Theory and Practice in Language Studies

Contents

Embracing Neapolitan as a Language Which Is Key to the Reconstruction of Early Romance

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Abstract—**Despite being the second most spoken language on the Italian peninsula, Neapolitan has been overlooked in some of the more important comparative linguistic studies of the twentieth and twenty-first centuries. A survey of these studies suggests the preference for: 1) national languages, in this case, Italian, 2) languages that possess comparably the largest number of speakers, especially those that have swelled exponentially for reasons of immigration, as in the cases of Spanish, Portuguese and French; or 3) insular languages such as Sardinian which, despite its relatively low number of speakers, appears to have been included because of its sequestered history and the inevitability of differently evolved forms. The reason for this study is to demonstrate that because of exclusion among the ranks of other more elite languages, certain key structures of Neapolitan have been overlooked as potential exemplars of earlier forms of Romance. This paper suggests reasons for why the exclusion of Neapolitan in previous comparative language studies has only served to obscure the relevance of other factors that are key to the reconstruction of early Romance. The paper will also provide specific examples from the Neapolitan lexicon that serve to demonstrate how this variety conserves early forms of Romance.**

Index Terms— **methodology, comparative method, Neapolitan, Proto-Romance, minority languages**

I. INTRODUCTION

Neapolitan has unique socio-historical and geographical importance in the history of Romance that has all too often been overlooked among traditional, more generalized comparisons of the Romance languages, particularly when trying to ascertain more general or historical trends of this language family as a whole. Be it because of Neapolitan's relegation to a status of purported "minority" European language or dialect, even among specialists, cross-linguistic studies have traditionally passed on Neapolitan as a viable source of data for such comparisons.[1]

A bird's eye analysis of existing cross-linguistic studies suggests that these have traditionally been biased toward: 1) national or "mainstream" languages, in this case, for example, Italian, suggesting Neapolitan to be a mere offshoot, despite its separate evolution from Latin, and even more surprisingly, its having been reported as being unintelligible to speakers of standard Italian from northern regions;[2] 2) languages that possess a comparably large number of speakers, especially those that have swelled exponentially for reasons of immigration or empire building, such as the cases of Spanish, Portuguese and French; or 3) in more recent cases, languages that are sequestered by distance or sea, such as Romanian, Sicilian, and Sardinian, with inevitable developmental differences that have resulted from either physical isolation from, or the persistent lack of contact with, other mainland Western European Romance varieties.

A problem with the first two above-mentioned language selection methods for cross-linguistic studies is that both appear to be based on more arbitrary than scientific premises, especially when one considers the historical facts surrounding the origins, rise, and modern endurance of Neapolitan (and its continuum of dialects) throughout the southern half of Italy. I say this because the languages that have evolved to either possess official status or that have large numbers of speakers have not always been characterized as such historically, either type having had to originate at some more primitive or comparably humble point in their respective histories. Nonetheless, for reasons that are almost always entirely political, and consequently, a-linguistic, certain languages outpace others over time because they become more powerful, economically successful, and historically influential in becoming a standard means of communication, even in areas where other, less prestigious varieties continue to thrive in less formal circumstances alongside the new imposed norm. This, in turn allows them to spread exponentially, especially with historical empire-building efforts. This happens at the expense of those other varieties which, to no fault of their own, and many times because of disadvantages that have been imposed on them beyond their control, become relatively less prominent over time, some even resulting in extinction.

For these reasons, of all three apparent criteria for language selection mentioned previously, the third one, namely, that of isolation, appears to be a more rigorous linguistic criterion than that of, say, historical popularity or political

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[1] This is not to say that other, less comparative work specific to Neapolitan or its structures have been altogether ignored, such as the cases of important work by Ledgeway (2009); Abete (2011); or Loporcaro (2016), to name a few.
[2] *Ethnologue* (2017) reports that according to F. Agard (1984) and Vincent (1987), "northern varieties (of Italian) are more similar to French and Occitan than to standard or southern varieties."

importance. In both Hall (1976) and Hall (1984), Sardinian appears to have been included among the ten languages compared precisely because of its geographic isolation, despite its overwhelmingly small number of speakers.[3]

II. Purpose

The purpose of this article is to raise awareness of Neapolitan as an important but underexplored variety of Romance, particularly regarding information it can provide in terms of how it compares with the other modern Romance languages, most particularly, Spanish and Italian, and the implications this has for what have been reported as earlier transitional forms of Romance. I will show that despite its geographical proximity in relation to the western seat of the empire, Neapolitan has witnessed a continuous historical disadvantage in its having been deemed a comparably less prestigious variety of Romance, one traditionally associated with the poorer, uneducated, and/or agricultural classes of society. I will also show how the region in which Neapolitan has developed and is now spoken has been throughout most of its history subjugated to external political forces, and therefore, undervalued as the locus of a potential political power in its own right. These factors have in turn led to the outright omission of Neapolitan among the more important comparative Romance linguistic studies of the twentieth century and into the twenty first, suggesting not only that certain important data may have been overlooked in such studies, but even more importantly, that this newly defined area may now provide some new insights into the history of the other Romance languages, including Spanish.

III. Discussion

Although technically used to describe characteristics pertaining to the customs or language spoken in or around Naples, the term Neapolitan has become a catchall, macrodialectal term used to describe most Italian dialects in the south, particularly in the Campania region (Ledgeway, 2009).[4]

The "southern vernacular," a more general term that has also been applied to encompass the geographical expanse of this variety, has been shown to exhibit a number of linguistic characteristics that are quite different from those of northern or standard Italian, the latter which is also known as Tuscan (Clivio et al., 2011, p. 10), and more specifically, Florentine (Maiden, 1995, pp. 3-5), and has experienced an evolution from Latin that is entirely separate from the north (Ledgeway, 2009, pp. 5-13). In fact, Neapolitan is considered a separate language from Italian with "limited inherent intelligibility" and spoken "vigorously" by 5.7 million people and often in some combination with or apart from standard Italian, and/or a local/regional variety, depending on the situation of the speaker (*Ethnologue*, 2017).[5]

As we shall see, one of the principal linguistic differences between Neapolitan and Italian is the extent of preservation of archaic structures in the former, which can be explained by its history, isolation, and economy. Southern Italy has endured a long history of political, cultural, and linguistic separatism from the north, one that included incessant natural disasters, rampant poverty, disease, and limited education and illiteracy (Bartalesi-Graf, 2011, pp. 1-31). Even after the unification of Italy in 1861, the North and South remained essentially un-united linguistically until the mid-1900s.[6]

Not until the 1950s did mass education and technology help spread the use of Tuscan as the official language. Before this time, it was not uncommon for the uneducated to speak ONLY the southern vernacular. Still today, the North and South remain two very different places both culturally and linguistically.

Southern Italy is historically an agricultural economy, although there have been several unsuccessful attempts to bring more industry into the region. This continued way of life with little improvement has contributed historically to successive, documented massive emigrations of unskilled workers from the South to places like the United States and Latin America, particularly during the early twentieth century, which as we shall see later in this paper, has had the overall effect of further depleting the numbers of current speakers of this variety. This is also responsible for the very little cultural or linguistic change within the region throughout its history, with more people leaving the region than newcomers settling there.

A. Neapolitan's Absence in Previous and Current cross Linguistic Studies

Despite being the second most spoken language in the Italian peninsula,[7] Neapolitan has never been considered one of the major Romance languages. Examples abound of important comparative Romance studies in which Neapolitan is not included. Some examples are: 1) Boyd-Bowman's Latin to Romance sound charts (1980) which compare only the four so-called major national European Romance languages of Spanish, Portuguese, French, and Italian 2) Hall's seminal works on both Proto-Romance phonology (Hall, 1976) and morphology (Hall, 1984), which include Sardinian, despite reportedly having approximately 1.1 million speakers (in contrast with Neapolitan's 5.7 million); and more recently, 3) Rudder's Romance grammar (2012).

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[3] Interestingly, both Hall (1976) and Hall (1984) also include, in addition to modern French, Old North French and Old South French among their roster of languages for comparison.

[4] Not unlike the term "castellano" in the Spanish-speaking world that technically refers to the variety of Spanish that originated and is still spoken in Castile, but is applied more liberally by speakers of most other regional varieties of Spanish.

[5] According to *Ethnologue* (2017), estimates for Neapolitan-Calabrese and other regional languages of the Italian mainland are from 2002 data.

[6] According to *Ethnologue* (2017), only 3% of Italy's population could speak standard Italian at the time of unification in 1861.

[7] Source: *Ethnologue* (2017)

Seeing the trends for how European languages have typically been chosen for comparison studies, the question arises, how SHOULD one decide which of the Neo-Latin tongues to include in a cross-comparison linguistic analysis? It appears that the studies referenced above use the traditional criteria of number of speakers, or their status as a national language, or in the case of Hall for Sardinian, the fact that it is an isolated language. Both Hall and Rudder also include Romanian within their rosters of languages, most likely because of the geographical distance between Romania and the remainder of the Romance speaking world, as well as preexisting knowledge of the incorporation of Slavic elements into the Latin base, making it further interesting in terms of the identification of specific lexical and structural differences.

Another, very recent area of comparative inquiry in which Neapolitan appears to have been overlooked is in studies of lexical similarity. Such analyses, as stipulated by *Ethnologue* (2017), consist of comparisons of a set of standard word lists between two modern spoken language varieties and the assignment of a value to those forms that show similarity in both form and meaning. The values are then tallied to yield an overall similarity coefficient for the two languages compared. The higher the score, with 1.00 being the highest, the greater lexical similarity is alleged between the two varieties. *Ethnologue* (2017) reports the results of lexical similarity tests for a number of Indo-European languages that allow for lexical comparisons between say, English and French. It also allows for comparisons among the major Romance languages, with the exception, of course, of Neapolitan. Table 1 shows the results of such tests for some of the modern Romance languages.[8]

TABLE 1.
INDICES OF LEXICAL SIMILARITY BETWEEN SOME ROMANCE LANGUAGES (ACCORDING TO ETHNOLOGUE 2017)

	Catalan	French	Italian	Portuguese	Romanian	Romansh	Sardinian	Spanish
Catalan	1.00	n/d	0.87	0.85	0.73	0.76	0.75	0.85
French	n/d	1.00	0.89	0.75	0.75	0.78	0.80	0.75
Italian	0.87	0.89	1.00	n/d	0.77	0.78	0.85	0.82
Portuguese	0.85	0.75	n/d	1.00	0.72	0.74	n/d	0.89
Romanian	0.73	0.75	0.77	0.72	1.00	0.72	0.83	0.71
Romansh	0.76	0.78	0.78	0.74	0.72	1.00	0.74	0.74
Sardinian	0.75	0.80	0.85	n/d	0.83	0.74	1.00	0.76
Spanish	0.85	0.75	0.82	0.89	0.71	0.74	0.76	1.00

n/d = not yet determined
Source: *Ethnologue* 2017

According to Table 1, Spanish and Portuguese have an index of similarity at 0.89, in other words, there is an 89% similarity between their lexicons. Similar tests for French and Italian yield the same score. Also interesting is the finding that Spanish and Italian only have an 82% similarity between them, suggesting that Italian is actually much closer to French than it is to Spanish, at least in terms of vocabulary. Once again, and in support of the claim I make for the apparent underrepresentation of Neapolitan among the ranks of European languages for comparison studies, what appear to be missing are similarity indexes for Neapolitan with these other languages. It is interesting that *Ethnologue* (2017) does indicate, however, that speakers of Italian from the north have indicated Neapolitan as being unintelligible.

Even with the absence of coefficients of lexical similarity specifically for Neapolitan, *Ethnologue's* recent assessments of lexical similarity for Spanish, Portuguese, Italian, and French should at least raise some questions regarding the methodology of language selection in such studies as Boyd-Bowman (1980) which was limited to the four major national Romance languages, as stated earlier. Considering that Spanish and Portuguese are deemed to be "close" on the one hand, and Italian and French are also "close," at least in terms of vocabulary, it would make sense that a wider spectrum of differentiation could possibly have provided greater objectivity in results. Nevertheless, the central point here is not so much to criticize previous studies, as it is to heighten the sense of urgency for the further examination of Neapolitan.

The intrinsic value of national or mainstream language status as a criterion for linguistic analysis

As Wright (2002) points out, the names that we use for languages are historically based on the names of places where they are spoken and have developed. They are nouns that have derived from what were originally adjectives representing a particular geographical sub-variety of some larger category of language, which in our present context would be Latin or Romance, e.g., Spanish ~~Romance~~, French ~~Romance~~, etc.[9] Many of the names we use today for modern European languages correspond to those that have been adopted politically as national or official representatives to those countries where they are spoken. Such a designation of Italian as the overall representative language of Italy for comparative language studies has essentially left a wealth of data unexplored. Knowing a little more about the history of the Italian Peninsula and how this relates to the variety of different languages that have

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[8] The notion of lexical similarity is not the same as that of intelligibility, being that the former is a simple bidirectional or reciprocal calculation. As explained by *Ethnologue* (2017), unlike the measurement of lexical similarity, that of intelligibility between two languages is a much more complex analysis that goes beyond the lexicon, involving other levels of linguistic structure such as phonology, morphology, and syntax.

[9] We see this in the use of such terms "American English, "Australian English," or "British English" which are used currently to distinguish between varieties. As Wright (2002) further explains, when varieties become no longer intelligible, the nominal component of the term disappears (as represented in the crossed-out portions of the forms mentioned here in the text) and the adjective itself becomes nominalized and henceforth stands alone to represent the particular variety.

developed and are even still spoken there provides justification as to why Neapolitan should be considered more like a peer, rather than a minority, among the ranks of other European Romance languages that are typically evaluated in comparative studies.

Since the earliest times of Roman colonization there has existed an entirely different language in the south of Italy, which thenceforward throughout the ensuing centuries has developed in a unique way from how the language that we know today as Italian developed. In its evolution, the language that would eventually become Neapolitan was not limited to the city of Naples, but was spoken throughout the entire Kingdom of Naples, the largest of the Italian peninsula. Spanning the entire southern half of the Peninsula, below the area of the Papal States which included most of the Lazio region and Rome, the Kingdom of Naples' jurisdiction comprised what are today the modern regions of Abruzzo, Apulia, Basilicata, Calabria, Campania, southernmost Lazio, Marche, Molise, and Sicily. The Kingdom of Naples later became the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies, which remained designated as such until unification of the entire peninsula in 1861 into the singular Kingdom of Italy.

