi. (2005). *English Stylistics*. Beijing: Higher Education Press.

Chuanmei Kang, born in Wushan, Chongqing, is currently associate professor of English in Dept. of foreign languages, Chongqing Institute of Humanity and Science. She earned her master degree from Chongqing Normal University, and her main research interests cover literary stylistics, feminist stylistics, and language education. She has published quite a few papers in some Chinese academic journals.

The Association between Self-efficacy of Saudi Learners and Their EFL Academic Performance

Fakieh Alrabai

Department of English Language, King Khalid University, Abha, Saudi Arabia

Abstract—Considering the important impact of individual variables on language learning, this study seeks to highlight the relationship between Saudi learners of English as a foreign language (EFL) sense of self-efficacy about learning English and their academic performance in this language. The self-efficacy beliefs of 221 Saudi EFL undergraduate students whose major is English were explored using a questionnaire, while their academic performance was assessed using final exam scores in four language skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing). The data gathered were analysed quantitatively. The findings demonstrated that EFL participating students hold very low overall self-efficacy beliefs about learning the English language. They were also low achievers in learning English in general. Moreover, students' English self-efficacy positively correlated with their language attainment, suggesting that learners' beliefs about language learning affect their language performance. The findings of the study shed light on the crucial association between Saudi EFL learners' self-efficacy beliefs and their language achievement. We anticipate that these findings will provide guidelines for the different parties involved in language learning/teaching in the country. These guidelines should address how to help students hold correct beliefs about foreign language learning in order to achieve better EFL learning outcomes.

Index Terms—self-efficacy, academic performance, mastery experience, vicarious experience, physiological state

I. INTRODUCTION

A. *The Concept of Self-efficacy*

Bandura (1986, p.392) conceptualized self-efficacy as “one’s belief in his ability to organize and accomplish the required tasks to manage the upcoming circumstances”. In a similar vein, Pajares (1996) perceived self-efficacy as a person’s subjective convictions to successfully learn or complete a specific task given the skills he/she possesses. Bandura (1997, p. 3) extended the definition of self-efficacy to be “a belief in one’s capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required to produce given attainments”.

Self-efficacy is considered a central component of social cognitive theory, which presumes that human beings have cognitive abilities to self-organize, self-reflect, self-regulate, and determine their own social destiny based on the changes in the environment that surround them. Pajares (2009) acknowledges this fact by explaining that self-efficacy is a key element of social cognitive theory in that people must recognize themselves and their capabilities in order to control their actions. According to him, self-efficacy beliefs provide a solid foundation for promoting human motivation, well-being, personal accomplishments, and risk-taking, as well as for lowering levels of anxiety.

Branscombe and Baron (2016) categorize self-efficacy into three main types: self-regulatory (self-efficacy that includes the ability to resist peer pressure and avoid high-risk activities), social (self-efficacy that includes the ability to form and maintain relationships, to be confident and involved in free time activities), and academic (self-efficacy that includes the ability to efficiently continue the course work, manage learning activities, and meet one’s own expectations).

B. *Significance of Self-efficacy*

Given the strong influence of self-efficacy on various aspects of learning variables such as motivation, behaviour, and academic performance, the past few years have seen a growing interest in self-efficacy research in the field of education. From a general perspective, Siegle (2000) stated that self-efficacy is dependent on the ability to attempt the task and specifies the student’s assertiveness to attempt a certain type of task. With respect to language learning, the self-efficacy beliefs of the learner play a premium role in learning non-primary languages. This construct is said to be strongly associated with language learner’s behaviours (e.g., choice behaviour), the degree to which students pursue language learning tasks (i.e., whether or not they believe they are sufficiently capable to execute or, inversely, step away from it), and the amount of effort applied by an individual as well as his/her determination in language learning. Apart from choice behaviour and the effort, self-efficacy not only influences how much effort is applied but also affects how productive the effort turns out to be. Further, a person’s thoughts and emotional reaction are dependent on self-efficacy. The feeling of calm and tranquillity is felt by individuals with a high degree of self-efficacy while attempting a task and; conversely, an individual with low self-efficacy feels the task to be more strenuous than it actually is (Pajares, 1996). According to Pajares and Valiante (1997), such students’ beliefs about their academic capabilities largely affect their

acquired knowledge and skills mastery and may either help or hinder the development of language (Pintrich & Schunk, 1996).

Self-efficacy beliefs can positively or negatively affect the process of language learning. On the positive side, high self-efficacy increases the sense of achievement and well-being in students (Siddiqui, 2015). Highly efficacious learners put more effort into the task and, when difficulties or hardships arise, they conveniently become more determined to overcome obstacles (Herron et al, 2006). Moreover, self-efficacy helps students pursue tasks with confidence, enables them to set difficult goals and higher personal standards, develop problem-solving techniques, become willing to take on challenging tasks, and they exhibit lower levels of anxiety as well (Schunk, 1990). Furthermore, students with higher self-efficacy demonstrate higher motivation (Schunk, 1991) and deliver better learning results (Schunk and Pajares, 2002).

On the negative side, students who hold low self-efficacy beliefs do not like to face challenges and usually avoid difficult tasks (Schunk, 1990) because they consider their low ability to be inborn (Bernhardt, 1997). Believing that they have low aptitude by birth, low self-efficacious students tend to tackle easy tasks with a low level of difficulty and often set simple and short-term goals (Tremblay & Gardner, 1995). Such students usually attempt tasks with uncertainty and tend to become anxious and stressed because they always view difficult tasks as threatening (Bandura, 1997). Those learners typically feel the stress of failure from initiating learning tasks due to a lack of confidence. They also always have the fear of failure, which forces them to have a weak commitment to accomplishing the required tasks.

C. *Sources of Self-efficacy*

Blumenthal (2014) states that the self-efficacy of a learner is influenced by both internal and external factors. The social environment of a learner is considered an external factor, while the learner's personal traits are internal factors, both of which are significant variables that fashion his/her efficacy beliefs.

According to Bandura (1997), there are four main sources of learner self-efficacy: Mastery experience, Vicarious experience, Verbal persuasions, and Physiological and affective states. Usher (2009) recognized Mastery experience (i.e., one's own previous experiences and performances) as the most powerful among the four primary sources. Vicarious experience (i.e., socially comparing one's self to other people having similar capabilities and considering them as role models to hold the belief that we also possess the capabilities to master the activities necessary for success) is the second source of self-efficacy. The third source of learner self-efficacy is Verbal persuasions (i.e., affirming one's belief verbally—through positive self-talks—that he/she is capable of mastering certain activities). Finally, Physiological and affective states (i.e., anxiety, stress, arousal, fear reactions, tension, nervousness and tiredness, are all emotions that can either reduce, or conversely, boost confidence in our capabilities).

Zuo and Wang (2016) acknowledge the four sources proposed by Bandura (1997) and suggest that the major factors that influence participants' self-efficacy beliefs to use English are past performance, peers' and advisors' influence, social persuasions, and emotional and physiological states, in addition to self-awareness of English proficiency, familiarity with the task and its level of difficulty, and interest in learning.

D. *The Relationship between Self-efficacy and EFL Academic Performance*

Self-efficacy has been found to be positively connected to students' academic achievement within the educational setting (Pajares & Miller, 1995; Pajares, Miller, & Johnson, 1999; Pajares & Valiante, 1997; Zimmerman, 1995; among others).

Only a few self-efficacy studies have been applied to the field of language learning (see e.g. Multon, Brown, & Lent, 1991; Chen, 2007, etc.). Investigations in this area have examined the relationship between self-efficacy and the general competence of a language learner as well as the achievement in specific language skills in relation to learner self-efficacy. In their study, Mahyuddin and her associates (2006) identified a positive correlation between students' self-efficacy and their English language achievement. The authors concluded that achievement in the English language improves when students have high self-efficacy. Additionally, Ayooobiyan and Soleimani (2015) explored the relationship between Iranian medical students' self-efficacy and their language proficiency. The authors established a positive and very strong correlation between students' language proficiency and their self-efficacy in that students with higher self-efficacy tended to have higher language proficiency.

Mills, Pajares, and Herron (2006) led a study that examined the relationship between learner self-efficacy and specific skills in language learning. For male students, there was a relationship between reading self-efficacy and reading proficiency, while for female students, the relationship was between listening self-efficacy and listening proficiency.

The impact of English listening self-efficacy, English anxiety, the perceived value of the English language and culture on EFL learners' performances was the subject of investigation by Chen (2007). The results indicated that English listening self-efficacy predicts English listening performance better than do language anxiety, perceived value of the English language and culture.

Huang and Chang (1998) conducted another study on the relationship between reading and writing self-efficacy and achievement with four ESL students from the highest level of reading and writing classes. The participants' self-efficacy has been found to affect their writing performance.

Chen and Lin (2009) investigated the predictors of success in an English language-writing test. The main findings

were that high achievers demonstrated high levels of self-efficacy and similarly low levels of anxiety.

The results from the aforementioned studies evaluating the association between self-efficacy and performance in language learning confirm the vital importance of the self-efficacy variable in learning a second/foreign language.

E. Statement of the Problem

Considerable research has been devoted to the study of self-efficacy in educational settings with results demonstrating a positive relationship between self-efficacy beliefs and academic achievement. However, a thorough search of related literature reveals that research on language self-efficacy is still very rare in Saudi Arabia, if performed at all. To the best knowledge of the researcher, the study of Abdelhafez and Zaki (2016) was the only one that investigated Saudi learners' self-efficacy. Using two scales (the EFL self-efficacy and the EFL identity), this study explored the relationship between EFL learners' self-efficacy and identity and sought to identify gender differences among a sample of 320 male and female EFL undergraduate university students at two state universities in Saudi Arabia and Egypt. The authors reported a significant correlation between learners' self-efficacy and their identity. The study sub-groups differed in all dimensions of identity (except the social dimension) and favoured the female and Egyptian groups.

To our knowledge, we are not aware of any study investigating the predictive power of self-efficacy beliefs of achievement in English as a foreign language for Saudi students. This study therefore aims primarily to explore the self-efficacy perceptions of the Saudi EFL college-level learners' and investigate whether this knowledge reveals connections between learners' beliefs and their achievement in English as a foreign language.

F. Significance of the Study

This study holds a pedagogical significance that gives recognition to the possible association between students' self-efficacy and foreign language achievement in the eyes of the different stakeholders of the EFL process in Saudi Arabia (EFL learners, teachers, and curriculum developers). Knowing how the student perceives him/herself directs the planning and implementation of the best learning strategies, thereby decreasing the negative thoughts about their own abilities. In light of the anticipated findings of this study, teachers of English in schools, institutes, university professors, etc., can study the positive or negative impacts efficacy may have on achievement and enhance the learners' language proficiency by developing the positive and minimizing the negative. Furthermore, the study outcomes may be of great assistance to language-teaching professionals and material developers in Saudi Arabia in guiding the development of appropriate courses for English language learning and subsequently contribute to the creation of improved English language programmes in the country.

G. Main Objectives of the Study

The main objectives of the study are the following:

- a. Identifying the degree of self-efficacy and EFL achievement of English-majoring university students in Saudi Arabia.
- b. Identifying the association between self-efficacy and academic achievement of EFL university students in Saudi Arabia.

H. Questions of the Study

1. What is the degree of self-efficacy and EFL achievement of the English language learners in Saudi Arabia?
2. What association exists amongst the learners' self-efficacy in Saudi Arabia and their EFL achievement?

II. METHODS AND DESIGN

Quantitative research was conducted in order to determine the degree of the learners' self-efficacy for learning English and to identify the degree of the association between learners' self-efficacy in Saudi Arabia and their achievement in the English language.

A. The Study's Subjects and Context

A total of 221 (108 male and 113 female) participants were recruited from one tertiary EFL context (King Khalid University in the south of Saudi Arabia) for the study. All were English-majoring university students between the ages of 18 and 27 years. These students were in the first four levels where the courses taught focus mainly on the four language skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing). All the participants were Saudi nationals with Arabic as their native language. The undergraduate English language programme at King Khalid University offers a variety of linguistics, translation, and literature courses, which together provide the student with a good command of English and sound knowledge in various cognitive, interpersonal, communication, and psychomotor skills.

B. Measurements and Procedures

An online Arabic-language students' survey was employed in this study. The 32-questions scale examined learners' assessment of their capabilities to master certain skills while learning English as a foreign language on a 7-point Likert-type rating scale ranging from 1 (I cannot do it at all) to 7 (I can do it very well). The scale was designed to

measure the learners' efficacy in the following four skills: (a) self-efficacy for listening (Items 1, 3, 9, 10, 15, 22, 24, and 27); (b) self-efficacy for speaking (Items 4, 6, 8, 17, 19, 20, 23, and 30); (c) self-efficacy for reading (Items 2, 12, 16, 21, 25, 26, 29, and 32); and (d) self-efficacy for writing in English (Items 5, 7, 11, 13, 14, 18, 28, and 31). Most of the items in this survey were adopted from The Questionnaire of English Self-Efficacy (QESE) developed by Wang (2004), and Wang et al. (2013), while others were developed mainly for this research based on the research scope and to make it applicable to the target population and context.

The items of the questionnaire were translated into Arabic so that the participants would understand it and use it with ease (for the Arabic and the original English-language version, see the Appendix). Three Arabic-speaking experts verified the translation. To establish the reliability of the instruments used to collect data, the efficacy tool was piloted with 43 volunteer university students prior to the main stage of the study. The Cronbach alpha coefficient was .96, confirming the reliability of the instrument and its readiness to be used in the main study. The face validity of the survey was confirmed because the survey utilized in this study was mainly adopted from earlier studies that had confirmed the survey is a valid measure of the qualities it is designed to measure.

During the design process, the online survey was created to be visually appealing to encourage the potential participants to finish the entire survey. Words and expressions that are simple, direct, and familiar to the targeted respondents were used in the survey.