At the same time that we consider these historical facts, one must also keep in mind that the language that we know today as modern standard Italian originated in what was at one time no more than a dialect itself, limited to the geographical region of Tuscany. Tuscan, or *toscano* as it is known in the vernacular, was itself quite different from other dialects of the north, but for political and historical advantages, including economic and cultural prestige, has over time become the standard for the entire country following unification. Figure 1 demarcates the regions across Southern Italy where Neapolitan and its related varieties are still "vigorously" spoken.
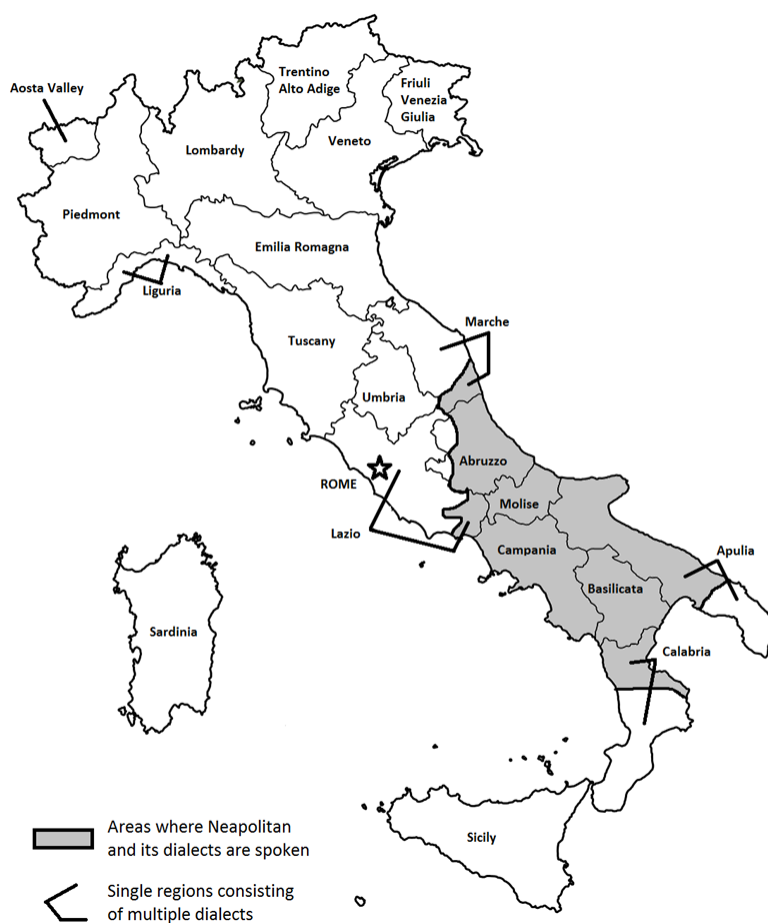
Source: Author, from *Ethnologue*, 2017
Figure 1. Regions in Italy where Neapolitan and its continuum of subdialects are spoken

It is interesting, though not at all surprising, that the shaded regions of Figure 1, demarcating the modern areas of Italy in which Neapolitan and its varieties are still spoken, are those corresponding to the very expanse of the region that embodied the one-time Kingdom of Naples. This in itself is an important finding in that one has to consider what would have happened historically, 1) had the south been stronger enough to assert itself as a separate power politically, and 2) had Italy not united with the south as a result of unification. In either case, Neapolitan could very well have become a so-called "major" European language on its own and in its own right, along the same lines as French, Italian, or Spanish.

The truth of the matter is that the south and north of Italy experienced two separate evolutions both politically and linguistically, and although the purpose of this paper is not to provide an exhaustive comparative historical account, some of the more noteworthy milestones are worth mentioning in order to understand the factors which determined the

ultimate political and economic misfortunes of the southern Italian region, and in turn how the language which developed there could have retained some of its more unique characteristics.

The history of Italy's south

As historian Astarita (2006) suggests, the southern region of the Italian peninsula has always been one of sharp contrasts, a dichotomy between Naples and other western coastal cities as major urban centers on the one hand, while on the other, the remote, inner regions and eastern coastal cities remained less favorable and therefore, underdeveloped. Many emperors and other important and influential Romans built villas on the southwestern coastline in or very near Naples, such as the Isle of Capri. In ancient times Naples, together with its immediately surrounding area, was considered a unique, beautiful and strategically placed port city and for this reason was always coveted by successive powers, first the Greeks who gave the city its name "Neapolis," to be followed by the Romans, Byzantines, Arabs, Normans, and the Kingdom of Aragon of Spain.[10]

Naples not only attracted the Roman elite, but over time continuously drew large numbers of the common populus as well from the poorer agricultural areas of the south. As Astarita points out, for sheer lack of available space, the many who were attracted to Naples as an urban center were forced to build vertically, with towering apartments of six or seven floors that would typically not allow sunlight onto the streets below. This continued trend has made Naples today the third largest city in Italy, with a staggering population that would leave an indelible mark on any future development.

Another factor that has contributed to the paradox of Italy's south is its economy, which played a major role in its political unfolding as well. Throughout most of its early history, despite the attraction of Naples as an urban center, the fertile soil throughout the Mezzogiorno would provide the basis for a strong feudal economy in most outlying and remote areas. Political power was therefore always decentralized and exerted by local barons. Even under its 400-year domination by the Spanish, the region was never governed centrally by the viceroy as its own nation, but rather more like a secondary power or colony, and usually from a distance.[11] This allowed for the continuation of local policies, ways, and institutions for centuries. By the time of Italian unification in the late nineteenth century, new policies from Rome and further north seemed foreign to the ways of the south, but would eventually usurp them nonetheless.

Astarita capsulizes this dichotomy of the south best in the following excerpt from *Between Salt Water and Holy Water:*

"At the end of the first millennium…the diversity and prosperity of the Italian South were largely limited to its urban coastal areas. Calabria, Abruzzo, and most inner regions--largely mountainous, difficult to reach, and ungenerous to agricultural efforts--remained poor, rural, and culturally and religiously isolated. The few existing inland towns remained quite different from the dynamic centers on the coasts. They resembled large villages, with little of the commercial vitality, cultural diversity and varied activities and opportunities of the coastal cities, a difference that one can observe to this day

"This strong contrast between the urban and rural worlds is a prominent element of all Italian history since antiquity, and it was especially conspicuous in the early medieval south. Later, the growth of a strong central state and spread of the feudal system further reinforced this contrast and reversed the traditional power relations between the two worlds."

(Between Salt Water and Holy Water, Astarita p. 20)

To conclude, it was this special combination of factors that would essentially seal the fate of Italy's south as a secondary force, and its language to be considered minority among the other mainstream languages of Europe.

The intrinsic value of number of speakers as a criterion for linguistic analysis

Adding to the matter discussed in the previous section whereby Neapolitan is not considered a national European language, another factor that appears to have obscured the relative importance of Neapolitan and that may have also contributed to the inattention paid to it in comparison studies may have been its seemingly reduced importance as suggested by its total number of speakers. Table 2 shows the most recent data (at the time of this writing) as provided by *Ethnologue's* 20th edition (2017), which lists Romance languages according to their reported total numbers of L1 speakers worldwide.

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[10] As Astarita (2006) points out, although the city of Ostia was considered to be the official port of the empire, the Romans utilized several other ports in the south as well, which included the port in Pozzuoli (near Naples) to receive the majority of its grain from Egypt. Ostia would eventually meet its ultimate demise when it would be buried underneath the silt accumulated from the Tiber, which flowed into it.

[11] Spain's four hundred-year presence in Naples had a profound effect upon the Neapolitan lexicon, having contributed an estimated 400 hispanicisms (Thomas, 2006).

TABLE 2.
ROMANCE LANGUAGES IN TERMS OF NUMBER OF L1 SPEAKERS WORLDWIDE

Language	L1 speakers worldwide	(rank)
Spanish/Castilian	436,667,750	1
Portuguese	218,765,470	2
French	76,096,430	3
Italian	63,370,110	4
Romanian	24,150,840	5
Neapolitan	5,700,000	6
Sicilian	4,700,000	7
Catalan	4,105,420	8
Galician	2,340,000	9
Sardinian	1,100,000	10
Friulian	300,000	11
Asturo-Leonese	110,000	12
Occitan	218,310	13
Aragonese	10,000	14

Source: *Ethnologue* (2017)

Like national language status, the reported number of L1 speakers worldwide is another factor that is closely tied to the historical record, as Table 2 suggests. Empire building and emigration have been the primary contribution to the status of Spanish-Castilian, Portuguese, and French as being the three Romance languages with the largest number of L1 speakers, particularly in the cases of Spanish and Portuguese. It is interesting that Neapolitan-Calabrese ranks in 6th place overall, and in second place in terms of languages spoken in the Italian peninsula. However, remember that these are calculations of L1 speakers on a global scale. If we consider these same languages, but on a reduced scale, namely, as they are spoken within their base countries in Europe, according to *Ethnologue* (2017), as an attempt to understand the effects and power of these languages, minus emigration, we find the results in Table 3.

TABLE 3.
ROMANCE LANGUAGES IN TERMS OF NUMBER OF L1 SPEAKERS IN EUROPE

Language	L1 Speakers in base country	(rank)
French	60,000,000	1
Italian	57,700,000	2
Spanish-Castilian	38,400,000	3
Romanian	19,900,000	4
Portuguese	10,000,000	5
Neapolitan	5,700,000	6
Sicilian	4,700,000	7
Catalan	3,750,000	8
Galician	2,340,000	9
Sardinian	1,100,000	10
Friulian	300,000	11
Occitan	110,000	12
Asturo-Leonese	100,000	13
Aragonese	10,000	14

Source: *Ethnologue* (2017)

As compared to Table 2, Table 3 shows an interesting twist in terms of ranking by number of L1 speakers, with French being the most spoken, Italian, in second place, and Spanish placing third. Portuguese, which when considering global speakers places second, now falls into fifth place, just above Neapolitan, which continues in sixth place.

The topic of emigration, as we see in the comparative estimates between Tables 2 and 3, becomes even more important if we consider the other historical reality that obscures the case of Neapolitan in terms of overall number of speakers, and that is, the case of historic mass migration from Italy's south to other places, primarily the Americas, between the years 1880 and 1915, It has been reported that during this period, approximately 15 million Italians left Italy for other places, 4 million of whom would settle in the United States alone. Numbers further show that a full three-fourths of newcomers that came to the United States were from Italy's southern regions.

The linguistic implications for this major historical event are huge when one considers the secondary effect of this particular large wave of emigration from Italy being that of language loss. The overwhelmingly large numbers reported in Table 1 for the number of L1 speakers of Spanish and Portuguese worldwide have very much to do with the fact that these languages crossed the seas at a time when they were intended to impose themselves as a means to expanding

empires, and would henceforth become the primary languages spoken in the conquered territories and contribute to their respective exponential increases in number of speakers.

Much to the contrary, the huddled masses of southern "Italians" most poorly educated, many even illiterate and monolingual in Neapolitan or Sicilian, did not embody the expansionist spirit of the settlers of yore, but rather abandoned their homeland at a later historical period when the imposition of languages such as English in the United States or Canada, or Spanish or Portuguese in Latin America, had already taken place and were firmly established national languages. Italian emigrants of this period left Italy for better lives in places where their language would disappear within three generations. As I point out in Ryan (2017), this is particularly evident in the immigrant newspaper experience in North America whose articles were at first published exclusively in Italian at the beginning of the twentieth century, becoming bilingual Italian/English within twenty-five years after that and by the 1960s, were fully monolingual English.

B. Demonstration from the Neapolitan Lexicon

As a way of demonstrating the need to include Neapolitan in more comparative studies of the Romance languages, the final part of this paper is intended as an initial foray into lexical comparison. As pointed out earlier, Neapolitan has yet to be formally analyzed in terms of studies of lexical similarity as has been done for other Romance languages and reported in *Ethnologue* (2017). Although the analysis here is not intended to be exhaustive, it helps elucidate the potential benefits that a more comprehensive analysis would provide. As such, what I provide here is the examination of a limited number of everyday human items from the Classical Latin lexicon and compare these to cognate items in Neapolitan, Spanish and Italian in order to illustrate what appears to be the more archaic nature of Neapolitan vocabulary, and in some cases, despite its contiguous geographic location with Italian, a closer relationship to Spanish than is found for Italian. This section also explores the idea that by comparing current modern forms of sibling languages some additional insight can also emerge into forms that existed in some version of one or more of those languages in the past, and most particularly in this case, Spanish.

Consider the original Latin words in the first column of Table 4 for some of the more basic human concepts, as well as their ensuing reflexes in the three Romance languages compared.

TABLE 4.
EIGHT LATIN WORDS FOR BASIC HUMAN CONCEPTS AND THEIR REFLEXES IN NEAPOLITAN, SPANISH AND ITALIAN

		LATIN	**Neapolitan**	**Spanish**	**Italian**
nouns	(a)	SORORE 'sister'	*sora*	*hermana*	*sorella*
	(b)	FRATRE 'brother'	*frate*	*hermano*	*fratello*
verbs	(c)	DICERE 'say'	*dicere*	*decir*	*dire*
	(d)	EXITARE 'to awaken'	*ascetà*	*despertar*	*sveglare*
	(e)	IRE 'to go'	*ghì*	*ir*	*andare*
	(f)	EAMUS 'let's go'	*iamma*	*vamos*	*andiamo*
other	(g)	CRAS 'tomorrow'	*craje*	*mañana*	*domani*
	(h)	(DE) IN ANTE 'before'	*'nnante*	*delante*	*davanti*

☐ same lexemes   ☐ new lexemes

Source: Author

If we compare the overall number of original Latin words in Table 4 that have continued into the three daughter languages compared, the first striking observation that one can make is that all eight words in Neapolitan have descended directly from their Latin equivalents (hence, the gray shading of all these words). Moving to the case of Spanish in the next most column we see that only three of the original Latin lexemes have continued into Spanish, and in the last column, Italian has also only retained one of these.[12]

Looking more closely at the examples in Table 4, we also notice that Neapolitan has retained Latin forms across all grammatical categories. In terms of examples (a) and (b), we see that the nouns SORORE 'sister' and FRATRE 'brother', have continued into Neapolitan with the same meanings of their Latin predecessors. Spanish has replaced these with the new words *hermano* and *hermana* which stem from the original paired forms FRATRE GERMANO 'full (as opposed to half) brother' and SORORE GERMANA 'full sister,' and truncated to employ only the second word of

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[12] An important aspect of lexical similarity studies mentioned earlier in this chapter is that they compare cognates not just in form but also in meaning. The results in Table 3 similarly consider words that retain both form AND original meaning. If original forms have drifted in meaning in a particular daughter language and another word has replaced the original form, the evolved form is not considered a true cognate.

the original pairs. As the table also indicates, Italian has diminutivized the original forms into *fratello* and *sorella*.[13] Remarkably, of the three languages compared, Neapolitan is the only language that retains both the original form AND meaning of the CL lexemes.

If we turn to the verbs in examples (c) through (f) of Table 4, we likewise see retention in Neapolitan of original Latin forms with their corresponding meanings, while Spanish has only retained two of these original forms to mean the same thing, and Italian, only one, though it has truncated this one case with the innovation *dire*. In the case of example (d) EXITARE 'to rise, wake up' Neapolitan is the only of the three languages that has retained its original meaning in *ascetà*, although Spanish and Italian possess the later borrowed words *excitar* and *eccitare*, respectively, and in contrast, both mean 'to excite.' In a way that is very similar to the cases of both nouns FRATRE and SORORE, the verb EXITARE appears to have evolved semantically to have a more figurative meaning in both Spanish and Italian than it does in Neapolitan.

The case of (e) IRE 'to go' is an interesting one as we compare it across all three languages. The Latin verb IRE was a lexical item that in some cases underwent different manifestations of suppletion with the verbs VADERE 'to go forth', and AMBULARE 'to walk' in the daughter languages. As Table 4 suggests, the original infinitive was maintained both in Neapolitan as *ghì* and in Spanish as *ir*. However, in Italian the infinitive has been replaced by *andare*. Another particularly interesting fact about this verb in Neapolitan, is that in addition to retaining the original Latin infinitive, some of the conjugated verb forms were retained as well, such as (f) *iamma* 'let's go,' are direct reflexes of the CL verb form, all but lost in other Romance varieties, in this case the first person plural present subjunctive form EAMUS from IRE 'go.'

In the table's "other" category, we have the adverb CRAS 'tomorrow' in (g) which has been maintained in Neapolitan as *craje*, but lost in both Spanish and Italian to *mañana* and *domani*, respectively.

More interesting still is the fact that the previously existing form *cras* has been documented in older forms of Spanish as found in (1)

(1) "*…hoy es dia bueno y mejor sera cras*"
    '…today is (a) good day and better it will be tomorrow'
    Cantar del Mío Cid (c. 1140)

Another category where we see some evidence that Neapolitan has a potentially closer relationship with Spanish than Italian is in that of newer prepositions that have been constructed from the combination of earlier prepositional sequences. These have since been replaced in Italian by other formations. Consider the case of (h) (DE) IN ANTE, which has continued both into Neapolitan as *'nnante* 'before,' and into Spanish as *delante*, created by regressive dissimilation of the first -N- into a liquid.[14]

Similar to the older evidence for CRAS above, an attested previously existing form of Spanish in *denante* has likewise been documented in earlier documents, such as (2).

(2) "*...cum sua ecclesia et suo molino, qui est ibi denante*"
    '...with his church and his mill, which is there in front'
    Pedro I al obispo de Huesca., *Documentos notariales* (c. 1098) (Seco, 2003)

It is interesting that this DE IN ANTE pattern that is found in both Spanish and Neapolitan, is not found in Italian (or French) which instead relied on the entirely different combination of DE AB ANTE ultimately yielding *davanti*. The parallel of this combination, DE EX POST, also occurs in Spanish *después* 'after.'

In summary, though not intended to be comprehensive, the examples of common words in Table 4 suggest three areas where Neapolitan stands out as compared to its Romance peers in terms of the lexicon, namely, 1) modern Neapolitan appears to preserve several of the original forms and meanings of original Latin words for basic everyday concepts; 2) although Spanish and Italian have replaced some original Latin lexemes with innovations, in some cases the original Latin forms still exist but their meanings have drifted over time; and 3) although some words have been replaced entirely and no longer exist in modern Spanish and Italian they have been documented as having existed at one time.

Moreover, the analysis presented here gives further credence to the importance of including Neapolitan with those other previously mentioned Romance languages that have been the subject of former lexical similarity studies. Such a study would perhaps provide additional details beyond those presented here, such as the case of Spanish *delante* and Neapolitan *'nnante*, where lexical convergence helps document common paths of evolution. The archaic nature of the Neapolitan lexicon, whether these be classical or later Latin forms, also implies the merits of future analysis of other linguistic structures at the phonological, morphological, and syntactic level.

IV. CONCLUSION

I would argue that, because of the observations made in this preliminary comparative lexical study, and despite its distance from the Iberian Peninsula, Neapolitan might serve as an interesting test case for the notion of an early Pan

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[13] It is important to clarify here that although both Spanish and Italian have also retained reflexes of the original forms SORORE and FRATRE in the words *sor/suora* and *fraile/frate*, respectively, these are reserved strictly for use by the religious professions, much like we use the English terms "sister" for nuns and "brother" for some male clerics.
[14] This regressive dissimilation occurred in Spanish in other words such as VENENU(M) 'poison' which rendered *veleno*.

Romance, a theory proposed by Wright (2002) that the language spoken across the expanse of the Roman empire throughout the first and into the second millennia CE was a complex ensemble[15] consisting of several different social registers, one of which was standard written Latin, intelligible even to the uneducated when read aloud logographically until the 10th through 13th centuries CE, as well as a less formal one, both of which originally included a wide repertoire of possible ways of expressing the same idea, but would ultimately settle on a particular one or few in that particular region.

The notion of an early Pan Romance challenges the alternate, traditional stance that: 1) isolation and regional differences among the imperial colonies would have had an **immediate** effect on both manner and timing of how Latin in different regions would further partition, and 2) further differentiation between regions would have happened more or less immediately, and continued to produce the geographically-based Romance language varieties we have today.

Instead, according to Wright, the Pan Romance approach proposes that early Romance was actually quite uniform in the sense that all Roman colonies drew upon the same repertoire of possibilities of expression, and would only eventually adopt the variation specific to that locality. To illustrate this very notion, one such example of the wide variety of options available to speakers is that of Romance plurals, which would ultimately differ in two possible ways across the empire, either of which depending upon the particular tolerance for final consonants. Depending on the declension to which a particular noun or adjective belonged, as well as the case form it embodied for a particular function in the sentence, the pluralization of nouns in Classical Latin could occur in three possible ways, namely, via the final vowels -A or -I, the diphthong -AE, or word-final -S. It has been suggested that over time the overall degradation of the CL case system contributed to the adoption across the empire of what appears to have been the accusative form as the single case form that would be used thereafter for all functions within the sentence, with some limited variation. Relevant to the discussion here is the fact that the ending of the plural accusative was almost always with final -S, except in the case of neuters, which was final -A. Because the type of Romance that was developing in the Italian Peninsula exhibited a strong intolerance for word final consonants, including -S, Italian and other Italic varieties would retain the final -S for the plural accusative, but, as has been proposed by Rohlfs (1966) and others, would eventually vocalize this -S, which would then cause further phonological change to the forms we have today, all of which are final vowels. In contrast, Ibero and Gallo Romance exhibited greater tolerance for final consonants and therefore retained the final -S for plurals, and would even extend this form for words that formerly ended in -A as well. In either case, the point is that both forms were available in Classical Latin, but only one of the two would be adopted system-wide by and for particular languages.

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Validity of Note-taking for New Consecutive Interpreting Learners: An Empirical Study of University Interpretation Courses

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Abstract—There is a large body of literature on the subject of note-taking in the field of consecutive interpreting (CI). However, there is a lack of consensus regarding the validity of note-taking during short CI. For one thing, note-taking can divert an interpreter's attention from listening, often to the detriment of analysis. This research empirically studied the effects of intensive interpreting treatment administered to Japanese university students. It then investigated the validity of note-taking for new learners by examining their CI with or without note status, according to language direction from L2 (English) to L1 (Japanese), and vice versa. The results showed a salient link between the treatment's efficacy and the frequency of its administration but did not validate note-taking's usefulness in CI for student interpreters. To further ascertain the validity of notation, CI was also analyzed according to sequentially presented paragraphs.

Index Terms—consecutive interpreting, note-taking, validity, frequency, duration

I. INTRODUCTION

Consecutive interpreting (CI) is defined as the process of interpretation after a speaker or signer has relayed one or more ideas in the source language and pauses while the interpreter transmits the information (Russell 2005). When interpreting lengthy passages or entire speeches (long consecutive), interpreters use systematic note-taking. For short passages, ranging from one word to a few sentences, or for a bidirectional mode in a dialogue interpreting constellation (short consecutive), CI can be performed with or without notes, as arbitrarily decided by an individual interpreter (Pöchhacker 2016; Russell & Takeda 2015).

Notes are generally acknowledged as a priority, capable of facilitating the smooth delivery of teacher and student interpretation alike in professional and academic arenas. Note-taking is considered a memory-supporting technique that involves the reception and production of a notation text; such cognitive text processing builds coherence and constructs a mental representation (Albl-Mikasa 2008). A sound note-taking system helps an interpreter analyze the source speech, and strong analysis utilizing notes promotes effective short-term memory operations (Gillies 2017). A large body of literature has explicated and demonstrated this hallmark feature of note-taking (Albl-Mikasa 2006; Dam 2004; Gile 2001; Rozan 1956). Professional interpreters have developed their own note-taking techniques for CI when they are required to render an entire speech. Understandably, when interpreters teach CI in schools, they provide training sessions on note-taking based on their real-life experiences.

Meanwhile, some literature on CI teaching has countered the well-established beliefs about the importance of note-taking. Such studies have examined the effects of note-taking exercises, especially in the first phase of CI, warning of the dangers of excessive notation (Mead 2002, 2011; Seleskovitch 2002; Thiéry 1981). Gile (2009) suggested that note-taking takes away some of the processing capacity available for listening. In fact, especially for undergraduate-level interpreting, recovering meaning from a highly fragmented notation text in CI is a challenging task that may be detrimental to listening and analysis.

Furthermore, regarding interpreting delivery, when student interpreters take copious notes, their performance often becomes more of a reading and deciphering process than one of speaking (Schweda-Nicholson 1985). Nonetheless, new learners inherit note-taking techniques from their mentors to afford greater security in memory. Sometimes, untrained instructors train students in note-taking to such an extent that it comes to resemble exercises in dictation or shorthand. However, not knowing effective notation methods may have a detrimental effect on students' CI performance, which in turn may discourage them from developing further training or becoming professional interpreters.

In this context, this study empirically examined the effects of English/Japanese CI activities on university students' listening comprehension and interpreting ability. Then, the study explored how note-taking may or may not make cognitive text processing more efficient for student interpreters in the reformulation phase. First, the study examined the efficacy of CI treatment using various approaches in two introductory interpreting classes at a Japanese university during the 2017 fall semester. Comparative analysis was conducted to explicate the effects of treatments employed with differing frequencies and durations per lesson during the administration period according to language direction—namely, interpreting from L2 to L1 and from L1 to L2. The main question concerned how best to deploy CI activities during a semester to maximize the efficacy of university training sessions. Next, the validity of CI note-taking

was addressed. Specifically, the secondary aim of this study was to realistically assess the effectiveness of note-taking. Students' interpreting abilities were tested as they listened to identical source texts on two different task statuses—namely, consulting notes and not consulting notes. Students' bidirectional CI skills were then assessed to investigate the effect of notation on their processing capacity according to language direction.

It is generally recognized that interpreter training should be introduced in the consecutive mode, initially based on memory, before gradually incorporating note-taking (Pöchhacker 2016). However, when and how note-taking training should proceed remains open to discussion. The critical nature of note-taking is always the focus of classroom experiments (Gile 1991) and note-taking is a primary topic in CI teaching and research (Russell & Takeda 2015). Nevertheless, few studies have empirically analyzed the legitimacy and justification of notation exercises administered to student interpreters. This provided a point of departure for the present study. This study aimed to shed light on the act of note-taking, which involves highly intricate cognitive processing and thus entails a great risk of interpreting error.

II. BACKGROUND

In recent decades, university student interest in interpreter training has remained high; however, Japanese universities tend to focus on enhancing students' language abilities as opposed to developing and fostering interpreters (Komatsu 2017). The main reason for this is insufficient L2 proficiency (usually in English) at the undergraduate level (Komatsu 2017). According to a multiple-choice survey conducted by the Japan International Cooperation Center (JAIS) in 2007 concerning the objectives of interpreter training programs in Japanese universities, 80% of respondents (total: 377) chose "to enhance English proficiency" as the objective while only 45% of students chose "to study interpreting." In recent years, this trend toward prioritizing language learning has been reinforced (Komatsu 2017). Komatsu (2012) suggested that interpreter training methods could help improve learners' language proficiency if university programs were to adopt interpreter training methods. However, few studies have empirically analyzed the effects of Japanese university interpreter training programs on students' language proficiencies and CI skills as they develop throughout a course. The present study, therefore, first examined the efficacy of interpreter training to gauge whether it enhanced students' language proficiency (namely, in listening comprehension and interpreting abilities). In particular, it analyzed the effects of CI treatment based on the frequency and duration of administration; one treatment was condensed while the other was scattered over the semester.

More importantly, this study investigated the validity of note-taking during CI. Interpreters generally rely on a combination of notes, memory, and general knowledge to recreate original speech. Notes represent the skeleton structure of the original speech or a group of ideas in a particular order as opposed to an arbitrary muddle of unrelated ideas (Gillies 2017). In this sense, interpreters' notes are a visual representation of their source speech analysis (Gillies 2017). To date, professional interpreters and scholars—including Seleskovitch (1984, 1988, 2002), Thiéry (1981), Gran and Dodds (1989), Matyssek (1989), Dam (2004), Gillies (2001, 2017), and others—have pursued systematic methods of note-taking that support memory and source language speech retrieval to facilitate an accurate rendition in the target language. On the subject of note-taking, Rozan's (1956) system is considered "classic," having influenced and been incorporated into all methods of note-taking.

Many scholars, however, warn of the pitfalls of focusing too much on note-taking. Gile (2009) noted that manual note-taking requires more time than speech production; hand movements are slow and thus produce a lag, which puts more pressure on the short-term memory and reduces the capacity for listening and analysis. Thiéry (1981) argued that notes should be taken as few as possible and should only provide a platform or safety net for confident delivery. Albl-Mikasa (2017) cautioned that interpreters have sought to find means of focusing on source messages through the "language-independent nature of notation," regardless of the working language involved. In response to such negative views of notation, a large body of research has aimed to demonstrate the importance of capturing the sense or ideas of source-language (SL) messages while taking notes, exploring how notes should be taken without resorting to verbatim interpreting.

The degree to which an interpreter resorts to note-taking depends on several factors, including the length of the speaker's utterance and the interpreter's physical constraints and memory (Russell & Takeda 2015). However, we can assume that if the effort invested in note-taking is reduced as much as possible—since taking notes can divert attention from listening (e.g., Gile 2009; Thiéry 1981)—an interpreter is likely to perform better CI. If the effort required for note-taking were reduced to zero, how would it affect an interpreter, especially one who is a student who has difficulty using note-taking as a tool for CI? This question provided the motivation for the present empirical study. Thus, the research questions were formulated as presented in the next section.

III. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

1) Would intensive CI training have varied effects on university students' CI abilities and overall listening comprehension abilities if administered to two groups of university students over the same time span with differing frequencies and durations per lesson?