An invitation along with comprehensive details about the research was sent to the potential participants in the semester preceding the semester of data collection. Those participants who confirmed their participation were provided with a link to the survey items and guidelines on how to complete the survey. Participants were assured at different stages of the study that their participation was completely voluntary and that they could withdraw at any stage if they so desired. Furthermore, they were reassured that their responses and the information collected would be entirely confidential and used exclusively for the purposes of this research. Participants completed the online survey in the computer labs at their institution. The survey was equipped with an indicator of progress (e.g., survey completion bar) to help the respondents determine how much of the survey they had completed. It took subjects approximately 30 minutes to complete the entire survey. After completing the survey, the participants received an acknowledgement message recognizing him/her for taking part in the study and confirming receipt of the survey. While responding to the survey, the researcher was also available to respond to any inquiries from the participants.

EFL achievement was measured by students' total score on the end-of semester unified exams that were designed to evaluate the mastery of four language skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing). The total score for the end-of-semester exam is 50 (12.5 points for each skill), and the total mark for a learner is multiplied by 2 for a final score of 100.

Listening skill was assessed using a listening comprehension test based on particular sets of situational recorded dialogues in the student's textbook. Students were required to answer multiple-choice questions to assess their comprehension of the main ideas and accurate information and to evaluate how they followed the development of arguments in the dialogues.

Speaking assessment involved evaluating the learner's ability to communicate by providing the student with a card that contained a topic that he/she had already studied during the semester. The candidate was then required to speak about it for approximately 2 minutes and to give short answers to questions. The student's ability to communicate was assessed based on certain criteria (how fluent the student was, how coherent were their ideas, how much vocabulary did the he/she possess and how well did they use it, how well the student used the language grammatical rules, how good was his/her pronunciation, etc.)

Achievement tests in reading assessed the students' reading comprehension skills, vocabulary knowledge, and spelling. Multiple-choice questions were given to assess the students' comprehension obtained through retrieving directly stated information, interpreting explicit and implied information as well as reflecting on texts. The learners' vocabulary was evaluated via word knowledge (e.g., synonyms and antonyms). Spelling was assessed through dictation whereby the teacher read a sentence aloud, which contained words that students had to spell.

Using essay tests and short-answer questions on general topics, writing tests evaluated the students' ability to organize ideas and use a range of vocabulary and grammar accurately. For essay grading, a criterion for appropriate responses to each essay question was developed followed by a scoring guide that explained what the scorer was seeking in each response and how much credit he/she intended to give for each part of the response.

A committee of four well-qualified teachers in the field of language education was assigned to mark the students' answers using unified answer sheets.

C. Data Analysis

To answer the first research question about the degree of self-efficacy and EFL achievement of Saudi language learners, frequencies, means and standard deviations for descriptive statistical analyses were deployed. Pearson correlation coefficients analysis was performed to identify the degree and the direction of the relationship between learners' self-efficacy and their EFL achievement (i.e., the second research question).

III. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Based on the analysis of the study data, answers to the study questions were derived and presented in this section of the paper as follows:

1. What is the degree of self-efficacy and EFL achievement of English language learners in Saudi Arabia?

The degree of learner self-efficacy was calculated and categorized as follows: self-efficacy mean score above 6.30 out of 7 (> 90%) was categorized as very high self-efficacy; a mean score ranging from 5.60 to 6.30 out of 7 (80 to 90%) was categorized as high self-efficacy; a mean score from 4.90 to 5.60 out of 7 (70% to 80%) was classified as moderate self-efficacy; a score from 4.20 to 4.90 out of 7 (60% to 70%) was classified as low self-efficacy; and an efficacy score below 4.20 (< 60%) was classified as very low self-efficacy. The data in Table I below indicate that the overall mean score for learners' self-efficacy in this study was 3.82 out of 7 (54.57%). In light of this result, participating learners in this study are considered very low-eflicacious EFL learners.

TABLE I.
THE DEGREE OF LANGUAGE SELF-EFFICACY OF PARTICIPATING LEARNERS

Variable	Mean	Standard Deviation
Efficacy for Listening	3.68	.89
Efficacy for Speaking	4.12	.94
Efficacy for Reading	3.80	.86
Efficacy for Writing	3.68	.88
Overall Self-efficacy	3.82 (out of 7)	.82

Another significant finding is that participants demonstrated very low self-efficacy on all the four language skills, as can be seen in Table I. This finding verifies the relationship identified by earlier studies that recognized self-efficacy as the best predictor of learners' mastery in language skills (see e.g., Rahimi and Abedini, 2009; Asakereh and Dehghannezhad, 2015; Boakye, 2015; Pajares, 2003; among many others).

The mean scores reported in the appendix at the end of this paper reveal that participants did not score high efficacy on any of the items of the survey (5.6 out of 7, > 80%). The participants established moderate efficacy on only one item in the entire survey: item # 30 'Can you introduce yourself in English?' (M = 5.00 out of 7, 71.43%); and low efficacy on six items (# 2, 4, 11, 17, 21, and 27). Respondents demonstrated very low self-efficacy on the other twenty-five items in the survey, with item # 18 'Can you produce English sentences with idiomatic phrases?' being the one with the lowest mean in the whole survey (M = 2.78 out of 7, 39.71%); followed by item # 28 'Can you post news in English on the internet?' (M = 2.91 out of 7, 41.57%). Learners in this study appear to believe that their abilities were well below the competences required to perform the tasks required in these two items.

There are various hypotheses to explain the low self-efficacy of EFL learners in Saudi Arabia. Foremost is the contention that Saudi learners lack the fundamental basics necessary to have positive self-efficacy beliefs towards language learning. These basics include a learners' past performance (Mastery Experience), experiences with the performance of others (Vicarious Experience), persuasion from significant others (Social Persuasion), and physiological and emotional conditions (Psycho-physiological State).

One very important source of self-efficacy that Saudi language learners usually lack is the Mastery Experience. This is a well-known fact about most Arab learners of the English language. Rabab'ah (2003) argues that the most noticeable problems that impede the progress of Arab students at the university level can be attributed to the "inadequate mastery of the four language skills; namely, listening, speaking, reading and writing, p.186". Alaraj (2016) verifies this fact by claiming that most Saudi students fail to successfully acquire the English language. Since the sense of self-efficacy of students grows with successes and declines with failures, this affects the learners' perception of their abilities and they accordingly develop low self-efficacy because of their unsuccessful past learning experience.

Another very important reason behind the low self-efficacy of Saudi EFL learners is the absence of Vicarious Experience. The learners usually lack the ability to observe and benefit from other successful people's experiences, which would reinforce their self-belief in their capabilities and in turn enhance their beliefs that they would be able to successfully master similar situations. This situation could be due to the absence of cooperative learning (CL) strategies in teaching English to Saudi university learners, where learners work individually rather than in pairs or groups. Ishtiaq and Hussain (2017) indicated that teachers of English in Saudi universities still adhere to the traditional methods of teaching and that the implementation of CL and other innovative teaching methods is still at an impractical stage. The authors attributed this fact to a variety of reasons such as teachers' unwillingness to change their teaching practices and the lack of appropriate training to apply different CL strategies.

A third rationale for the low efficacy of Saudi language learners could be the lack of Verbal Persuasion. Those learners usually hold self-doubts and lose confidence that they are able to execute learning tasks efficiently (Rafada and Madini, 2017). The learners also hold negative beliefs and expectations about language learning (e.g., Al-Roomy, 2015), which leads consequently to negative self-talk and judgements, especially when they face a learning challenge. Furthermore, those learners lack constant constructive feedback (Alrabai, 2018) and advice from others (e.g., teachers) that would help them maintain a sense of efficacy and offer their best effort to successfully execute learning tasks.

A fourth obstacle that impedes the development of self-efficacy beliefs in Saudi EFL learners is the lack of proper ways of evaluating and dealing with learners' physiological/emotional states such as anxiety, motivation, and attitudes. Dinther, Dochy, and Segers (2011) asserted that students' moods, emotions, physical reactions, and stress levels

significantly influence their perspectives about their personal abilities and self-efficacy beliefs. These emotions have been found to negatively affect Saudi learners' performance in English language (see Ismail, 2015). A stressful learning environment fuelled by nervousness, tension, low confidence, low motivation, and negative attitudes, as seen in the Saudi EFL context (Asif, 2017), is doubtlessly the perfect environment in which to develop low self-efficacy in learners.

As for the second part of Question 1 of the study, the degree of the learner achievement was classified as follows: an achievement score above 90 out of 100 (>90) was classified as very high achievement; a score from 80 to 90 (80% to 90%) was classified as high achievement; a score from 70 to 80 (70% to 80%) was classified as moderate achievement; a score from 60 to 70 (60% to 70%) was classified as low achievement; and an achievement score below 60 (<60%) was classified as very low achievement. The data in Table II reveal that the overall mean score for learner achievement was 66.54 (66.54%). Thus, it can be concluded that Saudi learners are low achievers in terms of the English language. This fact has been confirmed by many prior studies (see e.g. Alhawsawi, 2014; Alrabai, 2017). For detailed explanations of the reasons behind Saudi EFL learners' low language achievement, the reader is referred to these prior studies. One very important conclusion in this study is that learners performed better in comprehension tests (reading and listening) than in performance-based tests (speaking and writing), which emphasizes the deficiencies in their communication skills (See Table II). This finding validates those reported by earlier studies about the difficulties Saudi learners encounter when communicating in a foreign language (See Al-Nasser, 2015; Al-Sobhi and Preece, 2018).

TABLE II.
THE DEGREE OF EFL ACHIEVEMENT OF PARTICIPATING LEARNERS

Variable	Mean	Standard Deviation
Achievement in Listening	70.96	11.81
Achievement in Speaking	52.56	8.75
Achievement in Reading	76.08	12.66
Achievement in Writing	66.56	11.07
Overall Achievement	66.54 (out of 100)	11.07

2. What is the relationship among learners' self-efficacy and their EFL achievement?

The figures in Table III make it obvious that a positive correlation exists between learners' self-efficacy and their language achievement. This finding suggests that learners' self-efficacy beliefs accounts for their language performance. This conclusion is in line with past research findings that have validated the powerful influence of students' efficacy beliefs on their academic performance (Graham & Weiner, 1996; Schunk & Pajares, 2002). In a meta-analysis of self-efficacy research published between 1977 and 1988, Multon, Brown, & Lent (1991) found positive and significant relationships between self-efficacy beliefs and academic performance. The authors reported that self-efficacy beliefs accounted for approximately 14% of the variance in students' academic performance.

TABLE III.
THE ASSOCIATION BETWEEN LEARNERS' SELF-EFFICACY AND THEIR EFL ACHIEVEMENT

	Overall Achievement
Overall Self-efficacy	.549**

Note. **, Correlation is significant at $p < 0.01$.

IV. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This study examined the degree of and the relationship between efficacy of Saudi learners with regard to the English language and their achievement in this language as an academic subject. The EFL learners participated in this study had low self-efficacy and were also low English language achievers. A positive correlation was detected between the two variables. These findings are attributed to a number of reasons such as unsatisfactory mastery experience, lack of Vicarious Experience, lack of verbal persuasion, low motivation, high anxiety, negative attitudes, and low autonomy.

Based on the findings derived from this study, it is obvious that it is necessary to identify the underlying causes of low self-efficacy of Saudi EFL learners to improve their language academic performance. To begin with, the concept of self-efficacy, its sources and benefits should be made clear to both the teachers and students. In addition, efficient and practical methods should be utilized to help students maintain high and positive self-beliefs while learning English. The students must be made aware of the fact that achieving success is directly related to the amount of effort and the self-discipline the learner brings to the task and is not exclusively a function of a person's innate ability. Likewise, failure can be always converted to success by putting in more effort.

Additionally, the sources of self-efficacy should be targeted and addressed. The Mastery Experience of learners should be enhanced in different ways. Kondo (1999) advised that it is necessary to rebuild the self-confidence in learners who have had past failures by creating realistic goals according to their capabilities and interests. In this regard, language teachers are to encourage learners to focus on the external factors that may have contributed to their past failures (e.g., not spending the required time on the task or not following the strategy for learning) rather than blaming their innate learning abilities.

Vicarious Experience of learners should also to be considered. This consideration can be done by using peer models

in the way that the language instructor forms peers from groups of students according to their age, ethnicity, interests, achievement level, or gender and helps them to obtain benefits from their peer accomplishments.

Verbal persuasion through positive self-talk should also be used to increase learners' self-efficacy. In this respect, certain statements with positivity such as 'I can do it, I will make it, everybody makes mistakes, etc.' may assist in developing learners' self-efficacy. Moreover, teachers must always emphasize learners' capabilities as able students, equip them with frequent, focused, and positive feedback about their progress (Margolis & McCabe, 2003), and enable them to compare their progress to the desired learning goals. To put this approach into practice, using encouraging statements such as 'you are smart enough to do this, making mistakes is a way of learning' is necessary, though it should be realistic and not exaggerated.

Special attention should be paid to improving learners' physiological/emotional states. Because of the relationship between a learner's self-efficacy and their motivation, it is the teacher's duty to assist students with low motivation to take up challenges and achieve their goals. Linnenbrink and Pintrich (2003) highlighted that behavioural, cognitive and motivational engagements may help develop feelings of efficacy that result in positive changes in the learners' academic performance. Moreover, teachers must find ways to minimize learners' language anxiety. Controlling learners' anxiety helps to build the confidence that they have the ability to achieve their goals and will further provide them with a sense of success and achievement. In this respect, teachers should avoid anxiety-provoking practices such as continuous criticism or comparing the performance of one student to another, which will only increase their anxiety.

Linking the course subjects to the goals, interests, experiences, and values of learners will lead to better attitudes towards learning the target language. These manoeuvres will also assist students in accepting and understanding themselves, thereby enhancing their self-efficacy.

Another technique that might help in dealing with learners' emotions is to help students set specific, short-term, challenging but attainable goals (Pajares & Schunk, 2002). Students should also be guided to choose learning tasks that are neither too difficult nor too easy. If the learner fails to master tasks that are beyond his/her capability level, this will weaken the learners' self-efficacy. Similarly, if the task accomplished is below the learners' levels of competence, it may not result in efficacy reappraisals (Schunk, 1985).

Students should be involved in an autonomy-supportive environment that enables them to be effectively involved in the learning process. The study of Tilfarlioglu and Ciftci (2011) reported a strong link between learner autonomy and self-efficacy. When participants' sense of self-efficacy increases, their potential to be autonomous also increases.

Although this study bears particular significance for understanding Saudi students' self-efficacy beliefs, limitations exist. First, by limiting the selection of participants to only one university in Saudi Arabia, the study is subject to a threat to external validity. For this reason, the findings of the present study may not be generalizable to other populations. Future research is to recruit participants representing various age and educational levels and different regional backgrounds.

Second, because the study is based on self-reported data, the necessity to conduct further studies cannot be ruled out particularly regarding the learners' English self-efficacy and their beliefs about learning language in Saudi Arabia. Using other data collection tools such as interviews is recommended for future research.

Despite the positive correlation detected in this study between learners' self-efficacy and their EFL performance, its explanatory power of learners' actual performance remains limited due to the limited number of independent variables included in the study. Given that the factors that are associated with language learning outcome are numerous, such as those that go beyond the learner's emotion variables, there remains a necessity to examine the relationship between students' self-efficacy beliefs and other affective variables (the learners' language motivation, aptitude, anxiety, attitudes, etc.) to identify the best mediator of language achievement. Future research should investigate how Saudi learners' self-efficacy relates to these factors and how such relationships affect attainment in a foreign language. Finally, researchers' attention needs to be directed towards the value of self-efficacy in promoting the quality of language learning programmes in Saudi Arabia. Further research should also conduct investigations examining the interaction of learners' English self-efficacy with variables such as cognitive styles, learning strategies, motivational constructs; how gender and sex differences influence this variable, and the degree to which using learner-centred learning practices may cause a change in learners' self-efficacy.

APPENDIX

<p>Dear student, Please read the following 32 questions through carefully and try to assess your English language competence as accurately as possible, regardless of whether you have ever had to perform the actions described or not using the scale below. The questions have been conceived in order to measure your self-perceived capabilities. There are therefore no right or wrong answers. <i>I am totally unable to do this</i> <i>I am unable to do this</i> <i>I am possibly unable to do this</i> <i>I am possibly able to do this</i> <i>I am basically and in principle able to do this</i> <i>I am able to do this</i> <i>I am able to do this well</i></p> <p>عزيزي الطالب/ عزيزتي الطالبة: قم بقراءة ال 32 سؤالاً التالية بعناية ثم قم بتقييم قدرتك على القيام بهذه الأنشطة مستخدماً المقياس الموجود بالأسفل. لقد تمت صياغة هذه الأسئلة لقياس قدرتك للقيام بهذه الأنشطة وبالتالي لا يوجد عبارة صحيحة أو خاطئة في الاستبيان:</p> <p>ليس باستطاعتني فعل ذلك أبداً ليس باستطاعتني فعل ذلك ربما لا أستطيع فعل ذلك ربما أستطيع فعل ذلك أستطيع فعل ذلك أستطيع فعل ذلك بشكل جيد أستطيع فعل ذلك تماماً</p>			
Statement	M	SD	العبارة
1. Can you understand stories told in English?	3.84	1.06	1. هل باستطاعتك فهم القصص باللغة الانجليزية؟
2. Can you do homework/home assignments alone when they include reading English texts?	4.28	1.22	2. هل بإمكانك تأدية واجب مهارة القراءة بشكل مستقل (بمفردك دون الاعتماد على أحد)؟
3. Can you understand American TV programs (in English)?	3.53	1.10	3. هل بإمكانك فهم البرامج التي تقدم باللغة الانجليزية الأمريكية؟
4. Can you describe your university to other people in English?	4.24	1.22	4. هل بإمكانك وصف مدرستك/كليتك باللغة الانجليزية؟
5. Can you compose messages in English on the internet (Facebook and twitter)?	4.11	1.25	5. هل بإمكانك استخدام اللغة الانجليزية للكتابة على بعض مواقع الانترنت مثل الفيسبوك وتويتر؟
6. Can you describe the way to the university from the place where you live in English?	4.04	1.29	6. هل بإمكانك وصف الطريق من منزلك الى كليتك باستخدام اللغة الانجليزية؟
7. Can you write diary entries in English?	3.94	1.20	7. هل بإمكانك كتابة يومياتك باستخدام اللغة الانجليزية؟
8. Can you tell a story in English?	3.47	1.29	8. هل بإمكانك حكاية قصة لأصدقائك باستخدام اللغة الانجليزية؟
9. Can you understand radio programs in English-speaking countries?	3.37	1.19	9. هل بإمكانك فهم البرامج الإذاعية (عبر الراديو) الناطقة باللغة الانجليزية؟
10. Can you understand English-language TV programs?	3.59	1.12	10. هل بإمكانك فهم البرامج التلفزيونية الناطقة باللغة الانجليزية؟
11. Can you write a letter or leave a note for another student in English?	4.40	1.14	11. هل بإمكانك كتابة رسالة أو ترك ملاحظه لصديقك/زميلك باللغة الانجليزية؟
12. Can you guess the meaning of unknown words when you are reading an English text?	3.90	1.22	12. هل تستطيع تخمين معاني الكلمات التي لا تعرف معانيها عند قراءة قطعة باللغة الانجليزية؟
13. Can you form new sentences from words you have just learned?	4.09	1.19	13. هل بإمكانك استخدام الكلمات الإنجليزية الجديدة التي تعلمتها حديثاً في جمل مفيدة؟
14. Can you write e-mails in English?	3.86	1.35	14. هل بإمكانك كتابة بريد الكتروني (إيميل) باللغة الانجليزية؟
15. Can you understand English dialogs (audio recordings) on a CD?	3.56	1.16	15. هل بإمكانك فهم محادثه باللغة الانجليزية مسجلة على سي دي (CD)؟
16. Can you understand messages or news items in English on the internet?	3.33	1.14	16. هل بإمكانك فهم الأخبار باللغة الانجليزية على الانترنت؟
17. Can you ask your teacher questions in English?	4.30	1.05	17. هل بإمكانك توجيه أسئلة لمعلمك باللغة الانجليزية؟
18. Can you produce English sentences with idiomatic phrases?	2.78	1.19	18. هل بإمكانك تكوين جمل باللغة الانجليزية باستخدام بعض المصطلحات اللغوية العربية وذات المعنى غير المباشر؟
19. Can you introduce your teacher (to someone else) in English?	4.04	1.11	19. هل بإمكانك التعريف بمعلمك (تقديم وصف عن معلمك) باللغة الانجليزية لشخص آخر؟
20. Can you discuss subjects of general interest with your fellow students (in English)?	3.74	1.27	20. هل بإمكانك مناقشة بعض المواضيع العامة مع زملائك باللغة الانجليزية؟
21. Can you read short English narratives?	4.53	1.15	21. هل بإمكانك قراءة قصص قصيرة باللغة الانجليزية؟
22. Can you understand English films without Arabic subtitles?	3.40	1.22	22. هل بإمكانك فهم الأفلام باللغة الانجليزية بدون الترجمة العربية؟
23. Can you answer your teacher's questions in English?	4.10	1.08	23. هل بإمكانك الإجابة باللغة الإنجليزية على الأسئلة التي يوجهها لك معلمك؟
24. Can you understand English songs?	3.42	1.27	24. هل بإمكانك فهم الأغاني باللغة الإنجليزية؟
25. Can you read English-language newspapers?	3.54	1.24	25. هل بإمكانك قراءة جريدة صادرة باللغة الإنجليزية؟
26. Can you find out the meanings of new words using a monolingual dictionary?	3.83	1.28	26. هل بإمكانك فهم معاني الكلمات الإنجليزية الجديدة عن طريق استخدام القاموس أحادي اللغة (إنجليزي - إنجليزي)؟
27. Can you understand telephone numbers spoken in English?	4.75	1.09	27. هل بإمكانك فهم أرقام الهاتف المنطوقة باللغة الانجليزية؟
28. Can you post news in English on the internet?	2.91	1.20	28. هل بإمكانك نشر أخبار باللغة الانجليزية عن طريق الانترنت؟
29. Can you understand English articles on Arabic culture?	3.40	1.31	29. هل بإمكانك فهم مقالة عن الثقافة العربية مكتوبة باللغة الانجليزية؟
30. Can you introduce yourself in English?	5.00	1.10	30. هل بإمكانك التعريف بنفسك (تقديم وصف عن نفسك) باللغة الانجليزية؟
31. Can you write an essay in about two pages about your school/college in English?	3.39	1.37	31. هل بإمكانك كتابة مقالة من صفحتين باللغة الانجليزية عن كليتك/مدرستك؟
32. Can you understand new reading materials (e.g., news from Arab news newspaper) selected by your instructor?	3.60	1.19	32. هل بإمكانك فهم قطع القراءة الجديدة (على سبيل المثال نص اخبار من صحيفة عرب نيوز) التي يختارها معلمك؟

Note. M = Mean, SD = Standard Deviation.

REFERENCES

- [1] Abdelhafez, A. & H. Zaki. (2016). EFL university students' self-efficacy and its relationship to their identity. *Journal of Modern Education Review* 6.10, 739–756.
- [2] Alaraj, M. M. (2016). EFL acquisition external problems and difficulties: An investigative interview to examine Saudi students' thoughts and feelings. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research* 7.3, 484–490. doi:10.17507/jltr.0703.07.
- [3] Alhawsawi, S. (2013). Investigating student experiences of learning English as a foreign language in a preparatory programme in a Saudi university. Doctoral dissertation, University of Sussex.
- [4] Al-Nasser, A. S. (2015). Problems of English language acquisition in Saudi Arabia: An exploratory-cum-remedial study. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies* 5.8, 1612–1619. doi:10.17507/tpls.0508.10.
- [5] Alrabai, F. (2017). Self-esteem of Saudi learners and its relationship to their achievement in English as a foreign language. *English Linguistics Research* 6.4, 1–12. doi:10.5430/elr.v6n4p1.
- [6] Alrabai, F. (2018). Learning English in Saudi Arabia. In C. Moskovsky & M. Picard (Eds.), *English as a Foreign Language in Saudi Arabia: New Insights into Teaching and Learning English* (pp. 102-119). London: Routledge
- [7] Al-Roomy, M. (2015). Evaluating Saudi university students' beliefs about learning English. *International Journal of English Linguistics* 5.1, 22–31. doi:10.5539/ijel.v5n1p22.
- [8] Al-Sobhi, B. M. & A. S. Preece. (2018). Teaching English speaking skills to the Arab students in the Saudi school in Kuala Lumpur: Problems and solutions. *International Journal of Education & Literacy Studies* 6.1, 1–11. doi:10.7575/aiac.ijels.v.6n.1p.1.
- [9] Asakereh, A. & M. Dehghannezhad. (2015). Student satisfaction with EFL speaking classes: Relating speaking self-efficacy and skills achievement. *Issues in Educational Research* 25.4, 345–363.
- [10] Asif, F. (2017). The anxiety factors among Saudi EFL learners: A study from English language teachers' perspective. *English Language Teaching* 10.6, 160–173. doi:10.5539/elt.v10n6p160.
- [11] Ayoobiyan, H. & T. Soleimani. (2015). The relationship between self-efficacy and language proficiency: A case of Iranian medical students. *Journal of Applied Linguistics and Language Research* 2.4, 158–167.
- [12] Bandura, A. (1986). Social foundation of thoughts and action: A social cognitive theory. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- [13] Bandura, A. (1997). Self-efficacy: The exercise of control. New York, NY: W. H. Freeman / Times Books / Henry Holt & Co.
- [14] Bernhardt, S. (1997). Self-efficacy and second language learning. The NCLRC Language Resource 1.5.
- [15] Blumenthal, L. F. (2014). Self-efficacy in low-level English language learners. Doctoral dissertation, Portland State University.
- [16] Boakye, N. (2015). The relationship between self-efficacy and reading proficiency of first-year students: An exploratory study. *Reading & Writing* 6.1, 1–9. doi:10.4102/rw.v6i1.52.
- [17] Branscombe, N. R. & R. A. Baron. (2016). Social psychology. New York, NY: Pearson.
- [18] Chen, H. Y. (2007). The relationship between EFL Learners' self-efficacy beliefs and English performance. Unpublished PhD Thesis, Florida State University.
- [19] Chen, M. C. & H. J. Lin. (2009). Self-efficacy, foreign language anxiety as predictors of academic performance among professional program students in a general English proficiency writing test. *Perceptual and Motor Skills* 109.2, 420–430. doi:10.2466/pms.109.2.420-430.
- [20] Dinther, M. V., F. Dochy & M. Segers. (2011). Factors affecting students' self-efficacy in higher education. *Educational Research Review* 6.2, 95–108. doi:10.1016/j.edurev.2010.10.003.
- [21] Graham, S. & B. Weiner. (1996). Theories and principles of motivation. In: D. C. Berliner & R. C. Calfee (eds.), *Handbook of educational psychology*. New York, NY: Simon & Schuster Macmillan, 63–84.
- [22] Herron, C., N. Mills & F. Pajares. (2006). A reevaluation of the role of anxiety: Self-efficacy, anxiety, and their relation to reading and listening proficiency. *Foreign Language Annals* 39.2, 273–292.
- [23] Huang, S. C. & S. F. Chang. (1998). Self-efficacy in learners of English as a second language: Four examples. *Journal of Intensive English Studies* 12, 23–40.
- [24] Ishtiaq, M. & M. Hussain. (2017). Scope of cooperative learning (CL) strategies in teaching English to Saudi adult EFL learners: A study of practical barriers and possible implications. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics & English Literature* 6.7, 110–121. doi:10.7575/aiac.ijalel.v.6n.7p.110.
- [25] Ismail, N. M. (2015). EFL Saudi students' class emotions and their contributions to their English achievement at Taif University. *International Journal of Psychological Studies* 7.4, 19–42. doi:10.5539/ijps.v7n4p19.
- [26] Kondo, K. (1999). Motivating bilingual and semi bilingual university students of Japanese: An analysis of language learning persistence and intensity among students from immigrant backgrounds. *Foreign Language Annals* 32.1, 77–88. doi:10.1111/j.1944-9720.1999.tb02377.x.
- [27] Linnenbrink, E. A. & P. R. Pintrich. (2003). The role of self-efficacy beliefs in student engagement and learning in the classroom. *Reading & Writing Quarterly* 19.2, 119–137. doi:10.1080/10573560308223.
- [28] Mahyuddin, R. et al. (2006). The relationship between students' self-efficacy and their English language achievement. *Jurnal Pendidikan dan Pendidikan* 21, 61–71.
- [29] Margolis, H. & P. P. McCabe. (2004). Self-efficacy: A key to improving the motivation of struggling learners. *Preventing School Failure: Alternative Education for Children and Youth* 77.6, 241–249. doi:10.3200/TCHS.77.6.241-249.
- [30] Mills, N., F. Pajares & C. Herron. (2007). Self-efficacy of college intermediate French students: Relation to achievement and motivation. *Language Learning* 57.3, 417–442. doi:10.1111/j.1467-9922.2007.00421.x.
- [31] Multon, K. D., S. D. Brown & R. W. Lent. (1991). Relation of self-efficacy beliefs to academic outcomes: A meta-analytic investigation. *Journal of Counseling Psychology* 38.1, 30–38. doi:10.1037/0022-0167.38.1.30.
- [32] Pajares, F. (1996). Assessing self-efficacy beliefs and academic success: The Case for specificity and correspondence. In B. J. Zimmerman (ed.), *Annual meeting of the American educational research association*. New York, NY.
- [33] Pajares, F. (2003). Self-efficacy beliefs, motivation, and achievement in writing: A review of the literature. *Reading and Writing Quarterly* 19.2, 139–158. doi:10.1080/10573560308222.