2) Could note-taking possibly render text processing more efficient for new CI learners?

IV. Method

A. Research Participants

This research was conducted in the fall semester of 2017 at a Japanese university where the researcher teaches. The participants were divided into two groups. Class 1 attended two English/Japanese interpreting lessons for one and a half hours per week for a total of 30 lessons in the semester. Class 2 students had 15 three-hour lessons held once a week over the course of the same semester. Each class covered equivalent amounts of time as the treatments were administered. There were 18 students in class 1 and 17 in class 2. All were third- and fourth-year English majors enrolled in an introductory English-to-Japanese interpreting course. None of the students had received prior interpreter training.

B. Procedures

All lessons were taught in the CALL (computer-assisted language learning) room, and the interpreting activities were taken from interpreting studies textbooks for beginners. The same procedures and materials were used for classes 1 and 2. The researcher's instructions on how to take notes followed the principles described in Gillies (2017):

1) Learning to break down speech into ideas
2) Noting the subject, verb, and object across the page diagonally to understand the structure clearly at a glance
3) Introducing links that reveal how two ideas fit together
4) Identifying verticality and hierarchies of value
5) Using symbols
6) Noting less to leave room for ideas to stand out on the page

Training was conducted in CI from L2 to L1 (English to Japanese) and from L1 to L2 (Japanese to English). CI training activities where students were either allowed or not allowed to take notes involved the same procedures, applied in the following order:

1) Listening

Students listened to the SL text once with the textbook closed to learn the text's outline.

2) Shadowing, repeating, retention, and sight translation

Students performed the abovementioned interpretation-related tasks selected according to the intelligibility of the source text to prepare for CI.

3) Oral representation as rehearsal and monitoring

Students were asked to listen to up to four SL sentences at a time with the textbook closed. They were then instructed to interpret the sentences together verbally in the target language (TL) using microphones attached to their headsets. Each student's performance was monitored by the researcher, and instructions were given to certain students when necessary. Such interactions could only be heard by the student and the researcher.

4) Oral representation on a real stage

A student was then selected to perform a complete consecutive TL interpreting of the message he or she had listened to in step three. This performance was heard not only by the researcher but also by the other students.

5) Recording individual students' performance

To identify specific causes of interpreting problems, students were asked to record their CI performances on their computers and listen to them carefully with the source text open to develop strategies for solving specific processing problems. Recordings of their performances were repeated several times to improve their performance quality.

C. Data Collection

Data were collected on two occasions: the midterm examinations after 15th and 7th lessons for classes 1 and 2, respectively, and the final examinations after the 30th and 15th lessons for classes 1 and 2, respectively. Verbal interpreting performances were recorded on each student's computer before they were all copied to a USB flash drive and assessed by the researcher. The study design was approved by the university review board. The researcher obtained written consent from the students to use the test results as data.

D. Materials

The test items comprised material that the students had never attempted before. Excerpts from the final exam items are provided below. The English SL text comprised a total of 237 words, and the Japanese SL text had 502 letters. Each text was organized into six paragraphs; the students heard each paragraph and interpreted it into the TL soon after.

English text test example:

Paragraph One

On April 26, 2011, Donald Keene, an 88-year-old renowned expert in Japanese literature and culture, gave his last lecture at Columbia University in which he announced that he would be leaving the United States in order to spend the rest of his life in Japan (Tomono, Miyamoto & Minamitsu 2012).

An example of the test items in the Japanese text:

Paragraph 6

しかし私たちは楽しく心躍る想い出を胸に持ってお別れします。　そしてこの別れは一時的なものである

ことを承知しています。またすぐ帰ってくることができます。そちらからも、いつでも私たちのところに来ることができます。(But we say sayonara with happy and exciting memories. And we know that this parting is only temporary. We can come back soon, and you can visit us anytime.) (Mukai, Maruyama & Matsuoka 2004)

E. Measurement

First, pre- and posttests were conducted to examine students' development of overall listening comprehension abilities. The pretests were implemented during the first lesson of the semester, and posttests were carried out in the respective final lessons of classes 1 and 2. The test was a simplified version of the TOEIC: 100 standard TOEIC listening questions were reduced to 50. The marks obtained on the TOEIC test were analyzed using F and T tests. To measure the CI treatment's direct effect on CI technique, the researcher first compared CI marks for L2 to L1 between the two classes on the midterm examinations. A final examination was implemented after the completion of all lessons, and the total marks obtained in CI from L2 (English) to L1 (Japanese) and L1 (Japanese) to L2 (English) were analyzed, and classes 1 and 2 were compared. The second research question regarding note-taking's validity in CI was then investigated. The final examination results were analyzed according to two different variables—namely, with and without notes, in classes 1 and 2, respectively. Finally, to further ascertain the legitimacy of note-taking for new learners, a more minute analysis was employed in which the circumstantial validity of notation was examined by analyzing CI according to sequentially presented paragraphs. Each paragraph was numbered from one to six in the order students listened to them in the respective cases of L2 to L1 and L1 to L2 interpreting. Students listened to identical test items in two separate trials. In the first trial, the first half did not take notes while the latter half did, and vice versa in the second trial. For more precise explication, the procedures are presented in Table 1.

TABLE 1
TEST PROCEDURES TAKEN BY L2 TO L1, AND L1 TO L2 CI, RESPECTIVELY, IN THE FINAL EXAMINATION.

	Paragraph 1	Paragraph 2	Paragraph 3	Paragraph 4	Paragraph 5	Paragraph 6
First trial	Without notes	Without notes	Without notes	With notes	With notes	With notes
Second trial	With notes	With notes	With notes	Without notes	Without notes	Without notes

Note: full marks equal 10 points per paragraph for each trial.

Further, to reduce the practice effect, the final examination included test items between the first and second trials that were irrelevant to the present research. This addressed the issue of first-trial performances influencing the second trial. The CI recording lasted a total of 70 minutes, including 40 minutes used specifically for the present research and 30 minutes for test items irrelevant to this research.

Concerning point allocation, full marks equaled 10 points per paragraph; that is, regarding CI without notes, 30 points from paragraphs one to three from the first trial were added to 30 points from paragraphs four to six in the second trial, totaling 60 points for the six paragraphs. Similarly, with respect to CI with notes, 30 points from paragraphs four to six in the first trial were added to 30 points from paragraphs one to three in the second trial, totaling 60 points for the six paragraphs. The same allocation was adopted for CIs from L1 to L2 and from L2 to L1, both of which were rated for classes 1 and 2, respectively, and then compared.

Regarding the assessment criteria, CI performances in two directions—from L2 to L1 and L1 to L2—were analyzed using Viaggio's (1995) criteria:
1) Comprehension: Has the student understood everything correctly?
2) Reexpression: Did the student make syntactic or lexical mistakes?
3) Style: Could it have been expressed better?

More specifically, according to each phrase or semantic chunk, recorded performances were assessed in detail based on a scoring rubric devised by the researcher (Yamada 2015). In the scoring rubric, specific points were allocated according to the difficulty level of translating each semantic chunk or phrase. To ascertain a specific word's difficulty level, a "word frequency list" from an academic area was used (http://www.wordandphrase.info/frequencyList.asp). The total marks were calculated and analyzed using T and F tests.

V. RESULTS

A. Quantitative Analysis

TABLE 2
MARKS OBTAINED IN A SIMPLIFIED VERSION OF THE TOEIC LISTENING TEST CONDUCTED AT THE SEMESTER'S BEGINNING AND END.

Pretest				
	N	Mean	SD	*t*
TOEIC Class 1	18	38.78	6.26	-1.13
TOEIC Class 2	17	36.59	5.1	-1.13
Posttest				
	N	Mean	SD	*t*
TOEIC Class 1	18	40.39	5.23	-2.30
TOEIC Class 2	17	35.94	6.18	-2.30

Note: *$p < .05$; full marks equal 50 points.

As shown in Table 2, when class 1's and 2's English listening comprehension marks were compared at the beginning of the semester, the difference between them was insignificant ($p = .27$), which shows that the students' listening comprehension abilities were almost the same prior to CI treatment. However, marks obtained at the end of the semester yielded statistical differences between the classes ($p < .05$). Class 1 scored significantly higher than class 2. This suggests that treatment of CI, when administered with more frequency but less duration per lesson, may work more effectively on listening comprehension development than more condensed, less frequent treatments.

Next, the effects of treatment on CI skills were investigated, and the results of the midterm examination are shown in Table 3.

TABLE 3
MARKS OBTAINED IN CI FROM L2 TO L1 IN CLASS 1 AND 2 IN THE MIDTERM EXAMINATIONS.

	N	Mean	SD	t
CI Class 1	18	18.72	8.06	-1.38
CI Class 2	17	15.24	6.72	-1.38

Note: full marks equal 30 points.

As Table 3 shows, class 1 slightly outperformed class 2 in midsemester CI performance. However, the difference between classes was not statistically significant.

In the next phase, final examination results of classes 1 and 2 were compared. The results are shown in Table 4.

TABLE 4
TOTAL CI MARKS FROM L2 TO L1, AND L1 TO L2 COMBINED IN CLASS 1 AND 2 IN THE FINAL EXAMINATIONS.

	N	Mean	SD	t
CI Class 1	18	146.5	41.57	-2.45
CI Class 2	17	109.70	47.28	-2.45

Note: *$p < .05$; full marks equal 240 points.

As Table 4 shows, class 1 outperformed class 2, and the differences between the two classes' bidirectional CI (combined scores from L2 to L1 and L1 to L2) were significant ($p = .02$, *$p < .05$). As mentioned earlier, the midterm examinations did not show statistically significant differences between the classes whereas the final examinations did. This suggests that CI treatment worked on class 1 students' performance more effectively over time. Turning to standard deviation, class 2's value is higher than that of class 1, revealing that individual students' CI performance accuracy was less standardized in class 2. The measurement models indicated that class 2 students' CI performances varied more in quality and were generally lower than class 1 students.

Next, marks obtained with and without notes are compared and shown in Table 5.

TABLE 5
COMPARISON OF CI MARKS OBTAINED WITH AND WITHOUT NOTES IN COMBINED FIRST AND SECOND TRIALS.

CI from L2 to L1					
		Availability of notes	N	Mean	t
Class 1. to J	CI from E	Without notes	18	4.47	0.60
		With notes	18	4.3	
Class 2. to J	CI from E	Without notes	17	3.02	-0.88
		With notes	17	3.29	
CI from L1 to L2					
		Availability of notes	N	Mean	t
Class 1. E	CI from J to	Without notes	18	7.53	-1.36
		With notes	18	7.72	
Class 2. E	CI from J to	Without notes	17	5.80	-1.66
		With notes	17	6.16	

Notes: full marks equal 10 per paragraph. CI from E to J: consecutive English to Japanese interpreting.
CI from J to E: consecutive Japanese to English interpreting.

When analyzing this data with T and F tests, from L2 to L1, no statistical differences between CI with and without notes were observed for class 1 or class 2 ($p = .55$ for class 1, $p = .38$ for class 2). Similarly, in L1 to L2, no significant differences between CI with and without notes were found in class 1 or class 2 ($p = .18$ for class 1, $p = .10$ for class 2). In summary, the results suggest that the availability of notes does not have a serious effect on students' bidirectional CI performance.

Next, paragraph-by-paragraph scrutiny was conducted according to sequentially presented paragraphs for class 1, who performed better than class 2, to further investigate the effects of note-taking. The final examination results of CI are shown in Table 6.

TABLE 6
CI PERFORMANCE ACCORDING TO SEQUENTIALLY PRESENTED PARAGRAPHS WITH AND WITHOUT NOTE-TAKING
IN THE COMBINED FIRST AND SECOND TRIALS OF CLASS 1.

From English (L2) to Japanese (L1) CI					
Paragraph number	Availability of notes	N	Mean	SD	t
1	Without	18	3.72	3.14	-2.12
	With	18	4.44	2.91	
2	Without	18	3.78	2.92	-2.67
	With	18	4.94	2.88	
3	Without	18	4.5	3.03	-2.06
	With	18	5.5	3.22	
4	Without	18	2.89	2.87	-0.45
	With	18	2.72	2.61	
5	Without	18	7.94	2.15	-4.68
	With	18	5.72	2.22	
6	Without	18	4	2.81	-2.77
	With	18	2.44	2.50	

Note: paragraph 1: $*p < .05$; paragraph 2: $*p < .05$; paragraph 5: $***p < .001$;
paragraph 6: $*p < .05$. Full marks equal 10 points per paragraph.

From Japanese (L1) to English (L2) CI					
Paragraph number	Availability of notes	N	Mean	SD	t
1	Without	18	6.56	2.28	-4.27
	With	18	8.39	1.54	
2	Without	18	8.61	1.29	-2.61
	With	18	9.39	1.97	
3	Without	18	6.72	2.22	-3.82
	With	18	7.89	1.97	
4	Without	18	7	1.97	0.33
	With	18	7.11	1.91	
5	Without	18	8.5	1.97	-0.42
	With	18	8.33	1.78	
6	Without	18	7.78	1.86	-0.5
	With	18	7.61	1.72	

Note: paragraph 1: $***p < .00$; paragraph 2: $*p < .05$; paragraph 3: $**p < .01$.
Full marks equal 10 points per paragraph.

As shown here, the CI results from L2 to L1 and L1 to L2 are mixed. In the first two paragraphs from L2 to L1, the mean CI values were higher when notes were taken than when notes were not taken. This shows a statistical difference between the two statuses (paragraph 1: $*p < .05$, paragraph 2: $*p < .05$). Meanwhile, regarding paragraphs five and six, CI without note consultation outperformed with-note consultation; here, they yielded a significant difference (paragraph 5: $***p < .001$, paragraph 6: $*p < .05$). However, in the middle of the speech—namely, between the third and fourth paragraphs—no statistical difference was found between the two conditions. This finding suggests that CI performance from L2 to L1 is better with notes in the earlier stages of interpreting performance; however, as CI progresses, interpreting without note consultation outperforms CI with note consultation.

Interestingly, L1 to L2 CI yielded different results than L2 to L1. For the first three paragraphs, mean CI values were higher when notes were taken than when notes were not taken. Here, a significant statistical difference is shown (paragraph 1: $***p < .001$, paragraph 2: $*p < .05$, paragraph 3: $**p < .01$). However, the last three paragraphs show no significant difference between the with-note and without-note statuses. This indicates that CI from L1 to L2 is better with taking notes than without taking notes in the earlier stage of the SL speech. However, as CI gets underway in the later stage of the speech, the availability of notes is no longer a critical issue for student interpreters.

B.   Qualitative Analysis

1. Processing problems and strategies

Students adopted several basic strategies to reach an editorially acceptable translation. Student processing problems were classified into the following six categories using Ivanova's (1999) criteria: 1) syntactic processing, 2) text integration, 3) text retrieval, 4) equivalence, 5) lexical access, and 6) TL delays. They were analyzed by presenting examples of student strategies

Regarding CI from L2 to L1, the most frequent problems were associated with syntactic processing and text integration. Some students failed to recognize syntax, which was induced by an inability to identify verbs; thus, they were unable to construct coherent representations for an SL chunk. Notwithstanding the researcher's instruction to take notes on subject, verb, and object units across the page diagonally (see 4.2.), students were unable to separate words into units upon hearing them successively. Failure to identify which semantic chunk should be included in a subject or predicate clause may stem from students' fundamental syntactic processing inabilities. Since verbs are fundamental to understanding speech, verb identification is critical for processing syntax and properly integrating it into TL texts. Nonetheless, S+V+O analysis failure was often observed among students when they encountered difficult syntactic structures.

Numerical items embedded in sentences may also be responsible for students' translation departures. Since the beginning of the sentence included three numbers—namely, "April 26," "2011," and "88-year-old"—it was extremely difficult for students to accurately interpret numerical information by listening only once. It could be that students were distracted by these numbers to such a degree that they were unable to focus on verb identification. This would be consistent with Gile's (2009) claim that writing down numbers and names costs time since writing is slow. As such, note-taking increases the risk of losing other information that comes before and after information that is written down. Regarding numbers, the researcher intentionally selected an SL text in which several numerical items were embedded to assess the students' ability to respond to numbers quickly and speak them accurately in the TL. Again, different task statuses were implemented involving consulting and not consulting notes. The findings showed that upon hearing SL texts, students were equally unable to jot down correct numbers on the spot and translate them into the TL, regardless of whether they were allowed to take notes. In other words, students could not interpret numbers regardless of note-taking status.

Further, capturing verb tense and modal verbs was a problem for most students, whose confusion regarding tense induced a failure to construct an accurate chronological order of events. Throughout the six paragraphs, frequent disruptions in delivery were prompted by an inability to identify verb tense, resulting in students' failure to coherently integrate the texts. Even then, some students adopted strategies to employ creative translations to compensate for their ineptitude. These students tried to integrate disrupted interpretations into the text by guessing tenses based on context.

Regarding text retrieval, here is an excerpt from paragraph three: "On June 13, / Keene gave / what he called / 'the last lecture in New York' / at the Japan Society / where he again announced / that he would be leaving the US for Japan / in order to become a Japanese citizen." Since the sentence has several semantic chunks, many students failed to retrieve all pieces of information, syntactically understand them, and determine a plausible TL text. As Dillinger (1994) noted regarding the effect of textual structure on an interpreter's comprehension, propositional density in syntactic environments, such as clause density and clause embedding, negatively affects interpretation accuracy. Students had difficulty understanding complex clause structures and processing syntax upon a single hearing. Students' failure to recognize relative importance to honor the hierarchy of main ideas (Jones 1998) may be also responsible for translation disruption.

Regarding equivalence, some students failed to produce an automatic equivalent since it was difficult to select the appropriate one when given several choices. Here is a section of paragraph two, for example: "This announcement came as a surprise since many foreigners were actually leaving Japan, especially after the 3/11 earthquake and tsunami and subsequent radiation from the damaged nuclear reactor." Students clearly understood the meaning of the underlined phrase because it was familiar to them as Japanese people. Nonetheless, most students were unable to find an automatic equivalent and produce a proper Japanese translation for this phrase. In this case, some students may have employed a strategy of compromise—namely, lowering the acceptability standards for TL production (Ivanova 1999) and creating an editorially acceptable phrase based on their previous knowledge.

Regarding lexical access, most students wrote down proper nouns, though some wrote down unknown words and later stumbled over them. Examples of such words and phrases included "Japan society," "Nazi troop," "Japanologist," and "The Tale of Genji." Upon translating these words, students sometimes paused or stopped speaking, resulting in TL delays. During such delays, students inferred words' meanings from the context and, in some cases, invented translations for them. When students recognized TL delays, they employed strategies such as omission, overgeneralization, or excessive paraphrasing by selecting more abstract and less specific representations to compensate for the delay.

Thus far, processing problems and strategies occurring in CI from L2 to L1 have been discussed. When investigating L1 to L2 interpreting, it was found that students performed better by naturally adopting strategies. Students were likely to reformulate syntactically difficult SL Japanese sentences into easy TL English instead of employing literal translations. Mead (2002) suggested that formulation (the effort exerted to formulate sentences) is the main cause of student hesitation. However, there was no hesitation among students as they reformulated complex L1 sentences into simple L2 sentences. For example, when encountering syntactically difficult structures such as "さて一つ皆さんが変えたらいいな、と思うことがあります" ("Well, there is one thing you could change"), they may have employed the strategy of compromise by just saying, "You should change something." It was inferred that this conversion would be possible because the SL was their first language; therefore, they may have processed the syntactically difficult SL phrase into simple TL syntax instantaneously on the cognitive level.

VI. DISCUSSION

A. Testing Research Question One

For the present research, CI training was administered to two classes using a different approach for each. Treatments were applied to class 1 with more frequency but less duration per lesson while more concentrated but less frequent activities were employed in class 2; both covered equivalent spans of administration time. The semester-long period was initially assumed not to be sufficient for identifying appreciable differences in the listening comprehension and interpreting abilities of students in the two classes. Nonetheless, the TOEIC posttest results showed statistical

differences between the classes: class 1 scored significantly higher than class 2, even though the pretest showed no statistical difference between them. Similarly, regarding CI in the final examination, class 1 obtained significantly higher marks than class 2, whereas the midterm examinations did not yield statistical differences between them. These findings suggest that CI lessons employed in university curricula may enhance students' listening comprehension and interpreting abilities if they are repeated frequently and regularly throughout the semester, notwithstanding relatively shorter durations per lesson. Meanwhile, condensed, less frequent lessons deployed over a semester may not be an effective methodology for introductory university CI programs.

CI is a multitasking action. Dam (1993) divided CI into two phases: reception (where the interpreter listens to original speech) and production (where the interpreter delivers the speech in another language). Jones (1998), meanwhile, divided CI into four phases: listening, understanding, analyzing, and reexpressing. The findings of the present study indicated that CI activities are likely to work gradually over time, increasing students' multitasking capacities only if the treatments are administered frequently. Viewed from a different angle, working memory capacity may be a useful tool for explaining the importance of a treatment's frequency. Working memory (WM) is mechanism or process in the service of complex cognition that is involved in the control, regulation, and active maintenance of task-relevant information (Baddeley 1986; Ericsson 2000; Ito 2017; Miyake 1999). As WM load progressively increases, WM capacity extension follows; hence, deliberate practice in CI allows frequent tasks to be automated, and more WM resources are liberated to better cope with controlled tasks (Ito 2017). We can infer that frequent training provided over the course of a semester may have facilitated gradual increases in students' WM capacities, which led to enhanced overall processing capacities. As a result, the class with more frequent training outperformed the other class.

B.   Testing Research Question Two

This study's second research question was, "Could note-taking possibly render text processing more efficient for new CI learners?" This question has some implications—namely, that there would be no pronounced CI difference between those consulting notes and those not consulting notes. Another possibility is that notes taken during CI would not facilitate cognitive text processing but hinder it. Based on this hypothesis, this study empirically analyzed the legitimacy and justification of note-taking for new CI learners.

No significant difference was found in CI performances with and without notes among student interpreters regardless of language directionality. This may substantiate the findings of Gile (2009), who conducted a similar experimental study, providing CI exercises to two student groups; one group was instructed to take notes while the other was told not to. Students were then asked to indicate whether they heard a name included in the short presentation properly. After replication, it turned out that students who did not take notes "heard" the names better than those who did. Gile explained that note-taking may have taken away some of the processing capacity initially available for listening. Thus, a relevant conclusion might propose that note-taking does not have salient attributes directly facilitating text production in short consecutive interpreting.

To further examine whether note-taking is useful or harmful to new CI learners, paragraph-by-paragraph scrutiny was undertaken to examine how notation effects vary during CI performance based on chronological data. The findings revealed that CI from L2 to L1 was better performed by those who consulted notes than those who did not in the early stages of SL speech, yielding a statistically significant difference between statuses. However, as speech progressed, performance without notes outperformed performance with notes, also showing significant differences between the two. It is inferred that CI required less processing effort as paragraph test items proceeded and students used consistent effort for task completion repeatedly, which left time and capacity exclusively for listening to and understanding the SL message. For the last two paragraphs, processing capacities were more augmented when notes were not available than when they were, since notation requires multitasking.

Regarding the interpreter's increased processing capacity as SL speech progressed, Seleskovitch (2002) explained that during a conference, interpreters often initially note technical terms in the original language. As speech progresses, however, subconscious efforts elicit corresponding words in other languages, and their correct translation becomes a reflex, resulting in noting down technical terms directly in the TL. Note that it is generally acknowledged that taking notes in TL implies that the interpreter can genuinely process incoming information while listening (Rozan 1956; Seleskovitch 2002; Jones 1998).

Interestingly, the findings for L1 to L2 CI differed from those for L2 to L1. For the first three paragraphs, the marks were higher for CI with notes than CI without notes, showing statistical differences between the statuses. However, the final three paragraphs showed no statistical differences between statuses. This indicates that CI with note-taking was better displayed than CI without notes in the first half of the SL speech, whereas when CI began in the speech's latter half, performance did not differ, regardless of the availability of notes. Note-taking is no longer a critical issue for student interpreters. In contrast to the detrimental effects of note-taking in L2 to L1 interpreting, note-taking did not adversely affect its L1 to L2 counterpart. Earlier studies noted that lexical–conceptual links are stronger for L1 words than L2 words, which results in easier mapping between the form and meaning of L1 words than L2 words (Dong, Gui & MacWhinney 2005; Dong & Lin 2013; Kroll & Stewart 1994). In the case of L1 to L2 interpreting, the phase of reformulation activated by form (word by word) may be more easily modulated to meaning than in L2 to L1 (Yamada 2018). It is likely that this feature served to more easily convert the students' verbatim notes into meaning, which resulted in complementing note-taking's negative factors.

Gile (2009) noted that when processing capacity requirements for listening and analysis efforts are raised, some resources can be freed up by reducing the quantity of notes taken, whereas reducing the amount of information taken in notes does not necessarily lead to an increase in information stored in the short-term memory and later reformulated in the TL. It can be inferred from this that any reduction in note quantity may not impose serious burdens on short-term memory; rather, it may serve to achieve better CI performance. Reducing the quantity of notes is theoretically possible if students are properly trained. As Gillies (2017) suggested, note-taking is a mechanical activity; therefore, by using a consistent method repeatedly, it becomes automatic and internalized. While this idea might be intellectually sound, the main issue is that most university students will not be able to master such skills over the course of a semester.

In practice, CI instructors repeatedly tell students to note ideas, not words (Rozan 1956). This doctrine has been effective for educational purposes, especially for student interpreters who may tend to write down words they hear without understanding their meanings. Other students may understand the meanings of the words or have a vague idea of a phrase's meaning, but they cannot speak it out in the TL. Verbatim notes can perplex students when they interpret SL messages, and their confusion prompts serious disfluency and hesitation in their utterances. Since students are unsure of what is being said, they frantically relate the words they just wrote in the notes into meanings, which may lead to a failure of coherence as they create the TL text. Even if students are sure of what was said and write down specific phrases in their notes, these hastily scribbled notes are not always legible, and the idea they jotted down in the notes eludes them. Thus, the principle of "note down ideas, not words" is difficult to put into practice, especially for new learners. Furthermore, if novice interpreters think too much about how to write something, they will listen less. In fact, is much more common for student interpreters to not hear something than to not understand something (Gilllies 2017). If this is the case, then CI that involves not taking notes but focusing all attention on grasping the sense or the ideas will more likely result in an accurate, confident performance.

The present study revealed that note-taking may not serve as a valuable interpreting tool, regardless of directionality, especially for material comprising paragraphs of some 40 English words, amounting to a duration of no more than half a minute. However, this study provides no further answers as to which factor renders note-taking training introduced in CI lessons valid or invalid. Prioritizing memory-based exercises in analysis and interlingual reexpression before gradually introducing note-taking may provide a starting point for research that could provide fresh insights into the effectiveness of conducting CI with and without notes.

VII. CONCLUSION

The parameters and interpreting conditions introduced so far concern the ways in which student interpreters perform CI. As such, the crucial distinction between students and more experienced professional interpreters should be considered in terms of the level and expertise with which interpreters perform tasks. Nonetheless, this study has reached certain conclusions relevant to the field of education and training for undergraduate-level interpreters.

First, the findings suggest that more frequent, periodically arranged lessons can more effectively improve students' listening comprehension abilities and CI skills. Second, considering the difficulties students face when relying entirely on notes while performing CI, this study investigated the validity of note-taking for new CI learners. The experiments did not demonstrate the validity of note-taking, save for in a limited CI setting. However, a large-scale study would be required to reach definitive conclusions regarding this matter.

Despite some limitations, this study provides insight into the areas interpreting education should focus on to develop more refined interpreting tools and training programs. Despite the many models and orientations advocated in the field of interpreting pedagogy, a sound method that shows how these models sustain CI skill development has yet to emerge. This study may provide guidance for CI curriculum planning as well as interesting perspectives on CI education at the undergraduate level.

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Tim O'Brien's "Bad" Vietnam War: *Going after Cacciato* & Its Historical Perspective

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Abstract—Being the only Vietnam War author on the English curriculum for American middle and high schools, Tim O'Brien skillfully mixes his real wartime experience with fiction in his various bestsellers and awarded novels. All O'Brien's Vietnam War stories are always "bad," meaning that the war contains mostly sad and horrific experience for American soldiers and Vietnamese civilians. A closer look at O'Brien's war stories reveals that he indeed touches upon almost all issues the American GIs encountered during this war; nevertheless, not all online literary analysis websites and peer-reviewed authors can identify or call them all out. To assist middle and high school readers in understanding the meaning behind Tim O'Brien's Vietnam War stories, the war details in *Going After Cacciato* and its historical perspective are discussed in this article. The war-related issues that O'Brien touched upon in this novel are: lack of purpose, the lower standards of the American troops (McNamara's morons), desertion, lack of courage, friendly fire, fragging their own officers, and contemptuous attitude toward the Vietnamese, the very people they came to help and protect.