- [34] Pajares, F. (2009). Motivational role of self-efficacy beliefs in self-regulated learning. In D. H. Schunk & B. J. Zimmerman (eds.), *Motivation and self-regulated learning: Theory, research, and applications*. New York, NY: Routledge, 111–139.
- [35] Pajares, F. & M. Miller. (1995). Mathematics self-efficacy and mathematics performances: The need for specificity of assessment. *Journal of Counseling Psychology* 42.2, 190–198. doi:10.1037/0022-0167.42.2.190.
- [36] Pajares, F., M. Miller & M. J. Johnson. (1999). Gender differences in writing self-beliefs of elementary school students. *Journal of Educational Psychology* 91.1, 50–61. doi:10.1037/0022-0663.91.1.50.
- [37] Pajares, F. & D. Schunk. (2002). Development of academic self-efficacy. In: A. Wigfield & J. Eccles (eds.), *Development of achievement motivation*. San Diego, CA: Academic Press, 16–31.
- [38] Pajares, F. & G. Valiante. (1997). Influence of self-efficacy on elementary students' writing. *The Journal of Educational Research* 90.6, 353–360. doi:10.1080/00220671.1997.10544593.
- [39] Pintrich, P. R. & D. H. Schunk. (1996). *Motivation in education: Theory, research, and applications*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- [40] Rabab'ah, G. (2003). Communication problems facing Arab learners of English. *Journal of Language and Learning* 3.1, 180–197.
- [41] Rafada, S. & A. Madini. (2017). Effective solutions for reducing Saudi learners' speaking anxiety in EFL classrooms. *Arab World English Journal* 8.2, 308–322. doi:10.24093/awej/vol8no2.22.
- [42] Rahimi, A. & A. Abedini. (2009). The interface between EFL learners' self-efficacy concerning listening comprehension and listening proficiency. *Novitas-ROYAL* 3.1, 14–28.
- [43] Schunk, D. H. (1985). Self-efficacy and classroom learning. *Psychology in the Schools* 22.2, 208–223. doi:10.1002/1520-6807(198504)22:2<208::AID-PITS2310220215>3.0.CO;2-7.
- [44] Schunk, D. H. (1990). Goal setting and self-efficacy during self-regulated learning. *Educational Psychologist* 25.1, 71–86. doi:10.1207/s15326985ep2501_6.
- [45] Schunk, D. H. (1991). Self-efficacy and academic motivation. *Educational Psychologist* 26.3-4, 207–231. doi:10.1080/00461520.1991.9653133.
- [46] Schunk, D. H. & F. Pajares. (2002). The development of academic self-efficacy. In A. Wigfield & J. Eccles (eds.), *Development of achievement motivation*. San Diego, CA: Academic Press, 16–31.
- [47] Siddiqui, S. (2015). Impact of self-efficacy on psychological well-being among undergraduate students. *The International Journal of Indian Psychology* 2.3, 5–16.
- [48] Siegle, D. (2000). An Introduction to Self-Efficacy. Retrieved 28/04/2018, from https://nrcgt.uconn.edu/underachievement_study/self-efficacy/se_section1/#
- [49] Tilfarlioglu, F. & F. Ciftci. (2011). Supporting self-efficacy and learner autonomy in relation to academic success in EFL classrooms (A Case Study). *Theory and Practice in Language Studies* 1.10, 1284–1294. doi:10.4304/tpls.1.10.1284-1294.
- [50] Tremblay, P. F. & R. C. Gardner (1995). Expanding the motivation construct in language learning. *The Modern Language Journal* 79.4, 505–518. doi:10.2307/330002.
- [51] Usher, E. L. (2009). Sources of middle school students' self-efficacy in mathematics: A qualitative investigation. *American Educational Research Journal* 46.1, 275–314. doi:10.3102/0002831208324517.
- [52] Wang, C. (2004). Self-regulated learning strategies and self-efficacy beliefs of children learning English as a second language. Doctor of Philosophy, The Ohio State University.
- [53] Wang, C., D.-H. Kim, M. Bong & H. S. Ahn. (2013). Examining measurement properties of an English self-efficacy scale for English language learners in Korea. *International Journal of Educational Research* 59, 24–34. doi:10.1016/j.ijer.2013.02.004.
- [54] Zimmerman, B. J. (1995). Self-efficacy and educational development. In A. Bandura (ed.), *Self-efficacy in changing societies*. New York, NY: Cambridge University Press, 202–231.
- [55] Zuo, H. & C. Wang. (2016). Understanding sources of self-efficacy of Chinese students learning English in an American institution. *Multicultural Learning and Teaching* 11.1, 83–112.

Fakieh Alrabai is an Associate Professor of Applied Linguistics at King Khalid University, Saudi Arabia. He holds a PhD degree in Applied Linguistics from the University of Newcastle, NSW, Australia. Research areas: Applied Linguistics, Second Language Acquisition (SLA), Psycholinguistics, L2 Motivation, learner autonomy, and Language anxiety.

An Analysis of *Lady Chatterley's Lover* from the Perspective of Ecofeminism*

Ting Bo

Faculty of Foreign Languages, Huaiyin Institute of Technology, 223001, Jiangsu, China

Abstract—Eco-feminism, as a new theoretical criticism of literature, combines the oppression and domination of women. There is a critical connection between woman and nature, originating from their shared history of oppression by a patriarchal Western society. The development of eco-feminism has significant influence on attitudes of human beings toward nature, especially the relationship between nature and woman. Lawrence is well-known for both his unique writing techniques and frank expression of sex. In *Lady Chatterley's Lover*, Lawrence shows his strong awareness of eco-feminism by exploring the relations between man and man, nature and man, nature and woman.

Index Terms—*Lady Chatterley's Lover*, ecofeminism, nature, woman, harmonious relationship

I. INTRODUCTION

David Herbert Lawrence is an original and controversial English writer of the 20th century literature. Born on September 11, 1885 and died in 1930, Lawrence spanned from the late 19th century to the early 20th century when England became a highly industrialized country. However, the nature was greatly damaged because of the industrialization. The destruction of the natural landscape by the modern machines made him sad. This is why love and concern for nature becomes his major themes of his writings, aiming to arouse people's awareness of establishing a harmonious relationship with nature. The time Lawrence lived is the rise of the woman's movement in the United Kingdom. As a result, woman won more independence, leading their financially less dependence on their fathers and husbands. Therefore, the role and the status of women have undergone great changes, achieving more freedom and independence, even the right to peruse of love and sexual freedom.

As one of D. H. Lawrence's masterpieces, and his last novel, *Lady Chatterley's Lover* (1928), first published privately in 1928 in Florence, Italy, suffered opposite voices because of its descriptions about overt sexuality. The unabridged version was not published in Britain until 1960. *Lady Chatterley's Lover* (1928) tells a story about a young girl named Connie married Clifford Chatterley, an upper-class husband, who was paralyzed back from the First World War. They can not have a baby because of Clifford's paralysis. Clifford focuses on his coal-mine and making money, emotionally neglecting of his wife's feelings and finally leading to the distance between him and Connie. Then Connie met Oliver Mellors, the gamekeeper, in the woods and had affair with him. Clifford was unwilling to divorce with Connie when she was pregnant. They have no choice but to wait desperately.

In 1974, French feminist scholar Francoise Faubonne puts forward the word "eco-feminism" in the "Feminist Destruction" for the first time. In her opinion, the oppression of woman and the oppression of nature have a direct link: the ecological problems are women's issues, and woman's issues are also the ecological problems. Therefore, she calls for an ecological movement to realize woman's leadership, establishing harmonious relationship between man and nature. Influenced by her, the movements of ecological feminism in the Western world sprung up. In the late 1970s and early 1980s, the development of eco-feminism was promoted by a series of serious ecological disaster. The main representatives of this theory include Karen J. Warren, Charlene Spretnak, Carol Merchant, Vandana Shiva and Maria Mies and others.

In terms of the relationship between woman and nature, eco-feminists have their unique viewpoints. By systematically analyzing the position of nature in the modern Western world, and the study of close links between woman and nature, they connect the woman's issues with the natural motion. They believe that woman resemble the same role with nature in a male-dominated society. Woman is forced to keep silent in public, and finally becomes second-class citizen. Therefore, eco-feminists struggle for liberation of both nature and woman.

In accordance with eco-feminist theory, Lawrence has a deep ecological awareness and feminist consciousness. *Lady Chatterley's Lover*, describing the close relationship between nature and woman, has shown Lawrence's ecological and feminist ideas. Lawrence presented the woman's oppression and struggle for love, sex and freedom in the novel. Janice H. Harris hails Lawrence as "the voice of proclaiming a woman's liberation through the recognition of her sexual self." (Janice, 1990, p.70) According to Bridget Pugh, *Lady Chatterley's Lovers* embodies Lawrence's statement about a negation of the power-urge as industrialism similar to his theories in "*Lawrence and Industrial symbolism*".

* Fund project: *An Ecofeminist Study on D.H. Lawrence's Novels* commissioned by Jiangsu Education Department (Project No.:2017SJB1629)

II. NATURAL ENVIRONMENT IS POLLUTED

In the 1800s, industrial civilization emerged on a large scale in Britain, causing an unbalanced ecological system and bringing natural disasters on humans. Human society has been demanding more and more from the nature. As a result, the old beautiful landscapes have disappeared and been replaced by the sight of thick smoke and the buildings of factories. A series of problems between nature and man appear.

Nature is an indispensable part in Lawrence's works, unveiling his prophetic ecofeminist consciousness. In the nineteenth century, with the industrial revolution in full swing, the capitalist civilization was unprecedentedly prosperous. Human beings had extorted and plundered natural resources from nature infinitely in order to satisfy their survival and development. And they became the nature's master and nature becomes their servant instead. At the same time, the disaster brought by industrial civilization to the capitalist society was great. The thick forest and the green field are replaced by coal mine and factories, with the smoke from the chimney and the mechanical noise filling the air. The peaceful and harmonious countryside life is getting far away from the human. Due to the excessive exploitation of coal, many pits shut down and woods become deserted. What's worse, the human nature is suppressed, and the human spiritual world is gradually distorted. This is the background of Lawrence's life. He is deeply aware of the deepening mental crisis in western society. He was bitter about the war and the industrial revolution, and was deeply disturbed and worried about the serious destruction of human nature by the industrial revolution.

The countryside named Wragby in *Lady Chatterley's Lover* is the illustration of the degeneration of nature. Lawrence described the era in the beginning of book as a "tragic age", showing his hatred to the destruction of industrialization to nature. Lawrence holds that humans and nature are closely connected with each other. As he declared in *Lady Chatterley's Lover*: "Ours is essentially a tragic age, so we refuse to take it tragically. They cataclysm has happened, we are among the ruins, we start to build up new little habits, to have new little hopes" (Lawrence, 2009, p.1) It is obvious that readers are told by him that nature suffers and degenerated, becoming "the ruins" as a result of the development of industrialization.

In the beginning of Chapter 2, Wragby is presented in such a picture: "Wragby was a long low old house in brown stone, begun about the middle of the eighteenth century. It stood on an eminence in a rather fine old park of oak trees, nearby." (Lawrence, 2009, p.11) This is the beautiful picture of Wragby, a tranquil and beautiful place covered with green trees and filled with pure air before the industrial revolution. But what people could only see is: "Tevershall pit with the chimney of cloud of steam and smoke, and in the damp, just distance original strange Tevershall mountain village-a village, backward, completely hopeless for a long and terrible miles. We can see: small begrimed masonry building with black roof cover rows of poor, sharp corners and deliberately blank and desolate." (Lawrence, 2009, p.11)

Nature has become the resource of materials for industrialization. The beautiful place had been made into an ugly one owing to industrialization. A sharp contrast between the ugliness and the beauty of Wragby can be seen as a disagreeable landscape, which Lawrence called "utter hopeless ugliness". The ruined nature is described in a detailed way by Lawrence. Connie is made into his spokesman, witnessing how nature has been destroyed by human beings arbitrarily. For example, Connie can hear tremendous noise from the greedy machine when staying in the quite room at Wragby, without wind at all. On the contrary, Connie can sniff the air coming from coal and sulfuric acid when there is wind. "the hard air was still sulphureous. Round the near horizon went the haze, opalescent with frost and smoke, and on top lay the small blue sky: so that it was like being inside an enclosure, always inside". (Lawrence, p.39) Connie cannot believe that the beauty of nature is already out of the sight step by step. According to Lawrence, the country is so gloomy although is the month of May that this "gloomy" and "soulless ugliness" can be fully seen throughout the whole novel. Clouds of steam and smoke from the chimney from the pit which has been burning for many years can be seen everywhere. In addition, Connie and Clifford can smell the hard air filled with sulphur when walking across the park to the wood. Such scenery comes into her insight when Connie goes into Uthwaite one day:

... the blackened brick dwellings, the black slate roofs glistening their sharp edges, the mud black with coal-dust, the pavements wet and black. It was as if dismalness had soaked through and through everything. The utter negation of natural beauty, the utter negation of the gladness of life, the utter absence of the instinct for sharply beauty... (Lawrence, 2009, p.150)

With these descriptions of industrial black, dark villages, Lawrence presents reader an impressive image of destructed nature made by human beings, indicating his deep worry about the industrialization. That is why he hopes people could one day go back to the former Tevershall:

Tevershall! That was Tevershall! Merrie England! Shakespeare's England! No, but the England of today, as Connie had realized since she has come to live in it. It was producing a new race of mankind, over-conscious in the money and social and political side, on the spontaneous intuitive side dead, but dead. Half-corpses, all of them: but with a terrible insistent consciousness in the other half. There was something uncanny and underground about it. It was an under-world. And quite incalculable. (Lawrence, 2009, p.151)

As described: "There was nothing but a ravel of dead bracken, a thin and spindly sapling leaning here an there, big sawn stumps, showing their tops and their grasping roots, lifeless" (Lawrence, 2009, p.42). There is a scene when Connie returns to Wranby with Clifford, shocked completely that the environment people is living is like the hell.