Index Terms—Tim O'Brien, Vietnam War, fragging, McNamara's Folly, McNamara's Morons, McNamara's Boys, gooks, dinks, desertion, friendly fire, Guerrilla War

I. INTRODUCTION

Of nearly 30,000 published literature on the Vietnam War, only Tim O'Brien's work has been studied by American middle and high school students on their English curriculum (Walzer, 2010). As one of the most prominent contemporary American writers, Tim O'Brien employs both fiction and his real wartime experience in his various bestsellers and awarded novels. Sent to Vietnam in 1969, when the Nixon administration already started the "Vietnamization" process, O'Brien observed that, "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 does not think that he is a Vietnam War writer, he recognizes 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). O'Brien may not know that collectively, all his writing about the important issues the American troops face during the "bad" Vietnam War period gives us a complete list of possible reasons why the most powerful nation on earth – the United States (US) of America - lost the war in Vietnam - a poor and war ravaged Third World country (Mahini et al., 2018a). Most online literary analysis websites (e.g., cliffsnotes.com, litcharts.com, or sparknotes.com) and peer-reviewed publications on Tim O'Brien's novels (e.g., Slay, Jr., 1999; Womack, 2013) focus on literary devices and a few narrow war aspects of his books. Even the most comprehensive reviews of Tim O'Brien's work (Heberle, 2001; Vernon and Calloway, 2010) do not address all these war issues within their historical context. This article specifically focuses on *Going After Cacciato* (O'Brien, 1978) and discusses the historical perspective of the war-related issues presented by O'Brien in this novel. Its primary purpose is to assist middle and high school readers in understanding the meaning behind Tim O'Brien's writing about the Vietnam War, know its entire big picture, and determine which American soldiers' actions - as described by O'Brien - may not be morally or legally correct under the US law of war.

II. O'BRIEN'S "BAD" VIETNAM WAR IN *GOING AFTER CACCIATO*

Information about the author and a detailed discussion about the "good" and the "bad" Vietnam War periods have been presented in "Tim O'Brien's 'Bad' Vietnam War: *The Things They Carried* and Its Historical Perspective" (Mahini et al., 2018a). In *Going after Cacciato* - a "running-away-from-the war-story," O'Brien skillfully scrambles the chronology of the events throughout the 46 chapters of the book to describe the wrenching, traumatic war stories experienced by a young and inexperienced soldier named Paul Berlin. Staying up all night to watch the observation post

overlooking the beautiful South China Sea, some time after his squad has returned after chasing after a low intelligent deserter going AWOL (absent-without-official-leave) named Cacciato, Paul Berlin lets his imagination roam wildly. He imagines the possible march that takes him and his fellow American soldiers through Laos, Burma, India, Afghanistan, Iran, and finally to Paris in France to pursue Cacciato, and perhaps to escape the "bad" Vietnam War. At the same time, flashbacks often bring him back to the painful war experience he endures with his fellow soldiers. Based on a few events of his actual war experience (e.g., the senseless shooting of a water buffalo) and literary devices such as imagery and allusions, O'Brien describes the American soldiers' strong emotions about the war, how they cope with the relentless boredom and terror of a guerilla war, how they treat their enemies and Vietnamese civilians, and finally how they break down morally to even harm their own fellow soldiers and officers. The issues raised by O'Brien in this novel include lack of purpose, the lower standards of the American troops (McNamara's morons), AWOL/desertion, courage or lack thereof, friendly fire, fragging their own officers, and contemptuous attitude toward the Vietnamese, the very people they came to help and protect.

A. A War of No Purpose

As pointed out by Julie Ooms (2014), the granite of the Vietnam Memorial Wall doesn't have the inspiring engraved text like the Lincoln Memorial and the WWII Memorial. Instead, it comprises of two long, gloomy, black granite walls anchored into the earth and only has the engraved names of the dead soldiers. The Vietnam War was one of no noble purpose. Despite the sacrifice of countless young Americans, it remains a national disappointment and disgrace. Most of the soldiers who were sent to serve in the Vietnam War did not know why they should be there, when their friends, classmates, and comrades were maimed or dying for no reason. It started from the top; even the commanders did not believe in the war they were fighting. In *Going After Cacciato*, Private First Class (PFC) Paul Berlin describes his first encounter with the leadership of the Americal Division at the Chu Lai's Combat Center on June 3, 1968, "A small, sad-faced corporal in a black cadre helmet waited until they settled down, looking at the recruits as if searching for a lost friend in a crowd. Then the corporal sat down in the sand. He turned away and gazed out to sea. He did not speak. Time passed slowly, ten minutes, twenty, but still the sad-faced corporal did not turn to nod or speak. He simply gazed out at the blue sea… They sat in the bleachers for a full hour. Then at last the corporal sighed and stood up. He checked his wristwatch. Again he searched the rows of new faces. 'All right,' he said softly. 'That completes your first lecture on how to survive this shit. I hope you paid attention'" (O'Brien, 1978, p. 37). No goals of the mission, no encouragement or acknowledgment, no inspiring talks. Just a real warning of how to survive hours of boredom, anxiety, and then terror when it suddenly appears: The grunts are on their own!

When the trainers or commanders do not believe in the honorable purpose of the war, so will the PFCs and Spec 4s. Berlin does not even know where Chu Lai is and he tells his father to look it up in a world atlas. Perhaps at the time when O'Brien was drafted, one of the reasons that commanding officers and noncommissioned officers (NCOs) in Vietnam did not want to be inspiring and to aggressively initiate successful combats because they could incur the risk of being killed by their own men (see Subsection F later on "Fragging"), especially in 1969 and later. Berlin's platoon dislike their commanding officer, Lieutenant (Lt.) Sidney Martin, because he is enthusiastic and idealistic, "No one cared much for Sidney Martin… The way he kept pushing. A believer in mission, a believer in searching tunnels and bunkers. Too disciplined. Too clear headed for such a lousy war" (O'Brien, 1978, p. 105).

Studies have looked at several factors that impact the average American soldiers' perspective about the Vietnam War (The Gale Group, Inc., 2001). A great number of the 2.5 million American soldiers who served in Vietnam came from poor and working class families in inner cities, factory towns, or rural areas. They were barely teenagers who either did not finish high school or just right out of high school. The hot and humid climate in a tropical and impoverished country gave these young Americans their first discomfort and unpleasant environment. Either in a thick jungle or in a muddy rice paddy, they constantly battled against sickness, infection, blood-sucking insects (e.g., leeches, mosquitoes, etc.), and disease-carrying microbes. The nature of the guerrilla war further frustrated these young American soldiers. Hours of boredom of patrolling the countryside or the jungle searching for VCs were mixed with constant fear and anxiety of booby traps, mines, and unseen enemies in potential ambushes. The one-year tour of duty also caused troops to focus on staying alive instead of doing their military duty or winning battles. Misguided military strategies (such as war of attrition[1], emphasis on body counts[2], search and destroy missions[3], free fire zones, etc.) and the resulting, growing hostility of poor Vietnamese villagers toward them did not help. The term "free fire zone" (similar to the policy of "shoot-anything-that-moves," which was considered by General Chuck Yeager during WWII as potentially criminal) was defined during the Vietnam War as "a specific designated area into which any weapon system may fire without any additional coordination with the establishing headquarters" (field Manual FM 6-20) – meaning anyone in this area is considered to be an enemy combatant and can be shot and killed. Toward the end of 1960s, this term was dropped from

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[1] General William Westmoreland's war of attrition strategy involved escalating military buildup to conduct large-scale "search and destroy" missions, using helicopters and high-tech weapons to find and kill VC and NVA forces. But it was ineffective against the enemy's guerrilla war strategy.

[2] As Ron Ridenhour wrote in 1994: "All gooks were VC when they were dead" [meaning American soldiers can just kill a civilian and count the body as a dead VC]. This strategy encouraged the indiscriminate killing of civilian noncombatants.

[3] The "Search and Destroy" mission was first used ineffectively by the British during the early years of the Malayan Emergency in the late 1940s. This offensive tactic was often used by General William Westmoreland in Vietnam, but it proved ineffective because the US generals underestimated the abilities of the VC and NVA to replace their lost troops and even match or exceed the US forces.

the US military lexicon because this doctrine embraced actions of indiscriminate killing of civilians left in the "free fire zone" that could be considered illegal (Simmons, 1999). All this eventually caused the decline in the morale and performance of American troops in Vietnam. Especially when President Nixon began the "Vietnamization" policy to withdraw combat troops from Vietnam at the beginning of 1969, many American soldiers did not want to die in a war that could not be won.

B. *McNamara's Morons and Desertion*

It has been reported that starting in 1966, President Lyndon Johnson and his Defense Secretary Robert McNamara launched the *Project 100,000* to lower the military mental standards in order to draft more low-IQ troops for the Vietnam War. These substandard troops were known as "McNamara's Boys," "McNamara Morons," or "the Moron Corps." This project was designed to achieve two objectives. First, President Johnson did not want to send US Reservists and National Guards to Vietnam. Second, US forces did not have to draft many college-educated young men for the Vietnam War; therefore, the administration could avoid alienating middle-class voters. As a result, more than 354,000 of these substandard troops (many of them were disabled men, misfits, and even criminals) were sent into combat in Vietnam, not only to endanger themselves but also their fellow soldiers (Gregory, 2015).

The physical description of Cacciato, the AWOL soldier who is Paul Berlin's friend, indicates that Cacciato is one of the "McNamara's Boys." His appearance and behavior match with someone with Down's syndrome and having mental challenges, "Some of the jokes were about Cacciato. Dumb as a bullet, Stink said. Dumb as a month-old oyster fart, said Harold Murphy," (O'Brien, 1978, p. 2) and "Climbing, he tried to picture Cacciato's face... It's the Mongol influence… See how the eyes slant? Pigeon toes, domed head… Open-faced and naïve and plump, Cacciato lacked the fine detail… that maturity ordinarily marks on boy of seventeen years" (O'Brien, 1978, pp. 7-8). According to the National Institute of Health (NIH, 2018), in addition to some physical disabilities, Down's Syndrome adults also carry some cognitive and behavioral problems such as: language and speech impairment or delay, slow learning, short attention span, poor judgment, and impulsive behavior. Because Cacciato's mental health is not stable, he decides to take off one day on his own to leave the war zone in South Vietnam and walk to Paris, endangering himself and causing his fellow soldiers to risk their lives to rescue him. Another risk that is not mentioned by O'Brien is that Cacciato may not know how to use weapons well or he may not know how to spot enemy's booby or mine traps, representing a disaster in the waiting.

Author Hamilton Gregory, a college graduate and a Vietnam War veteran, personally encountered several of the "McNamara's Boys" during his training in 1967 in Tennessee. He was asked to follow and take care of John Gupton, a young and abnormally thin recruit who did not know how to read, did not know how to write, and could not remember his home address and which state he came from. Gregory remembered vividly his training Captain Bosch's complaint, "Can you believe this idiot was drafted? I tell you who else is an idiot. Fuckin' Robert McNamara. How can he expect us to win a war if we draft these morons" (Gregory, 2015). Even when the training sergeant proposed that Gupton be sent back home because he could not handle the rifle and grenade practice in a safe manner, he was still kept in the army. Another "McNamara's Moron" named Murdoch was sent home just because he was diagnosed later to have schizophrenia. In *Going After Cacciato*, O'Bien mentions that even the intelligent, West Point-trained Lt. Sidney Martin did cause the gruesome death of his two fellow soldiers by blindly insisting on following the formal Standard Operation Procedure (SOP) of clearing the tunnel, not the informal, more practical field experience. One can imagine how much danger to the troops the less intelligent McNamara's Boys can cause. As presented in "Tim O'Brien's 'Bad' Vietnam War: *In the Lake of the Woods* and Its Historical Perspective" (Mahini et al., 2018b, in press), drafted soldiers with criminal records easily became prolific killers of innocent civilians in reported massacres such as Mỹ Lai and Tiger Force.

Desertion during the Vietnam War was quite common in the American Armed Forces, and O'Brien conveys this fact as Cacciato and some of his squad soldiers became deserters. From 1966 to 1972, the number of US soldiers who went AWOL for more than 30 days increased more than four fold, from 15 in 1,000 to 70 in 1,000 (The Gale Group, Inc., 2001). In 1971, Colonel Robert D. Heinl, Jr. wrote that the desertion rates were going up in the Army, Marines, and Air Force. For example, the Army had 65,643 deserters in 1970 and that the rate was more than twice the peak rate for Korea. Desertion can disrupt discipline and destroy morale in troops. Another problem almost as serious than desertion is simply refusal to go to the field or participate in a military operation. The GI simply "just packs his shirt and goes to visit some buddies at another base camp" (Heinl, 1971) because it is more dangerous to wander through the countryside in Vietnam alone (The Gale Group, Inc., 2001).

C. *Disparaging Verbal Abuse of American Troops*

In addition to incompetent personnel in his squad, Paul Berlin must endure the verbal and emotional abuse from many others like lifers or NCOs around him when he first arrives to Vietnam, "Course not, you dumb twerp… Paul Berlin was not a twerp. So it constantly amazed him, and left him feeling much abused, to hear such nonsense-twerp, creepo, butter-brain. It wasn't right. He was a straightforward, honest, decent sort of guy. He was not dumb. He was not small or weak or ugly" (O'Brien, 1978, p. 38). As a result, Paul is dispirited and fearful, "His eyes were down and he climbed the road dumbly… He was dull of mind, blunt of spirit, numb of history…" (O'Brien, 1978, p. 168). This type of rude and derogatory treatment in an immoral, despised war - a war in which a simple walking or patrolling exercise in the booby trap and mine-laden region can mean being killed or being maimed - saps any human dignity left in Paul

and his fellow soldiers. Consequently, Paul Berlin always walks last in file when his squad is on patrol (O'Brien, 1978, pp. 16, 165). The verbal abuse that Paul Berlin experiences is common for all American recruits, even those college-educated ones. In his book *McNamara's Folly*, author Gregory also reported similar incessant verbal insults he received during his military training: a sad sack of shit, an idiotic turd, all queers, assholes, pansies, pussies, scumbags, slimeballs, shotheads, etc. (Gregory, 2015, p. 21). These insulting words disregard the values of individual soldiers, make them feel weak, and can either enrage them or demoralize them.

There are many reasons that drill instructors, lifers, and commanders used to justify their verbal abuse of recruits and soldiers in the past. First, they wanted to probe and to push the recruits' emotional buttons and to create a stressful situation to see if the soldiers being trained can handle their emotions and retain their "military bearing." A military bearing is defined as "the ability to calmly control [your] reactions to events, even traumatic events" (Thompson, 2002). This ability to handle extreme stress and to think clearly is necessary for survival, especially during a chaotic, deadly combat situation. Second, by exploring the commitment to self-control of the recruits, drill instructors can also explore these soldiers' ability to respect ranks and orders, which is required for the armed forces to function properly and effectively. Finally, drill sergeants can also insult recruits to try to de-individualize them not to think only about themselves. Instead, soldiers should think about their team's goal as a whole and the greater good of the group while being on their military mission (Thompson, 2002). Recently however, it was reported that drill sergeants were told to cut out all the cussing, swearing, insulting, and intimidation of new military recruits. Instead, they were encouraged to adopt a "kinder gentler" role of a mentor, a coach, or a counselor in order to shape young recruits for the future and to retain good soldiers for the Armed Forces. Colonel Jay Chambers, commander of 1st Combat Training Brigade of the 13th Infantry Regiment has reported that the new approach makes a difference because, "The soldiers shoot better, are in better physical condition, and their hearts and heads are in the zone" (Reynolds, 2006). In the past, about one third of recruits dropped out of their enlistments in the first six to twelve months; and many of them cited humiliating treatment as the main reason. This "kinder gentler" approach now helped the Pentagon to achieve their recruiting goals of active duty soldiers for the year by September 30 (Reynolds, 2006).

D. Courage or the Lack Thereof During the Guerilla War

In real life O'Brien was drafted at the age of 22, after obtaining his undergraduate degree. In *Going After Cacciato*, Paul Berlin must be in his late teenage years, just like the average age of the American soldiers (19 years old) during the Vietnam War (The Gale Group, Inc., 2001). Most soldiers in Paul Berlin's platoon do not die from fighting courageously, with honor, or for protection of their fellow comrades in conventional battles. They just die from some foolish reasons or while doing mundane, tedious tasks. Billy Boy Watkins dies from a heart attack – from fear after incurring a minor injury from a mine. Frenchie Tucker and Bernie Lynn get shot in the head during the inspection of an enemy tunnel – while following the "official" military SOP. Lt Sidney Martin is fragged by his own soldiers in a tunnel. Pederson is killed from friendly fire, by the door gunners of the Chinook helicopter that drops the troops off on the field. Rudy Chassler hits a mine. Buff and Ready Mix are shot dead in a small ambush. All these deaths are results of the nature of the guerilla war[4]. Sprinkled throughout his *Going After Cacciato* novel with vivid and pointed details, O'Brien describes the boring, but highly dangerous life of the American soldiers patrolling the field. Hidden in a complex network of tunnels or in highland dense jungles, NVA and VC practically controlled the time and place of their attacks on the US Armed Forces to avoid the US superior firepower. In an unpleasant climate and disease-laden environment, "they moved through the villages along the muddy Sông Trà Bồng. They cordoned the villages and searched them and sometimes burned them down. They never saw the living enemy. On the odd-numbered afternoons they took snifer fire. On the even-numbered nights they were mortared… (O'Brien, 1978, p. 100). Over the next week they destroyed twelve tunnels. They killed a water buffalo. They burned hootches and shot chickens and trampled paddies and tore up fences and dumped dirt into wells and provoke madness. But they could not drive the enemy into showing himself, and the silence was exhausting… (O'Brien, 1978, p. 105). The men bickered and fought. Caution became skittishness. Irritability became outsight meanness, and worse. They walked with their heads down, stiffy, thinking of land mines and trickery and ambush… (O'Brien, 1978, p. 105). Sidney Martin kept pushing… Inland through Mỹ Khê 1 and 2 and 3, then south, then southeast, then straight north back to the river. The silence continued and they did not find the enemy" (O'Brien, 1978, p. 106). According to O'Brien in *Going After Cacciato*, the boredom, the fear, the intense anxiety during these patrols break down the American soldiers' spirit to the point that they fight violently among themselves, with the intention to inflict physical pain on their fellow soldiers. As the mental and physical conditions of the troops become worse, more and more problems arise in their units that further prevent them from being effective.

As a young and inexperienced soldier, the war brings Paul Berlin a lot of fear and terror, "'You got an excess of fear biles,' Doc had said one afternoon beneath the tower (O'Brien, 1978, p. 28)… True, he was afraid. Doc was right about that" (O'Brien, 1978, p. 29). Because of his fear, Paul does not want to volunteer to pull out Frenchie Tucker when the latter is shot in the tunnel. To respond to Lt Martin's request of the troops to go down to the tunnel to retrieve Tucker's

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[4] O'Brien is not correct to infer that the manner of death during the Vietnam War determines the heroism of the soldiers. SP4 Glenn Andreotta was shot in the head while flying his OH-6 helicopter on a recon mission, a death that O'Brien would consider meaningless and call "greased, offed, zapped, etc." But three weeks earlier, Andreotta was a hero jumping into a ditch filled with grime and blood from dead and injured civilians at Mỹ Lai to rescue an eight-year old Vietnamese boy. For his heroic action, he was awarded the prestigious Soldier's Medals posthumously thirty years later (Mahini et al., 2018b – in press).

body, "Berlin stood alone. He felt the walls tight against him. He was careful not to look at anyone" (O'Brien, 1978, p. 90). Even the prospect of receiving a silver medal (which is always in his hope) is not enticing to Paul, who just wants to stay alive. On the patrol trail, Paul "knew he would not fight well. He had no love of mission no love strong enough to make him fight well… Paul Berlin, who had no desire to confront death until he was old and feeble, and who believed firmly that he could not survive a true battle in the mountains…" (O'Brien, 1978, p. 167). Berlin does not want to die. He does not want to fight. He passively follows his squad and hopes to survive his tour. How can he not have fear when NCOs around him mention that he and other soldiers like him are going to die in this hopeless war, "He plodded through the sand, listened while the NCOs talked about the AO [Area of Operations]: 'Real bad shit,' said the youngest of them, a sallow kid without color in his eyes. 'Real tough shit, real bad. I remember this guy Uhlander. Not such a bad dick, but he made the mistake of thinking it wasn't so bad. It's bad. You know what bad is? Bad is evil. Bad is what happened to Uhlander. I don't wanna scare the bejesus out of you-that's not what I want-but, shit, you guys are gonna die'" (O'Brien, 1978, p. 39). Some like Benn Nystrom even want to mutilate themselves in order to go home (O'Brien, 1978, p. 106). For Berlin, his fear continues to be overwhelming. When Berlin and his squad finally find Cacciato, they try to capture Cacciato. During this ambush, Berlin fires his automatic rifle uncontrollably out of fear and he eventually wets his pants (O'Brien, 1978, p. 331). O'Brien does not clearly state that in the novel, but it is understood that during a moment of panic, Paul Berlin accidentally shoots and tragically kills his only and best friend Cacciato.

E. Friendly Fire

   O'Brien's literary skills in scrambling the order and the time frame of his stories to invoke the deep empathetic response from his readers plays beautifully in his description of the friendly fire problem in the US Armed Forces. Like a devoted teacher to his students, O'Brien invites his readers to pay special attention to and even to take note of the different events in his stories. At the beginning of Chapter Eleven (Fire in the Hole) of *Going After Cacciato*, O'Brien mentions Pederson's death, "Pederson was a mess. They wrapped him in his own poncho. Doc Peret found the broken dog tags and slipped them into Pederson's mouth and taped it shut" (O'Brien, 1978, p. 77). Then O'Brien describes the anger and the rage in Pederson's fellow platoon soldiers when their Lt requests white phosphorus to burn down the Hội An (meaning "Peaceful Meeting Place") village, "They watched the village become smoke… Then they began firing. They lined up and fired into the burning village… and the men fired until they were exhausted. The village was a hole… When it was night they began talking about Jim Pederson" (O'Brien, 1978, p. 79). The entire Chapter Eleven makes readers feel like the savage revenge of the Hội An village is justified due to the fact that Pederson is maimed and killed by VC in an ambush or perhaps is blasted off by a mine. Then later in Chapter Twenty (Landing Zone Bravo), readers learn the painful truth, that Pederson is not killed by VC or NVA. He is senselessly and carelessly killed by his own fellow soldiers, the door gunners of the Chinook helicopter that drops the entire platoon soldiers on the ground on that fateful day.

   Using repetition after repetition, O'Brien pierces the readers' heart with the continuous, automatic firing bullets to evoke the pain of a pointless war. Normally helicopter door gunners would fire at the treeline during the approach to the landing zone (LZ), while paying extra attention to locations of other nearby choppers (Rottman, 2007). As the Chinook is lowered to unload Paul and his fellow soldiers, its door gunners do not follow the airmobile warfare tactics, which is to cease fire when the infantrymen are about to off-load (Rottman, 2007). Instead, they fire their big machine guns to protect themselves, "The gunners fired and fired. They fired at everything. They were wrapped around their guns… The Chinook touched down softly. The gunners kept firing. They hunched over their hot guns and fired and fired. They fired blindly and without aim… Paul Berlin slipped and went down in the muck… and then lay quietly and watched as the gunners kept firing and firing, automatically, firing and firing. They would not stop. They cradled their white guns and fired and fired and fired… Screaming, the crew chief dragged Pederson to the ramp and threw him out… He'd lost his helmet. Behind him, the gunners strafed the paddies… firing and firing, and Pederson was shot first in the legs. But the gunners did not stop. They fired in sweeping, methodical rows…" (O'Brien, 1978, pp. 130-131). At first, Pederson is calm and does "not go crazy at being shot," but the door gunners keep firing and Pederson is shot again, so hard that "it yanked him backward and he splashed down" (O'Brien, 1978, p. 132). From that point on, Pederson stays calm and decides to revenge against the door gunners. At that time, they still, "kept firing, but Pederson took his time… He squeezed of a single shot… The sound was different-hard and sharp and emphatic and pointed. He fired again, then again… The gunners went berserk with their firing but Pederson took great care, aiming and firing… Bobbing in the slime, he tracked the Chinook and fired into its great underside… he was composed and entirely within himself. Suddenly the door gunners were gone, but still the hot guns kept swiveling and firing, automatically…" (O'Brien, 1978, p. 132). Through this scene, O'Brien emphasizes that not all casualties at war are due to combat. Friendly fires can traumatize the troops greatly. It has been reported that, "The conditions and quality of the American effort by this time [during the "bad" Vietnam war period] are more than evidenced by one statistic. Thirty percent of all the casualties during this period came from friendly fire" (Hochgesang, Lawyer, and Stevenson, 1999).

   Then to add to the readers' exasperating feelings about the friendly fire on Pederson, on Page 143 of Chapter 22 (Who They Were or Claimed to Be), O'Brien describes how great of a person Pederson is. He would bow to poor villagers, talk to them in Vietnamese, and show them his church picture (although he is not Catholic) to express some solidarity with the Catholic villagers. Doc said that Pederson "had a Moral Stance," because he once "stopped the Third

Squad from burning down a village in Pinkville" and he even "gave first aid to a dying VC woman" (O'Brien, 1978, p. 142). Pederson also spends time writing to the parents of his fallen fellow soldiers, without expecting anything in return. It is tragic that the life of a beautiful human being like Pederson is wasted in a friendly fire as he is senselessly killed by his own fellow soldiers. Looking back to Chapter Twenty when Pederson is described to be calmly taking down the Chinook door gunners while being badly injured, perhaps knowing that he would be dying, Pederson tries to take down the coward door gunners to prevent another tragedy and to save his fellow soldiers' lives in the future. In these enthralling chapters, O'Brien is successful in convincing us emotionally that war is cruel and never needed. Ironically, online literary review websites do not readily see the obvious "friendly fire" issue for Pederson. For Chapter 20 of *Going After Cacciato*, litcharts.com reports the following summary and analysis, "As the helicopter drifts to the ground, the soldiers open fire, though the narrator doesn't say at *whom*, exactly, they're firing. The helicopter touches down, and the soldiers rush out, still shooting into the distance… The ambiguity in O'Brien's description of the helicopter's landing is a good encapsulation of the Vietnam War itself. It's often been said that in Vietnam, the American soldiers didn't properly understand just who they were fighting, or what they were fighting for" ("litcharts.com," 2018). The summary of O'Brien's novel on the litcharts.com website also mentions that Lt Sidney Martin was "presumably murdered by Johnson," but the means of murdering or "fragging" was not mentioned. O'Brien has said in author interviews that any soldier in their platoon, except Cacciato, could frag their commander.

F. Fragging

After witnessing a couple of traumatic events (e.g., the senseless killing of the innocent water buffalo as a scapegoat by Stink [O'Brien, 1978, p. 50], the careless shooting/killing of Pederson - the most moral person in the squad - by their own helicopter door gunners, Pederson's revenge [O'Brien, 1978, pp. 77, 131-132], and participating in the burning and obliteration of the village Hội An [O'Brien, 1978, pp. 78-79]), Paul Berlin eventually steps unwittingly into the most sinful act of an American soldier during the Vietnam War: the "fragging" (murder with a fragmentation grenade) of their own officers or soldiers. In *Going After Cacciato*, O'Brien does not openly describe the details of the killing, or fragging, of West Point graduate Lt Sidney Martin. This is only understood if readers have some knowledge about fragging (Lepre, 2011). Even after the deaths of Frenchie Tucker and Bernie Lynn for strictly following the military SOP for searching the tunnels, Lt Sidney Martin still insisted that the tunnels be carefully searched before his troops could drop in grenades. At that time, "it was there, high in Lake Country, that Oscar Johnson began talking seriously about solutions (O'Brien, 1978, p. 178). To get the rest of the platoon's support of his plan of fragging Lt Martin, Oscar told others, "'Everybody has to touch it,' was what Oscar Johnson had said… 'And it's for your own damn good, and even if you don't join in, even so, it'll happen any way, but, look, it's for our own good.' So he'd pressed the grenade against Cacciato's limp hand… Was it touching? Was it volition? May be so, maybe not. 'That's everybody,' Oscar said afterward. And then Lieutenant Corson came to replace Lieutenant Sidney Martin. The way events led to events, and the way they got out of human control. 'A sad thing,' Cacciato had said on the day afterward… A very sad thing. Cacciato was dumb, but he was right. What happened to Lieutenant Sidney Martin was a very sad thing" (O'Brien, 1978, p. 247). Perhaps the troops must chase after Cacciato when he left AWOL because Cacciato knew and disapproved of their murder of Lt Sidney Martin. Cacciato was also right because fragging represents the lowest morality of America. The lack of remorse in Paul Berlin and his fellow soldiers is extremely sad. Even sadder of all was the fact that Lt Martin truly cared about the soldiers under his command, "he did not enjoy battles. Neither bloodthirsty nor bloodshy… But battles had to be fought… Though they did not know it, and never would, he loved these men… he loved them all" (O'Brien, 1978, p. 165).