Connie was accustomed to Kensington or the Scotch hills or the Sussex downs: that was her England. With the stoicism of the young she took in the utter, soulless ugliness of the coal-iron Midlands at a glance, and left it at what it

was: unbelievable and not to be thought about. From the rather dismal rooms at Wragby she heard the rattle-rattle of the screens at the pit, the puff of the winding-engine, the clink-clink of shunting trucks, and the hoarse little whistle of the colliery locomotives. (Lawrence, 2009, p.14)

Following Connie to stepping into the world of a dirty and ugly Wragby, readers see a industrialized world full of machines, coal iron and smell of acid. The beauty of nature is largely destructed by the industrial business expansion. "Day and night there are the noises of the screen at the pit, the winding-engine, and the trucks" (Lawrence, 2009, p.45). The air is filled with smell of burning sculpture from the underground. The whole world is in a mess because of the burning furnaces of the colliery, with the houses and streets covered with dust from the colliery. There is no doubt that nothing is capable of escaping from the pollution caused by the industrialization. Nature is sacrificed in the process of human's unlimited pursuing for the economic profits. It is evident that human becomes the criminal who despoils the resources, leaving unrecoverable filth on the beautiful landscapes and causing the degeneration of nature. However, human gets his punishment from nature as well.

III. HUMANITY IS ALIENATED

Relationship, especially the one between men and women is one of the most significant themes in Lawrence's works. In his opinion, not only the harmony of the natural world is ruined by the industrialization, but also the harmony of human world is broken up. According to ecofeminists, there is a close connection between nature and female. As Sherry Ortner declared that "cross-culturally and historically, women, as opposed to men, have been seen as closer to nature because of their physiology, social roles, and psychology" (Ortner, 1974, p.67). Like these ecofeminists, Lawrence shares the same opinions that nature and women are similar from the historical and social perspective. On the one hand, nature is ruined by the ruthless industrialization. On the other hand, male and female, as human being, for resembling the nature, become the victims of industrialization as well.

"But didn't you say the other day that you were a conservative-anarchist," she asked innocently. "And did you understand what I meant?" he retorted. "All I meant is, people can be what they like and feel what they like and do what they like, strictly privately, so long as they keep the form of life intact, and apparatus." (Lawrence, 2009, p.193)

From the above conversation we can feel that Clifford is superior to working class in the industrialization and treats them cruelly. As a representative of the ruling class, Clifford is presented by Lawrence as a selfish, ugly, cruel, heartless and greedy half-man, even a half-machine monster, fully demonstrating Lawrence's hatred to industrialization that leads to alienation of human beings.

In *Lady Chatterley's Lover*, Clifford Chatterley is a typical victim image of industrialization, with his humanity being alienated. He is wealthy and in a high social status for his own real estate and coal-mine. Unfortunately, he never stops pursuing money, fame and social position in his life. Deeply influenced by the capitalist industrialization, he gets his lager profits from the mining industry, treating the miners crucially. Clifford has become crippled and impotent after he comes back from the war, which makes him unable to have a child. His inferiority of being disabled and male sexual dysfunction can even be reduced by the feeling of surrounded by the power and his money. Undoubtedly, Clifford is a symbol of modern man has lost himself in the process of industrialization. His physical paralysis led to his mental paralysis for the highly industrialized world he lived. "The gay excitement had gone out of the war...dead. A man needed support and comfort. A man needed a wife" (Lawrence, 2009, p.8). So, after losing his male power, he chooses to marry in order to get rid of his spiritual emptiness. In his eyes, sex is not an necessary part of his marriage life, which is opposite to Lawrence's viewpoint that sex is a key for maintaining a harmonious relationship between men and women. Therefore, Clifford's asexual marriage will finally be a tragedy.

Clifford becomes a motionless animal in the process of being alienated. On the one hand, his paralysis makes him fragile. When being asked about his opinion on sex, he blushes and says that sex could only promote the mental intimacy between men and women, and it is a "habit" for a couple. "We have the habit of each other. And habit, to this thinking, is more vital than any occasional excitement." (Lawrence, 2009, p.46) Then he turns his attention to coal-mine industry, making money to escape from his inferiority as a disabled husband. His alienation is not only embodied in his marriage life, but also his cruel attitude towards working class. In order to make profit from the coal-mining industry, he squeezes every drop of productivity from the miners, leading to their dissatisfaction and strike. There are heat disagreements and argues between the couple for Clifford's cold and heartless attitude, which gradually distances Clifford and Connie. Clifford is a man who is rich materially but poor mentally. When he got his reputation, wealth and power as a modern industrialist, he tends to show off in order to hide his poor spirit. However, his such foolish concealing is doomed to a failure. "The wallowing in private emotion, the utter abasement of his manly self, seemed to lend him a second nature, cold, almost visionary, business-clever. In business he was quite inhuman." (Lawrence, 2009, p.304) Obviously, Clifford is only the poor victim of industrialization physically and mentally. Lawrence makes every effort to criticize industrialization, showing his deep concern about the human being and nature.

IV. THE CONSTRUCTION OF IDENTITY OF NATURE AND WOMAN

In *Lady Chatterley's Lover*, Connie, is fascinated by nature. It is the wood that provides Connie the resort when she escapes from the gloomy family and the frustrating life with Clifford. What's more, her spirit is getting better every

time she gets back from the wood. And she comes back looking like before: “a ruddy, country-looking girl with soft brown hair and sturdy body, and slow movements, full of unusual energy” (Lawrence, 2009, p.20) Lawrence believes that nature is a typical symbol of the whole world, in which Connie escapes from the reality. To Connie, the wood is her “Eden”, awaking her physically and spiritually. It is the wood that gets rid of her despair, bringing her rest, fresh air and the beauty of the flowers and trees. The wood is like an effective medicine, curing her distorted heart. Connie is surrounded by the feeling of being empty, caged and pressed, although she is noble and wealthy. It is the wood that provides her with the freedom, peace and consolation.

Meanwhile Mellors, the gamekeeper, is also cured by the wood. After retiring, he lives in the wood, enjoying the natural air, protecting the wild lives, and witnessing the renewal and regeneration at the same time. The sacred wood is his paradise to some extent. Only in the wood can he live happily and be himself. The wood, also the safest place for Mellors, helps him to forget his suffering past. He separated himself from others until he meets Connie.

Without knowing, he came quickly towards her and crouched besides her again, taking the chick from her hands, because she was afraid of the hen, and putting it back in the coop. At the back of his loins the fire suddenly darted stronger. (Lawrence, 2009, p.113)

In addition, the wood is the place Mellors’ sexual consciousness wakes up. When Connie appears in the wood, his coldness is melted and his heart is opened by Connie, who changes him from an incomplete man in to a complete man in the end.

he was aware of the old flame shooting and leaping up in his loins, that he had hoped was quiescent forever. He fought against it, turning his back to her. But it leaps downwards, circling in his knees. He laid his hand on her shoulder, and softly, gently it began to travel down the curve of her back, blindly, with a blind stroking motion. to the curve of her crouching loins. And there his hand softly, softly stroked the curve of her flank, in the blind instinctive caress. (Lawrence, 2009, p.114)

Therefore, to Connie and Mellors, the wood is their heaven. It is nature that makes them have a rebirth. Both Connie and Mellors realize that the conclusive way to work out the plight of modern society is to reconcile with nature and to abandon the hopeless attempt to conquer nature. Nature establishes her own identity by providing both Connie and Mellors the wood.

Lawrence criticizes the tragic influence of industrialization on both body and soul of human. And the only solution to their getting back unconscious and instinctual self is to return to nature providing with human with energy to recover from the frustrating reality, which is like the pregnant mother giving nutriment to her baby. Therefore, the healing effect of nature is strongly evident. And Lawrence himself is optimistic and hopeful for that. As he said once “It is rather hard work: there is now no smooth road into the future. But we go round, scramble over the obstacle. We’ve got to live, no matter how many skies have fallen” (Lawrence, 2009, p.1)

Connie is shackled in her dull and lifeless life in Wragby. Only after she returns to the wild world, can she feel the essence of life. Connie establishes her identity by means of satisfying her sexual desire. Mellors plays a significant role in establishing Connie’s identity. With the appearance of Mellors, Connie’s innermost sexual desire is aroused. Harmonious sexual relationship is an indispensable part in human beings. There is some descriptions in the novel about Connie’s awaking self-consciousness:

She had come to the real bed-rock of her nature, and was essentially shameless. She was her sensual self, naked and in ashamed. She felt a triumph, almost vainglory. So! That was how it was! That was life! That was how one really was! There was nothing left to disguise or to be ashamed of. (Lawrence, 2009, p. 245)

Connie achieves her individuality as a woman. She has the qualities of intelligence, independence and courage of changing. In a patriarchal society, Connie is brave enough to fight against injustice and pursue her equality, security and happiness. These are the reflections of her eco-feminist, struggling for the equality and freedom. Her bold pursuing for love physically and mentally saves her from the dull and empty marriage life and constructs her own identity finally.

REFERENCES

- [1] Becker, Cz J. (1980). D. H. Lawrence. New York: Frederick Ungar Publishing.
- [2] Harris, Janice H. (1990). Lawrence and the Edwardian Feminists. Wisconsin: The University of Wisconsin Press.
- [3] Lawrence, D. H. (2009). *Lady Chatterley's Lover*. London: Penguin Books.
- [4] Mellor, Mary. (1997). *Feminism and Ecology*. New York: New York University Press.
- [5] Michael, S. (1983). *The Creation of Lady Chatterley's Lover*. Baltimore and London: Johns Hopkins University Press.
- [6] Murphy, Patrick. D. (1998). *Ecofeminism Literam Criticism*. Illinois: University of Illinois Press.
- [7] Ortner, Sherry. (1974). *Is Female to Male as Nature is to Culture?* Stanford: Stanford University Press.
- [8] Plumwood, Val. (1993). *Feminism and Master of Nature*. London: Routledge.
- [9] Reeve, N. H. (2004). *Reading Late Lawrence*. London: Palgrave Macmillan.
- [10] Warren, KarenJ. (1997). *Ecofeminism: Women, Culture, Nature*. Bloomington: Indiana University Press.

Ting Bo was born in Jiangsu, China in 1980. She got the MA of Arts at East China Normal University, China in 2009. She was currently a lecturer in Faculty of Foreign Languages in Huaiyin Institute of Technology, Jiangsu, China. Her research interest is literature, intercultural communication, teaching method.

On the C-E Translation of Chinese Classics from the Perspective of Thick Translation Theory*

Yuying Li

Foreign Language College, Jiangxi Normal University, Nanchang City, China

Qi Lu

Foreign Language College, Jiangxi Normal University, Nanchang City, China

Abstract—Thick translation theory was put forward by Appiah, an American translation theorist, concerning the cultural information dissemination and cultural significance of a deep description. Based on the English translation version of *Six Chapters of a Floating Life*, the study analyses the manifestation of traditional Chinese culture and methods to translate Chinese classic words from the perspective of “thick translation” theory, in an attempt to verify the operability of the theory in the translation of Chinese classics.

Index Terms—thick translation, *Six Chapters of a Floating Life*, traditional culture

I. INTRODUCTION

As an inter-lingual communication, translation is not only a simple process of language conversion, but also an integration of two disparate cultures. In literary translation, especially in translation of Chinese classics, the target readers need to understand not only the meaning of the original text itself, but also more about the traditional Chinese culture involved. In the process of translating, the differences in language between English and Chinese and the cultural background behind them are quite different, so it is inevitable for translators to face some obstacles caused by cultural diversities. How to overcome these barriers is currently a conventional problem to be solved for the translation practice of Chinese classics.

Lin Yutang is known as the person with two feet individually stepping on the Chinese and West Cultures. The English version of *Six Chapters of a Floating Life*, one of his masterpieces, depicts the daily life of Shen Sanbai and his wife Chen Yun, including the art of living, scenic landscape, literary commentary on literature and art, as well as the description of traditional Chinese ethics and customs. In the preface, Lin Yutang praised Yun as “the most lovable woman in Chinese literature and Chinese history.” When translating this book, he also boldly showed western readers how natural and innocent Yun was and how leisure their couple life was.

Thick translation is a translation theory related to cultural communication proposed by the American scholar Appiah in the early 1990s. The research explores the translation strategies taken by Lin Yutang in face of these ineluctable translation obstacles from the perspective of thick translation theory and analyzes the phenomenon of the manifestation of Chinese classical culture in the English version of *Six Chapters of a Floating Life*.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

American cultural anthropologist Clifford Greertz, a representative figure who turns cultural anthropology from evolution to hermeneutics (hermeneutics of anthropology). In the book *The Interpretation Cultures* written by Greertz, he suggests that cultural studies are a theory of behavioral interpretation. The so-called culture is the web of significance that is compiled by people themselves. Therefore, the analysis of culture is a explanatory science of seeking significance rather than an experimental science that seeks regular rules. (Greertz, 1973) Presented the concept of “thick description” in 1973, Greertz considered human culture as a semiotic one which is a web and a context, and the meaning under the context can be expounded through “thick description.”

With the enlightenment of “thick description”, Kwame Anthony Appiah was the first one to introduce the notion of “thick” into translation study which was initially mentioned in his thesis of Thick Translation in Callaloo in 1993. At the beginning of the article, he discussed how to translate 7,000 proverbs of his hometown of Kumasi into English. From the angle of analytical philosophy, he analyzed the limitation of meaning transformation in the translation process by Gricean Mechanism. As defined by Appiah, thick translation is “a translation that seeks with its annotations and its accompanying glosses to locate the text in a rich cultural and linguistic context ” (Appiah, 1993, p.817) from the perspective of cultural anthropology. In his view, thick translation makes the translated version to be contextualized, so the readers could understand the social and cultural context, and result in the grasp and respect for the other culture.

* Sponsored by *On English Translation of Classics by Jiangxi Native Literati in Song Dynasty*, a Social Science Planned Research Project of Jiangxi in 2015

Therefore, thick translation can highlight the authenticity and legitimacy of culture and make the other culture to speak out their own voice. In Appiah's opinion, the purpose of abundantly adding explanatory text materials like footnotes, the aim of adding annotations and explanations into the target language text is to provide the readers with background information and to arouse an interest in the source language culture. Since the 20th century, foreign studies on thick translation have thrived.

Theo Hermans is a scholar of University College London, who combined translation with other culture issues into deep discussion for the first time. In his *Cross-cultural Studies as Thick Translation*, Hermans gives an explanation of "thick description" and "thick translation", and cites Kwame Appiah's term of "thick translation" as a translation method which attempts to assimilate other cultures with intensive confrontation against cultural aggression. Hermans supports the subjectivity of the translator and indicates that "thick translation" could be a standard for translation criticism. From the point of epistemology, Hermans (2003) believes that thick translation has the potential to bring about a double dislocation: of the foreign terms and concepts, which are probed by means of an alien methodology and vocabulary; and of the describer's own terminology, which must be wrenched out of its familiar shape to accommodate both alterity and similarity. His emphasis on this double dislocation also serves to make it clear that he perceived thick translation as a methodology which could be utilized to critique the effectiveness of translations to convey cultural depth and meaning, and not as a generalized form of description or translation. For guiding practical translation, thick translation also seen as a tool for cross-cultural translation studies, in thick translation not only could avoid the dullness of terms in translation studies and the reduction in format performance, but also can create more colorful diversified vocabulary.

Although Appiah is referring specially to the problems involved in translating African proverbs it is clear that the term may be used applied to any TT which contains a large amount of explanatory material, whether in the form of footnotes, glossaries or an extended introduction. The purpose of providing such voluminous background information is to engender in the TT reader a deeper respect for the source culture and a greater appreciation for the way that people of other backgrounds have thought and expressed themselves. (Shuttleworth & Cowie, 2004)

In China, the study of "thick translation" has drawn extensive attention since it was introduced into domestic translation circle. Professor Martha Cheung (2003) from Hong Kong Baptist University proposed that "thick translation" is a way of cultural reproduction, and in her translating process of *An Anthology of Chinese Discourse on Translation Vol.1: From Earliest Times to the Buddhist Project*, this translation strategy was fully utilized. The translators present rich connotation of traditional Chinese translation theories through translation, note and commentary in various way. Duan Feng (2006) argues that thick translation is a common method in translation practice, and this theory comes from the theory of deep description in cultural anthropology and the theory of historical context in neo-historicism. Sun Ningning (2010) explores the relationship between translation and cultural anthropology with the theory of thick description of American cultural anthropologist Clifford Geertz, and points out that the essence of thick translation from the perspective of cultural anthropology is translation with explanations. Zhao Yong (2010) combined the theory of thick translation with hermeneutics theory to comparative analysis translation of allusions of *Walden Lake* in several different versions. Zhang Yan and Hu Weiping (2011) suggest that contextualization should be emphasized in thick translation from their study about cultural translation in cultural anthropology. That is, "thick translation" is "the only way of cultural exchange, and this road of cultural translation will become more and more smooth as mutual understanding among different cultures improved." Wang Xueming and Yang Zi (2012) believe that thick translation is "an important way of cultural exchange that has a positive reference value for carrying forward Chinese culture today and for translating and introducing Chinese cultural classics into the world." Liang Yan (2012) comprehensively introduces Appiah's conception of translatology and explains that the core of thick translation theory is to use annotations and notes to translate source language texts into richer cultural and linguistic environments. Qian Yingying (2012) analyzes the English translation of *Tess of Durbuy* by Zhang Gu Ruo, she clarifies the function and form of thick translation, then emphasizes the guiding function of thick translation theory in literary translation. On the basis of thick translation theory. Huang Lin (2013) studies the phenomenon of thick translation in Knoblock's English version of *Xunzi* and explores the positive significance of thick translation theory. Ge Houwei (2017) proceeds with the translation of minority cultural classics to explore and expand the practicality of thick translation theory.

III. TRANSLATION STRATEGIES OF *SIX CHAPTERS OF A FLOATING LIFE* GUIDED BY THICK TRANSLATION THEORY

Thick translation theory holds that annotation is the translator's deliberate consideration of what he already knows. The ways to add it to the translation text fall into two main categories: intratextual annotation and extratextual annotation. The reason why Lin translated *Six Chapters of a Floating Life* is so meaningful that it not only perfectly reproduces the language, thoughts, aesthetic connotations and leisure pleasures of the couple's life, but also reflects the purpose of dissemination and promotion of Chinese culture. The possible reading obstacles for Western readers are removed by adding certain annotations and notes to the translation.

A. Intratextual Annotation

Intratextual annotation, as its name implies, is a comment added to the text. There are a lot of historical backgrounds and cultural and customs involved in *Six Chapters of a Floating Life*. Adopting literal translation only would hinder the

readers' comprehension of the Chinese traditional culture connotation while the adaptation of domestication would result in cultural default. The annotation in the translated text could solve this problem, and it not only affects the original text and meaning, but also increases the reader's understanding of the source culture. Intratextual annotation usually appear in parentheses.

1. Traditional clan relationship

There are a large number of cultural vocabularies that express the relationship between traditional family clan in China. Such as, Chinese may use “Bo, Zhong, Shu, Ji” to show the order of seniority among the brothers, and the “Biao” and “Tang” to express the different cousinship with paternal family or maternal family. These culturally-loaded words of clan relationships lack their equivalents in English, so Lin Yutang uses the following methods when dealing with these words:

Example 1:

Source Text: 时余有表兄王荇臣一子名曰韞石，愿得青君为媳妇。

Target Text: There was a cousin of mine (the son of my paternal aunt), by the name of Wang Chinch'en, who had a son called Yunshih, for whom he wished to secure the hand of my daughter.

Analysis: In English, the word “cousin” can refer to a brother or sister, elder or younger, male or female, from paternal or maternal side. It is quite different with Chinese words expressing cousinship. The texts in parentheses are added to the translation to further explain the cousin's relationship that the man is the son of paternal aunt, so that the readers could have a general understanding of the relation.

Example 2:

Source Text: 是年冬，值其堂姊出阁，余又随母往。

Target Text: In the winter of that year, one of my girl cousins, (the daughter of another maternal uncle of mine) was going to get married and I again accompanied my mother to her maiden home.

Analysis: In this sentence, Lin Yutang not only pointed out that it was a female relative, but also used strategy of annotation to indicate that the girl is the daughter of the author's maternal uncle, which clearly illustrates the kinship and facilitates the understanding of the readers.

2. Geographic names

Six Chapters of Floating Life tells the story of the author's journey through various places, among which there are many geographic names. And some geographical names are different from what they used to be in ancient times. In order to facilitate the readers' further understanding of China's territory, Lin Yutang adopts the method of intratextual annotation.

Example 3:

Source Text:受业于武林赵省斋先生门下。

Target Text: I was under the tutorship of Chao Shengtsai of Wulin [Hangchow].

Analysis: Hangzhou was once called “Wulin”, so Lin Yutang made notes here to enable English readers to find the correspondence between ancient and modern geographic names.

Example 4:

Source Text : 庚戌之春，予又随侍吾父于刊江幕中。

Target Text : In the spring of 1790, I again accompanied my father to the magistrate's office at Hankiang [Yangchow].

Analysis: In addition to supplement explanation of the geographic names that are different in the ancient and modern times, Lin Yutang also gave an explanation of “Kan Jiang” that it was located in present Yangzhou. Such examples are beyond count in this book, like “Zhenzhou” is translated as Chengchow [Icheng, Kiangsu]; “Lingnan” is translated as Lingnan [in Kwangtung] and so on.

3. Perfumes names

Example 5:

Source Text : 芸尝以沉速等香....

Target Text : Yun used to burn aloes-wood and *Shuhsiung* [a kind of fragrant wood from Cambodia].

Example 6:

Source Text : 佛手忌醉鼻嗅，嗅则易烂。

Target Text : Another thing, the “buddha's fingers” [a variety of citron] should not be smelt by a drunken man, or it would easily not.

Analysis: Shuhsiung and buddha's fingers are all names of perfumes. Simple transliteration or literal translation might cause some cultural misunderstanding, so the translator supplies annotation to specifically explain what it is and this could be closer to the original text.

B. Extratextual Annotation

The loaded annotation means to introduce the original culture in detail according to the needs of the text, and solves possible vacuum points in the semantic transformation to facilitate textual coherence in the translation. In the English version of *Six Chapters of Floating Life*, Lin took footnote as the main form of annotation outside the text.

1. Traditional cultural words

Traditional cultural words can be found everywhere in *Six Chapters of Floating Life*. As the required explanation may be so long as to affect the text format, the translator chooses to add footnotes. Such as:

Example 7:

Source Text: 是年七夕，芸设香烛瓜果，同拜天孙于我取轩中。

Target Text: On the seventh night of seventh moon of the year, Yun prepared incense, candles and some melons and other fruits, so that we might together worship the Grandson of Heaven in the Hall¹ called “After My Heart.”

¹ The seventh day of the seventh moon is the only day in the year when the pair of heavenly lovers, the Cowherd and the Spinster (“Grandson of Heaven”), are allowed to meet each other across the Milky Way.—Tr.

Analysis: The Grandson of Heaven is the Vega, a name of constellation. It is recorded that “Spinster, is the Grandson of Heaven” in *The Historical Records: Crown Books*. The translator first translated literally, but in the face of possible cultural errors, he proceeds to use footnotes to explain that Grandson of Heaven refers to the day when the Cowherd and Spinster meet each other. It not only restores the semantics of the original text, but also maximizes the transmission of traditional cultural connotations.

Example 8:

Source Text: 清明日，先生春祭扫墓，挈余同游。

Target Text: On the *ch'ingming* festival¹, my tutor was going to visit his ancestral grave and brought me along.

¹ A festival which falls on any unfixed date somewhere round the middle part of the spring months. On this day people are accustomed to paying their visits to their ancestral tombs in the country.

Analysis: Ching Ming is one of the traditional Chinese festivals. During the era of Lin, foreigners knew little about China, let alone the specific festivals. The translator explained here that on this day of Ching Ming, people worshiped their ancestors and clean their ancestors' graves. For the context, he explained the traditional festival of Ching Ming and took over the following text.

2. Geographical cultural words

Geographical cultural words are also commonplace in the book. To guide foreign readers to know Chinese regions, the translator supplements geographical knowledge more specifically.

Example 9:

Source Text : 虽不能远游五岳，.....

Target Text : Even if I cannot accompany you to the Five Sacred Mountains¹ then,.....

¹ The Five Sacred Mountains are : (1) “Taishan, the East Sacred Mountains (in shantung), (2) Huashan, the West Sacred Mountains (in Shensi), (3) Hengshan, the North Sacred Mountains (in Shansi), (4) Hengshan, the South Sacred Mountains (in Hunan) and (5) Sungshan, the Central Sacred Mountains (in Honan).—Tr.

Analysis: For the Chinese readers, “The Five Mountains” is common sense, but not for the English readers. In order to trigger interest in reading and deepen the understanding of the magnificent landscape of China, Lin made full footnote to provide a detailed information of these mountains.

Example 10:

Source Text: 馆江北四年，一无快游可记。

Target Text: in which capacity I stayed four years in Kiangpei¹, during which period I did not enjoy any travel worth recording.

¹ A collective name given to such districts in Kiangsu as lie to the Yangtze River—— Yangchow, Icheng, Taichow, Taihing, Tsingking, Nantungchow, etc. being among these districts.

Analysis: Jiangbei (also named as Kiangsu) is to the north of the Yangtze River. In addition to this point, the translator specifically figures out that the jurisdiction of Jiangbei is Yangchow, Icheng, and Taichow, etc., thus not only retaining the original features of the original text, but also displaying the Chinese landscape.

3. Title cultural words

In ancient China, the title cultural words that were used to describe people were also colorful and varied. A title often contains many meanings, and shows the class status or the rank of the family.

Example 11:

Source Text: 余虽居长而行三，故上下呼芸为“三娘”，后忽呼为“三太太”。始而戏呼，继成习惯，甚至尊卑长幼皆以“三太太”呼之。

Target Text: I was born the third son of my family, although the eldest; hence they used to call Yun “*san niang*” at home, but this was later suddenly changed into “*san t'ai t'ai*.” This began at first in fun, later became a general practice, and even relatives of all ranks, high and low, addressed her as “*san t'ai t'ai*.”¹

¹ “*San*” means number three.” The meaning of “*niang*” and “*t'ai t'ai*” varies with local usage, but generally “*niang*” refers to a young married woman in a big household, while “*t'ai t'ai*” suggests the mistress of an independent home.—Tr.

Analysis: In this sentence, Lin Yutang tries to explain the difference between the “*niang*” and “*t'ai t'ai*.” These are two titles for married woman, one is the young and one is the mistress. However, in this text, Yun is obviously the first title, and the title of “*t'ai t'ai*” is for fun. Such examples are plentiful, like the “*da yi niang*” which means to the oldest mistress in seniority of home; the “*Si Xiaojie*” maybe refer to the young girl who in rank four of a household.

4. Customs cultural words

Custom is called that a kind of consciousness and behaviour which has a certain extent of epidemic time and popular area, whether it is official or private. And the customs cultural words can be divided into numerous parts, such as the dietary culture, costume culture, linguistic culture and so on.

Example 12:

Source Text: 壁间题咏甚多，不能记忆。但记楹对有云：

“何时黄鹤重来，且共倒金樽，浇洲渚千年芳草。但见白云飞去，更谁吹玉笛，落江城五月梅花？”

Target Text: There were a lot of poems written on the walls of the Tower, which I have all forgotten with the exception of a couplet running as follows:¹

*“Where the yellow stork comes again,
let’s together empty the golden goblet,
pouring wine-offering
over the thousand-year green meadow on the isle.
Just look at the white clouds sailing off,
and who will play the jade flute,
sending its melodies
Down the fifth-moon plum-blossoms in the city?”*

¹ In a Chinese couplet, which one sees everywhere in halls and parlours and temples, every word in one member must have a word of the same class but reversed tone in the corresponding position in the other member. With the exception of “the’s”, this can be seen in the translation given here with.--Tr.

Analysis: Couplet is the common decoration of the wall and gate in China, it is a unique cultural and artistic form of the Chinese language with a single word and a tone. Not only Lin translates the meaning of this couplet, he but also pays attention to the form and tone of the source couplet.

IV. CONCLUSION

Lv Shuxiang, a great master of the Chinese language, points out that “necessary annotations should be included in the translation work.” In combination with the thick translation theory, Lin Yutang’s annotation awareness in the translation of *Six Chapters of Floating Life* is obvious. The translation of Chinese classics is not only a way for readers who do not understand the original to know the content and style of the original text, but also an important way to convey culture. Translators should try their best to make the target text similar in semantics and equivalent in style to the source text, to promote the essence of Chinese traditional culture to the maximum extent. The translation of classics into English guided by the thick translation theory, on the one hand, removes reading obstacles caused by cultural differences for Western readers; on the other hand, makes the original meaning clearer, as well as shows richness and diversity of Chinese culture.

REFERENCES

- [1] Appiah, K. A. (1993). Thick Translation. *Calloo* 4, 808-819.
- [2] Duan F. (2006). Thick Description, The New Historicism and Thick Translation: Translation Studies from the Perspective of Cultural Anthropology. *Journal of XiHua Normal University* 2, 90-94.
- [3] Ge H. W. (2017). Deep Translation Strategies of Minority Cultural Classics. *Guizhou Ethnic Studies* 3, 139-142.
- [4] Huang L. (2013). Thick Translation -- A Case Study of John Knoblock’s Translation of *Xunzi*. Sichuan International Studies University.
- [5] Hemans, Theo. (2003). Cross-cultural Translation Studies as Thick Translation. *Bulletin of the School of Oriental and African Studies* 3, 380-389.
- [6] Martha P.Y. Cheung. (2003). An Anthology of Chinese Discourse on Translation Vol.1: From Earliest Times to the Buddhist Project. Shanghai: Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press.
- [7] Shen F. & Lin Y. T. (1999). *Six Chapters of Floating Life*. Shanghai: Foreign Languages and Their Teaching.
- [8] Sun N.N. (2010). The Anthology Latitude of Translation Studies: Thick Translation. *Shanghai Journal of Translators* 1, 14-1.

Yuying Li was born in Nanchang, Jiangxi, China in 1964. She is currently a professor and master’s supervisor in Translation Theory and Practice, Foreign Language College, Jiangxi Normal University, Nanchang City. She has published more than 50 academic papers on translating practice and theory in both Chinese and international journals. Several provincial research projects also have been hosted by her, and finished either. Professor Li is also dedicated into translation teaching practice, which puts out two sets of textbooks about translation.

Qi Lu was born in Poyang, Jiangxi, China in 1995. She is a postgraduate student in Translation Theory and Practice, Foreign Language College, Jiangxi Normal University, Nanchang City.

The Role of Using English Newspapers in Enhancing Pre-intermediate Level Learners' Reading Comprehension Skills

Ranwa Khorsheed
Damascus University, Syria;
Arab International University, Syria

Joumana Rassoul
Damascus University, Syria;
Arab International University, Syria

Abstract—Several newspaper based reading comprehension sessions for pre-intermediate learners were conducted at the foreign languages center at Arab International University. Using newspapers was a first in remedial English courses at the FLC. The learners were excited to explore newspapers with their different sections. They were required to apply their reading comprehension skills while attempting to read a newspaper article: *skimming, scanning and summarizing*. The learners ability to cut through the challenging task was measured by a written assessment as they were required to present a summary of the main ideas of a chosen article in addition to expressing their own personal opinion. The learners were judged according to four points: the linguistic structure, dependence on the original text, the number of ideas presented, and expressing their personal opinion. Finally, the learners' feedback on the current experience was collected via a questionnaire.

Index Terms—newspapers, reading comprehension, pre-intermediate, skimming, scanning, summarizing

I. INTRODUCTION

Most language classes or courses depend on standardized Language text books. Using these books might enforce certain teaching techniques by the language instructor. Besides, a dull traditional learning atmosphere is more likely to dominate the language classroom. Thus, introducing a new and contemporary teaching tool into the classroom would have a great effect on student's interaction and involvement.

The importance of newspapers:

Newspapers are an important form of mass media which plays a vital role in every individual's life (Bucura & Posa, 2011). In addition to being a source of pleasure for its readers, newspapers can be considered as the basic prototype of today's modern socialization tools. Newspapers connect individuals to their local society and other foreign societies as well. Furthermore, newspapers are looked at as vehicles of literacy that deliver knowledge to all individuals matching all differences of education, age, social class and other interests. Some would think of newspapers as a true documentation of nations' history as they offer vivid snapshots of different aspects of a societal life whether economic, social, religious, educational or political (Bankole & Babalola, 2011; Babalola, 2002; and Schoenback, 2005).

Newspapers as a teaching tool:

Many instructors and educators have incorporated the use of newspapers as an effective learning tool whether in the language classroom or in other subjects since they are up to date and can easily replace the old typical outdated learning textbooks (Bucura & Posa, 2011; and Sanderson, 1999). Newspapers seem to be an attractive teaching tool that links learners to reality. This is especially noted in the language classrooms that were accustomed to using regular textbooks that are probably fabricated and tailored in a way that is far from real life incidents. Newspapers grant students the chance to deal with real English in addition to experiencing natural reactions due to reading real life events and incidents. This experience is priceless for language learners as they get to tackle real English and get in touch with an immediate source that reflects the foreign culture which normally accompanies the target language. In addition, It has been proved that newspapers enhance readership, enrich learners' vocabulary, improve their writing skills, cultivate critical thinking, clarify cultural values, broaden readers' perspectives and strengthen real life decision making and problem solving skills (Bankole & Babalola, 2011; El-Madwi, 2014; and Brown, 1989). Furthermore, reading newspapers would definitely give rise to and elevate students' sense of linguistic achievement in addition to boosting their confidence and motivation.

Linguistic skills taught by newspapers:

Newspapers use can be adapted to fit the teaching of many linguistic skills. These skills can be taught collectively in a simple newspaper based task. On the other hand, each linguistic skill can be taught individually using specifically

tailored newspapers based activities. These skills can be classified into four basic linguistic skills along with other complementary ones with a little addition and refinement.

Speaking and communication skills:

Reading newspapers aloud in the classroom would contribute to and enhance learners' phonemic awareness, fluency and enrich their vocabulary bank (Bernadowski, 2011). Students can be guided to act out specific role plays based on newspapers texts (Bucura & Posa, 2011; Chandler, 1988; Daly, 2004; Hess, 1987; Mehta, 2010; and Sanderson, 1999). As for improving learners' fluency, this can be noted after holding several group and pair discussions on different newspaper articles in a number of sessions. Students will learn to express their opinion and activate their critical thinking skills (Babalola, 2002; Bankole & Babalola, 2011; Elmadwi, 2014; Riaz, 2012; and Worthy.. etal, 2002).

Studying skills:

Dealing with newspapers would help learners acquire useful studying skills. When confronting a newspaper, students would resort to several techniques to facilitate the comprehension process. Thus, students would learn how to do brain storming, take notes, organize ideas, summarize important information and use abbreviations in their notes (Riaz, 2012; and Ping, 2011).

Reading skills:

Language learners can earn a lot of benefits from newspapers, especially when it comes to their reading skills. Learners would be taught two techniques: skimming and scanning. These techniques would enable them to identify the general idea and main details of an article within a minimum of time (Cheyney, 1992; and Riaz, 2012). Furthermore, learners would be introduced to two forms (styles) of reading: intensive and extensive reading. In intensive reading, learners would tackle articles closely and become aware of text organization, justify the use of certain context based expressions and get acquainted with different writing styles used in different types of articles (Echevarria ...etal, 2008; and Elmadwi, 2014). It is worth adding that intensive reading sometimes requires handling difficult readings which might usually exceeds the learners' level of comprehension. However, such practice would normally be considered a boost to the learners' abilities (Aiex, 2000; Brown...etal, 1989; Elmadwi, 2014; and Riaz, 2012). On the other hand, extensive reading would allow learners to practice reading on a daily basis and thus get familiar with a good number of topics and articles classified under different genres (Antepara, 2003; Elmadwi, 2014; and Riaz, 2012).

Writing skills:

Reading newspapers would help learners pick up different structures and vocabulary, and implement them in their writings. In addition, learners would be familiarized with different writing styles and techniques when reading different sections of newspapers that are written differently since each section serves a distinguished purpose (Riaz,2012). Newspapers headlines and photos can be used as intriguing elements that motivate learners to write their own version of the original story. Learners could even attempt writing a letter to the editor addressing a certain problem or select a job add and write a cover letter (Brown,1989).

Current research aim and importance:

This research paper aims at introducing newspapers as a teaching tool to pre-intermediate level English language learners. Newspapers will mainly be used to enhance students' comprehension skills and to introduce them to real English. In addition, students would be familiarized with a new genre of English and they would note the similarities and differences between text books' language and the language of newspapers. Furthermore, students' engagement with newspapers would help them develop steady reading habits that will definitely be fruitful on the long run. It is worth adding that reading newspapers, along with the exercises designed by the researcher, would improve students' skimming, summarizing, paraphrasing and writing skills.

Rationale of research:

One aspect that distinguishes students registered at the FLC, is that most of them are obliged to take remedial English courses in order to proceed with the specialized courses related to their majors. Thus, it was observed that these learners lack the interest and motivation to learn English and develop their skills, especially their reading skills being bored with the traditional outdated topics discussed in their language text books. Eventually, some tutors at the FLC suggested holding reading comprehension sessions based on newspapers' topics, hoping that this would affect students' general attitude towards the English courses and increase their interest, motivation to learn the language, and enhance their linguistic achievement.

II. METHODOLOGY

Participants:

The chosen participants will be a group of 20 pre-intermediate (level one) learners of English who are registered students at the foreign language center at Arab International University. The students belong to the (18-20) age group.

Research context:

The current research has taken place at the foreign languages center (FLC) at the Arab International University (a private Syrian university). The FLC is a language center that offers remedial English courses to students enrolled at the AIU. These courses are mainly divided into four levels (0,1,2,3). In addition, the center offers special courses for academic writing & research, communication skills, and Toefl preparation courses. It is also worth noting that there are other courses for European languages e.g. German, French and Spanish. As for the nature of the English remedial

courses held at the FLC, they could be described as typical language courses that teach the four basic linguistic skills (Listening, reading, writing, and speaking) using regular Language learning text books. With regard to using unconventional teaching materials in the English courses, it should be clarified that no such materials have been used especially newspapers which are the object of concern. Teachers at the FLC only use the course books and their packs of software assigned by the management.

Procedures and instruments:

The researchers have scheduled three one-hour sessions to apply the research and assess its outcomes. The researchers used a dozen of an English newspaper edition (The Daily Star) in the reading sessions.

The first session: Introducing newspapers

In the first session, the researchers brought a dozen of the English newspaper (The Daily Star) and distributed a copy to each pair of learners. First, the learners were asked to examine the number of pages of the whole paper, the lengths and shapes of articles, the fonts and the photos. Then, learners were guided through the different sections of the paper with a thorough explanation of the function of each section (stories, letters, reviews, letters to editor, puzzles, weather grids, sports, advice columns, Ads, editorials, horoscopes...etc.).

The second session: preliminary training for using the newspaper

In the second session, the researchers chose an article from the newspaper to discuss with the learners and examine its structure and features. The article was entitled (The Human Hen), which talks about the strange experiences of an unusual artist. The article was chosen based on the learners' interest in artistic topics since most of them were majoring in Arts and Architecture. In addition, the language of the article was relatively simple taking in to consideration the fact that it is the learners' first attempt to read a news article. First, learners' attention was drawn to the title and the overall structure of the article and how it differs from the typical structure used in their language learning text books e.g. the use of the inverted commas, passive voice, inter sentence coordination, inter paragraph coordination, appositive noun phrases and participle phrases. The researchers also pointed out the use of the telegraphic style in the article. Then, the learners were asked to examine the photo accompanying the article and to check if it conveys the message. After that, the learners were asked to read the article silently and choose one of four statements written on the white board that best summarize the article. Next, the learners had to underline the topic sentence in each paragraph, mark the supporting sentences, and highlight the key words. By doing these steps, the learners were applying the skimming technique they normally used in their regular reading sessions. The learners were also guided to look for specific details like dates, numbers, names, and places mentioned in the article. The latter step is considered as an application for the scanning technique. The learners were also asked to identify what is usual (typical) art and artist and compare it to the kind of art and artist presented in the article. This task helped students draw connections between the article and the real world and prior knowledge which is considered as an application of the *schema theory* and the *think aloud* technique.

The third session: Assessment

In the third session, each group of two students had to choose an article from the newspaper, read it, use scanning and skimming techniques, and present a written summary. This was the assessment process along with a questionnaire distributed to gather the learners' evaluation of this learning experience. Further details on the procession and results of the questionnaire and this session would be provided in the results discussion section.

III. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

Research results:

It was noted that the majority of the learners (99%) have chosen the same article which was an advantageous point that facilitated evaluating and assessing their degree of comprehension. The chosen article was a sports article about the famous tennis player Rafael Nadal. Consequently, ten summaries were submitted by ten pair groups. The summaries were evaluated according to the following points: the linguistic structure, dependence on the original text, expressing personal opinion and presenting all the main ideas of the article. These points would be further explained in the coming sections.

Linguistic structure:

Only two of the ten pair groups have submitted summaries using their own language to present the main ideas without quoting or borrowing expressions or clauses from the original text. These two summaries have displayed a very good use of grammar in complete sentences and a variety of vocabulary. The following are examples taken from the groups' summaries:

- a. "Monte Carlo has been an important event in Nadal's life"
- b. "He surrendered his No.1 ranking after losing to Djokovic"

Dependence on the original text:

Two of the groups submitted summaries in which they partially used their own language and partially used some sentences extracted from the original text e.g.

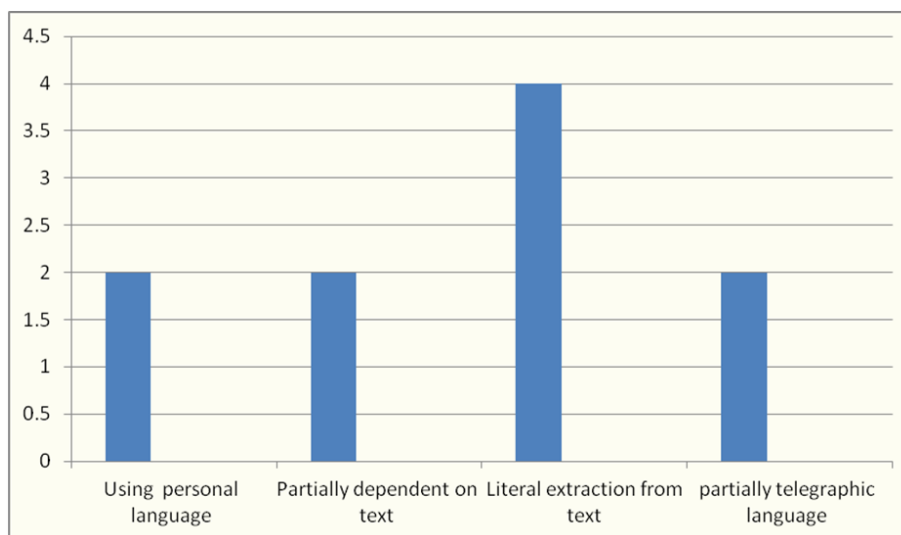
- a. "He improved and won again many titles"
- b. "He had a tough start to the season when he first played in 2003"

On the other hand, four groups submitted summaries with complete sentences literally extracted from the original text like using the first line or the topic sentence of each paragraph to present its main idea. Two of these summaries have used the title and the subtitle amongst the main ideas while other ideas were presented in run on sentences e.g.

- a. "The son of Spain, 30 years old Rafael Nadal breaks the record of Monte Carlo title with ten successful victories."

The last two groups submitted two summaries in which they partially used a telegraphic language similar to that of the title. They also inserted additional outside information about Nadal's place of birth, nick name, other winnings, and the reasons for winning. This has reflected the learners' familiarity with the topic and their successful attempt in using their back ground information e.g.

- a. "He won 14 times in grand peace for men and 9 times in open France championship"
b. "He is a famous player because of his awards."



Expressing personal opinion:

All groups have managed to present their personal opinion at the end of their summaries . All personal opinions were presented using the learners' own language in complete correct sentences e.g.

- a. "I think he is the heart of tennis, without him tennis wouldn't be as lively as it is."

However, four of the summaries expressed their hopes for a good future for the tennis player rather than expressing their personal opinion e.g.

- a. "I hope Rafa does not quit the game, because he is good at tennis and he is my best player."

Another two summaries did not express their opinion too. But, they rather explained the reasons behind the player's success e.g.

- a. "He succeeded in this game because he love it since he was a kid."

Number of ideas presented:

The article consists of 12 segments (paragraphs). Each paragraph presents a point in Nadal's life or one of his achievements. However, the last four paragraphs mainly focused on his rivalry with another famous tennis player (Ramos). When examining the learners' summaries, it was found out that six summaries have covered 8 of the main ideas presented in the article. On the other hand, the other four summaries have presented only 3 of the main ideas. It is worth mentioning that all of the ten summaries have overlooked presenting the main ideas of the last four paragraphs in the article that discussed the rivalry between Nadal and Ramos.

Learners' feedback questionnaire:

After finalizing the newspaper based reading comprehension sessions, a questionnaire was distributed to collect learners' feedback and evaluation of this learning experience. The questionnaire mainly consisted of 8 items. After calculating the percentages of the questionnaire, the following results were obtained: About 70% of the learners liked the variety of the sections and the topics presented in the newspaper more than those discussed in their language learning text books. 80% of the learners have stated that the language used in newspapers articles is different from the one used in the text books. 40% of the learners have stated that reading newspapers is easier than reading the texts in their language learning books. 70% of the learners agreed that the stories in the newspaper are closer to reality than those in their text books. 60% of the learners have stated that the vocabulary used in newspapers is mostly familiar. When the learners were asked about their most preferable sections of the newspaper, the majority (80%) preferred the sports and the art sections.

In class observations:

Further notes were obtained from in class observations during the newspapers reading comprehension sessions. When first introducing newspapers to the learners in the first session, the learners exhibited a high interest and

excitement to explore their copies of the newspaper. This could be justified by the fact that these learners have never handled an English newspaper before. The size of the paper, the length of the articles, the font size, the titles, the photos, and the different sections, all were elements that attracted and excited the learners. It was also noted that the learners were excited to see, feel and try real English embodied in newspapers articles. At first, the learners found it challenging to read the newspaper article and comprehend its segments. Eventually, with the aid of pair work and the guidance of their instructor, the learners managed to cut through the challenging task.

IV. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

After analyzing learners' summaries, it could be said that most of the learners (65%) were able to fully comprehend the article and identify its main ideas. Only 20% of the learners have displayed an ability to use their own language in complete and correct grammatical structures to present the main ideas. On the other hand, 90% of the learners were able to express their opinions using complete and grammatically correct sentences. This could hint out to learners ability of self-expression being stimulated by an external factor which is in this case the newspaper article. As for the learners' evaluation of this learning experience, many deductions were made after analyzing the results of the distributed questionnaire. First, it was deduced that the learners liked the variety of the newspaper topics and acknowledged their validity as true stories that occurred in different countries and different contexts. In addition, the learners realized the differences between the linguistic style used in their text books and that of the newspapers. On the other hand, the learners found the vocabulary used in the article familiar to some extent.

Conclusion:

Conducting this research has proven the possibility of evaluating learners' reading comprehension skills by using newspapers articles. The use of newspapers has challenged the learners' linguistic level as they are accustomed to language learning textbooks with their typical linguistic style. Using newspapers articles, which could be defined as genre based articles, has been a scaffolding process that necessitated taking the learners out of their linguistic comfort zone. In the end, the learners were up to the challenge and managed to adapt to this new learning experience and present satisfactory results. Therefore, it would be highly recommended to use newspapers articles in reading comprehension sessions as an essential part of the remedial English courses at the FLC at the AIU.

Research limitations and recommendations:

The current research has only studied the effects of using newspapers articles on a single group of learners at level one. More comprehensive results would have been obtained if this research was conducted on learners in other different levels. It is recommended to apply the same research using newspapers as a teaching tool to enhance other linguistic skills such as speaking and presenting. In addition, if this research was applied to learners in multiple levels, it would highly be recommended to observe, follow and compare the differences in the learners' linguistic achievements and abilities amongst different levels.

APPENDIX. LEARNERS' FEEDBACK QUESTIONNAIRE

Name:

	Agree	Neutral	Disagree
Newspapers are interesting.			
I like the topics in the newspapers more than the topics in my English text book.			
The language of newspapers is different than the language of my English textbook.			
Reading newspapers is easier than reading The texts in my English text book.			
The stories in newspapers are more real than the stories in my English text book.			
The vocabulary in newspapers is all familiar.			
I like the variety of sections in the newspaper			

I prefer	Art section	Sport section	Social section	Political	Economic
----------	-------------	---------------	----------------	-----------	----------

REFERENCES

- [1] Aiex, N.K. (2000). Newspapers as a teaching and communication resource. Online ESL article. ERIC clearing house on reading English and communication. Bloomington. IN.
- [2] Antepara, R. (2003). Using news stories in the ESL classroom. *The internet TESL Journal*, 9 (12). 123-144.
- [3] Babalola, E.A. (2002). Newspapers as instruments for building literate communities: The Nigerian experience. *Nordic journal of African studies* 11 (3), 403-410.
- [4] Bankole, O.M and Babalola, S.O. (2011). Use of newspapers by students of Olabisi Onabanjo University, Ago-Iwoye, Ogun State, Nigeria. *Library of philosophy and practice (e-journal)*. Vol. 1, No 1. Paper 462. University of Nebraska- Lincoln.
- [5] Bernadowski, C. (2011). A good read, literacy strategies with newspapers. (Newspaper association of America) foundation.

- Senior vice president and secretary/treasurer: Margaret Vassilikos. Arlington.
- [6] Brown, A.L., & Palincsar, A.S. (1981). A guided cooperative learning and individual knowledge acquisition. In L. Resnick (Ed.), *Knowing, learning and instruction: Essays in honor of Robert Glaser*.
 - [7] Chandler, C.E. (1988). "Use the news: press to read: Literacy now!", *Journal of reading*, 31 (8), 746-748.
 - [8] Cheyney, A.B. (1992). Teaching reading skills through the newspaper. Newark: International Reading Association.
 - [9] Daly, B. (2004). Facilitating discussions of newspaper articles in the ESL/EFL classroom. *The internet TESL Journal*, x (7), 232-252.
 - [10] Echevarria, J., Vogt, M., Short, D.J. (2008). Making content comprehensible for English learners: The Stop model (3rd ed). Boston, MA. Pearson.
 - [11] Elmadwi, M.H. (2014). A study of the significance of using newspapers as an instrument to develop reading and comprehension skills for learning of English as a second language. *International Journal of English language, literature and humanities*. Vol. 1, No5. 560-580.
 - [12] Grundy, P. (1994). Newspapers. *Issues in applied linguistics*. University of California, Los Angeles.
 - [13] Hess, N. (1987). Newspapers in the English classroom: Stressing sociolinguistic communicative competence in an authentic frame work. *English teachers' Journal*, 35, 70- 71.
 - [14] Kenji, K. (1995). "Teaching English through newspapers". English literacy society of Doshisha University.
 - [15] Kim, I. (2005). The headlines and sentence structure in English language newspapers. *Educational research*. USA.
 - [16] Mehata, N.K. (2010). English newspapers: Exploring innovative methodological paradigm. A study into classroom dynamics. *Romanian Journal of education*. Vol.1, No 1, pp. 55-60.
 - [17] Ping, W. (2011). Exploring innovative activities in using news stories to teach advanced Chinese learners English in a multimedia way. *Journal of English and Literature*. 2(5), P 103-122.
 - [18] Riaz, M. (2013). Task based language learning in English for specific purposes: An exploration in to the use of newspapers for teaching English as a second language to engineering students in Pakistan. *The journal of teaching English for specific and academic purposes*. Vol. 2, No 4, pp.685-696.
 - [19] Sanderson, P. (1999). "Using Newspapers in the Classroom". Cambridge University Press, United Kingdom.
 - [20] Schoenbach, K. (2005). Newspapers and their impact on the extent of the perceived public agenda. *European Journal of communication*. 20, 2, 245, - 258.
 - [21] Tafani, V. (2009). Teaching English through Mass Media. *Acta Didactica Napocensia*. 2 (1), P 84-111.
 - [22] Worthy, J. & Broadus, K. (2002). Fluency beyond the primary grade: from group performance to silent independent reading. *The reading teacher*, 55 (4), 334-43.

Ranwa Khorsheed, born in Damascus, Syria, June, 1984. Studied English language and literature at Damascus University. Got a Master degree in general linguistics, Damascus University, 2014.

She worked for private language institutes. Also worked as an English language instructor at Damascus University. (2015-Present) working for the Syrian Virtual University and the Arab international University in Damascus, Syria.

Joumana Rassoul, born in Damascus, Syria, May, 1987. Studied English language and literature at Damascus University and graduated in 2009.

She worked for Elementary schools in Damascus, Syria. (2016-present) working for the Arab international University in Damascus, Syria.

Call for Papers and Special Issue Proposals

Aims and Scope

Theory and Practice in Language Studies (TPLS) is a peer-reviewed international journal dedicated to promoting scholarly exchange among teachers and researchers in the field of language studies. The journal is published monthly.

TPLS carries original, full-length articles and short research notes that reflect the latest developments and advances in both theoretical and practical aspects of language teaching and learning. We particularly encourage articles that share an interdisciplinary orientation, articles that bridge the gap between theory and practice, and articles in new and emerging areas of research that reflect the challenges faced today.

Areas of interest include: language education, language teaching methodologies, language acquisition, bilingualism, literacy, language representation, language assessment, language education policies, applied linguistics, as well as language studies and other related disciplines: psychology, linguistics, pragmatics, cognitive science, neuroscience, ethnography, sociolinguistics, sociology, and anthropology, literature, phonetics, phonology, and morphology.

Special Issue Guidelines

Special issues feature specifically aimed and targeted topics of interest contributed by authors responding to a particular Call for Papers or by invitation, edited by guest editor(s). We encourage you to submit proposals for creating special issues in areas that are of interest to the Journal. Preference will be given to proposals that cover some unique aspect of the technology and ones that include subjects that are timely and useful to the readers of the Journal. A Special Issue is typically made of 15 to 30 papers, with each paper 8 to 12 pages of length.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

The Face View of China and Foreign Countries under Cross-cultural Communication <i>Qian Hong and Gaofeng Yu</i>	1324
Long Vowels and Nasal-consonant Sequences in Kisa <i>Emily Ayieta Ondondo</i>	1329
A Research on Postgraduate English Curriculum Based on the Academic English <i>Yuan Kong</i>	1338
Stylistics and the Teaching of <i>Advanced English</i> for Senior English Majors <i>Chuanmei Kang</i>	1346
The Association between Self-efficacy of Saudi Learners and Their EFL Academic Performance <i>Fakieh Alrabai</i>	1351
An Analysis of <i>Lady Chatterley's Lover</i> from the Perspective of Ecofeminism <i>Ting Bo</i>	1361
On the C-E Translation of Chinese Classics from the Perspective of Thick Translation Theory <i>Yuying Li and Qi Lu</i>	1365
The Role of Using English Newspapers in Enhancing Pre-intermediate Level Learners' Reading Comprehension Skills <i>Ranwa Khorsheed and Joumana Rassoul</i>	1370