The term "fragging" was coined during the Vietnam War because this type of murder was named after the murderers' weapon of choice: the standard fragmentation hand grenade M26, M61 or M67. Unlike rifles and pistols, grenades were not assigned to individual soldiers by serial number, and once exploded, they left no traceable ballistic evidence that may be used to identify the perpetrator (Brush, 2010). Grenades were also effective in maiming and killing the victims when they were dropped into the sleeping bunkers or tents at the middle of the night. The Pentagon had always been reluctant to publicly discuss and address the fragging problem in the military. Democratic Majority Leader Senator Mike Mansfield of Montana was the first member of the Congress to raise the fragging issue on the floor of the Senate on April 20, 1971. In an emotionally trembling voice, Mansfield described the painful details about the death of 1st Lt Thomas A. Dellwo, of Choteau, Montana, "He was not a victim of combat. He was not a casualty of a helicopter crash or a jeep accident. In the early morning hours of March 15, the 1st Lt from Montana was 'fragged' to death as he lay sleeping in his billet at Biên Hòa (meaning "Recorded Peace"). He was murdered by a fellow serviceman, an American GI. 'Fragging' so I have been advised by the Secretary of the Army, refers to the use of a fragmentation grenade in other than a combat situation by one person against another to kill or do bodily harm." The death of Dellwo, a 24-year-old West Point graduate who wanted to be a career soldier, was especially tragic and senseless because he was not even the intended victim. His murder occurred just four weeks before his scheduled return to the US (Brush, 2010).

In the brief comments following Mansfield's disclosure, Republican Senator Charles Mathias of Maryland noted that Mansfield had made history because "he has surfaced the word 'fragging' for the first time on the Senate floor." Mathias also succinctly captured the dismay and emotional pain of those present that day: "In every war a new vocabulary springs up… but in all the lexicon of war there is not a more tragic word than 'fragging' with all that it implies of total failure of discipline and depression of morale, the complete sense of frustration and confusion and the

loss of goals and hope itself" (Brush, 2010). During the period of troop withdraw period from 1969 to 1973, fragging incidences increased significantly in the military, to the point that by 1971, U.S. Army Colonel Heinl, Jr. declared in the *Armed Forces Journal* that "The morale, discipline, and battleworthiness of the U.S. Armed Forces are, with a few salient exceptions, lower and worse than at any time in this century and possibly in the history of the United States. By every conceivable indicator, our army that now remains in Vietnam is in a state approaching collapse, with individual units avoiding or having refused combat, murdering their officers and non commissioned officers, drug-ridden, and dispirited where not near mutinous" (Heinl, 1971). Colonel Heinl also raises the issue of "fragging" in the military as a reflection of the decline in the societal morale in the US as a whole, "It is a truism that national armies closely reflect societies from which they have been raised. It would be strange indeed if the Armed Forces did not today mirror the agonizing divisions and social traumas of American society, and of course they do… At best count, there appear to be some 144 underground newspapers published on or aimed at U.S. military bases in this country and overseas… These journals are not mere gripe-sheets that poke soldier fun in the 'Beetle Bailey' tradition, at the brass and the sergeants. 'In Vietnam,' writes the Ft Lewis-McChord Free Press, 'the Lifers, the Brass, are the true Enemy, not the enemy.' Another American West Coast sheet advises readers: 'Don't desert. Go to Vietnam and kill your commanding officer'." By 1971, it was reported that fragging in the Americal Division was at a frightening level of about once per week (Heinl, 1971).

It is truly sad that military casualties were not limited to combat operations and that intelligent and promising higher rank officers were killed or maimed by their own rogue soldiers, sometimes over trivial issues such as being scolded for drug use or sleeping while guarding, etc. (Lepre, 2010). Most of the fragging incidents in Vietnam went unresolved at the time they happened. In addition, discharged GIs during the Vietnam era could not be charged with crime they committed oversea because the 1955 Supreme Court's *Toth v. Quarles* case denied the armed services the power to put veterans under trial under military law. Congress took no action for more than 40 years after the Vietnam War ended, although they had the authority to provide civilian venues for these cases. The 2000 Military Extraterritorial Jurisdiction Act (which allows federal district court trials for veterans accused of committing serious crimes during their overseas service) came too late for the unresolved Vietnam-era fragging cases because the Constitution prohibits Congress from enacting ex post facto laws. Even if the killers who managed to avoid detection by the military at the time of their crimes confess or are accused now, they cannot be prosecuted. Thus, many fragging cases will remain forever unresolved (Texas Tech University Press, 2011) and justice could not be achieved for the unfortunate victims of fragging in Vietnam. One may also ask, "If a life of an intelligent or West Point-educated American officer is not important to some [criminal] American soldiers, how much a life of a "gook" or a "dink" is worth to them?" As a result, indiscriminate raping, or killing of innocent civilians became possible and just a logical next step.

G. Disparagingly Contemptuous to Vietnamese

During the Vietnam War, the Military Assistance Command, Vietnam (MACV) issued the *"Nine Rules" Pocket Card* for all American soldiers to guide their behavior and conduct. For example, Rule 1 states, "Remember we are guests here. We make no demands and seek no special treatment;" Rule 2, "Join with the people! Understand their life, use phrases from their language and honor their customs and laws;" Rule 3, "Treat women with politeness and respect;" Rule 5, "Always give the Vietnamese the right of way…" and Rule 9, "Above all else you are members of the U.S. Military Forces on a difficult mission… Reflect honor upon yourself and the United States of America" (MACV, 1967). But what O'Brien's American soldiers did in *Going After Cacciato*, to the contrary, is to use the offensive, disparaging, and contemptuous language toward the Vietnamese, "At night they wailed. Coyotes, Eddie laughed. Stink Harris did not laugh. Dinks, he muttered: Dinks from Dinksville, Damsels from Gooktown. Silent through the sunny days, the old women howled endlessly through the night" (O'Brien, 1978, p. 60). The words "dinks" and "gook" are derogatory terms that were originally and predominantly used by the U.S. military during wartime, especially during the Korean and Vietnam Wars to address Asian people.

It has been reported that many military trainers wanted US troops to use these contemptuous words to dehumanize the Vietnamese, as Ron Ridenhour (who helped expose the 1968 Mỹ Lai Massacre) wrote, "I first came face to face with my own intimate knowledge of gooks in Vietnam. First time I heard the word was on the way to Vietnam. 'When you get to Vietnam,' one of my first drill sergeants said, 'you'll have one job. Killing gooks [meaning VC?].' Seemed straightforward enough. By the time I got to Vietnam, just before Christmas 1967, everydamnbody was talking about killing gooks. Gooks this, gooks that. The gooks, the gooks, the gooks. At first there was some confusion. How did you tell gooks from the good Vietnamese, for instance? After a while it became clear. You didn't have to. All gooks were VC when they were dead [one can just kill a civilian as a VC]" (Ridenhour, 1994). Ron Haeberle, who photographed the horrific 1968 Mỹ Lai Massacre, recalls the message imparted to so many soldiers before their arrival in Vietnam: "We were told, 'Life is meaningless to these people"... leaving unspoken the rest of that sentiment: The enemy is not like us. They're not quite human" (Theiss, 2018). Professor Howard Jones reported that General Westmoreland of the Americal Division had said, "Life is plentiful, life is cheap in the Orient," and so "the U.S. military seemed to take that to heart in prosecuting a brutal war of attrition" (Montgomery, 2018). All of this is due to ignorance of the local Vietnamese people, as O'Brien once wrote, "My time in Vietnam is a memory of ignorance and I mean utter ignorance. I didn't know the language… I knew nothing about the culture of Vietnam. I knew nothing about the religion, religions. I knew nothing about the village community. I knew nothing about the aims of the people, whether they were for the

war or against the war… The final effect was of a moron wandering through a foreign land, or a blind man wandering through a foreign land" (Klein, 2004).

O'Brien is right thinking that it was not helpful that he did not know about the culture and even the history of Vietnam during his tour. He and most American soldiers do not know that Vietnam has more than 4,000 years of recorded history; during this time they were dominated by the Chinese for a total of 1,100 years and were under the French control for another 100 years. To preserve their existence as an independent nation, the Vietnamese people had to constantly fight against the repeated Chinese invasions and efforts to erase their culture. Vietnam was also one of the few small Asian countries in the world that defeated the invincible Mongol warriors, not only once, but three times. Vietnam even had elephant-riding warrior princesses (Hai Bà Trưng [or the Two Trưng Sisters] and Bà Triệu [or the 19-year old Warrior/Lady Triệu]) who won battles for independence against the Chinese invaders more than 1,300 years before the French heroine Jeanne d'Arc. The Gale Research (2002) published the following text about the Two Trưng Sisters in www.encyclopedia.com: "For 12 years, the United States fought a bloody guerilla war against Vietnam. Although America was many times richer and had far superior military might, Vietnam prevailed in the end… It was not the first war of resistance to be fought by the Vietnamese people, nor would it be the last. The revolutionary spirit is a Vietnamese tradition that dates back many hundred years, launched by two heroic women in the 1st century CE. The story of the Trung sisters, who led Vietnam's very first war of resistance, is the story of Vietnam itself" (Gale Research, 2002). As such, thinking that the people they come to protect are subhuman/pitiful and being ignorant of their culture are ones of the biggest mistakes made by the US Armed Forces. As a result, American soldiers felt isolated, resentful, and insolent. Some even committed abusive violence[5] to further drive Vietnamese civilians away.

Not only Paul Berlin and his fellow soldiers do not like the Vietnamese people and their complex language, everything about the physical country of Vietnam invokes reprehensible feelings on all his senses. To Berlin, the war is very wet (O'Brien, 1978, p. 7); the wetness that causes fungus to grow and makes their skin brittle. The smell of the war is the smell of the latrine (O'Brien, 1978, p. 41). In addition to the horrid stench on the battlefields, "his clothes would begin to smell of the country, the mud and algae and manure and chlorophyll and decay and mildew" (O'Brien, 1978, p. 210). Even when "the beaches were clean, white, beautiful…" (O'Brien, 1978, p. 254) "the sand of the ocean smells like sour milk, the clean air near the water smells like mildew" (O'Brien, 1978, p. 39).

As a respected Vietnam War author decades later, O'Brien still does not care much about the Vietnamese language and culture. He does not bother to spend any tiny amount time to check with Vietnamese-speaking people in the US to know that "Sarkin Aung Wan" is neither a Chinese nor a Vietnamese name (Vietnamese letters do not have a "W", perhaps "Quan" or "Quân" or "Quãn" is possible), and that "Li" and "Hgoc" are not Vietnamese spellings (Christopher, 1995; as cited by Heberle, 2001, p. 134). Perhaps by "Li," O'Brien means "Lý" (meaning "Lion") and by "Hgoc," he means "Ngọc" (meaning "Gemstone or Pearl"). O'Brien also does not know that Sarkin would not wear "áo dài" when escaping as a refugee. "Áo dài," meaning long and flowing tunic with side slits from the waist down, is worn with pants made of soft materials, not with a dress or a skirt underneath. "Áo dài" is worn only for attending high school or college, at formal work place, or at formal function, not for daily and normal activities. O'Brien does not know that Chợ Lớn (a large Chinatown next to Sài Gòn) would not be a combat zone, that VC would not dare to execute people in the city earlier than 1968, or that old people would not "howl" due to the loss of material possession like a water buffalo, or that "Nguyễn" is a last name and not to be used to name an animal, or that "Xã" does not mean "soil" or "home" (only "community"), etc. Because of the difficulty in learning the language to communicate, Paul's fellow soldiers resort to firing guns to impose on Vietnamese people, "This was too much for Stink Harris. Enraged, he'd throw away the dictionary and rattle off a whole magazine of ammunition… Dinkese… 'May be the dinks got things mixed up… may be the gooks cry when they are happy'" (O'Brien, 1978, p. 261-262). Without trying to obtain understanding and trust from Vietnamese villagers, these American soldiers feel more unappreciated, isolated, and outraged. Not knowing the language, they do not know whom to trust (O'Brien, 1978, p. 261), and they cannot tell the difference between good and evil in their action. The carelessness of O'Brien while writing this novel proves it well.

But some American veterans did have some deep reflections about their service time during the war and their past treatment of the local Vietnamese, "My feelings about the civilian population bordered on venomous. Not only did I feel superior to them, the burning hatred in their eyes scared me. Soon after my arrival in Vietnam the truth was obvious. Even the South Vietnamese civilians hated GI's and the American Army. We'd bombed their cities, villages and country flat. We killed, wounded and maimed members of their families and raped their culture. I often wondered how I would feel toward them if they had invaded the US and done to our country what we'd done to theirs. We invaded their land and took control of it and for years there was an army of 500,000 twenty year old fighters, armed to the teeth, in a bad mood, roaming all over their country… This may seem strange to say but I definitely am more tolerant of other races, religions and ideologies because of my time in Vietnam. I saw first hand that all people are the same. They all need and want the same things and will definitely kill other humans to defend their homes, families and interests. Culture, religion, ideas and theories may be different but none of that makes any difference anyway. All that counts is love of family, loyalty to quality behavior and protection of individual rights and freedoms. All people, American or Vietnamese, react the same to these simple truths. While I was in Vietnam I definitely 'did not' see the quality in tolerant behavior and respect for other cultures, just the opposite. What I learned then was 'might is right' and whoever

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

could bring the most fire power to bear was the superior race… The lesson I carried for the rest of my life is never, never underestimate any other human being. No matter how small, ignorant or uneducated they are, they are all capable of magnificent feats of sacrifice, bravery and indescribable violence" (Hochgesang, Lawyer, and Stevenson, 1999).

III. 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 part of the US history. In his novels, O'Brien uses diverse settings, vivid imaginary, and repetition to illustrate the American perspectives during this unpopular war. The troops' issues raised by O'Brien in *Going After Cacciato* include lack of purpose, lower standards of drafted troops, desertion/AWOL, lack of courage in a guerrilla war, friendly fire, fragging higher-ranked officers, and contemptuous attitude toward Vietnamese, the very people they claim to help and protect. At the same time, O'Brien also examines the psychological effects on American soldiers during this immoral and senseless war – one that represents a period of impotence in the psyche of the US, as the most powerful nation in the world lost the war in a small and poor Third World country. That was because "in the wry words of Pogo – we have met the enemy, and they are us" (Heinl, 1971). The only silver lining in *Going After Cacciato* is the fact that we still have soldiers with deep conscience and high "moral stance" such as Pederson. Even a Down Syndrome-afflicted soldier like Cacciato still has the moral courage and kindness not to participate in the fragging crime of his commanding officer. These uncompromising values and qualities are what keep America, despite its past mistakes, one of the top countries in the free world.

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Saudi EFL Teaching Training Programmes: Teachers' Perceptions and Needs

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Abstract—**This study explores Saudi EFL teachers' needs and perceptions towards training programmes in Saudi Arabia. The data were collected using a semi-structured questionnaire from a total of 215 EFL teachers; 10 of these teachers were also interviewed. The main findings revealed that Saudi EFL teachers have a positive attitude and view that training programmes meet their various needs, such as a need for programmes on English teaching aids; assessment and grading strategies concerning learners' language proficiency; and programmes concerning classroom practices that implement activities to support language acquisition and development. On the other hand, the teachers showed a need for training programmes on teaching English at the primary school level, plus for training programmes with qualified and professional trainers and educators. The study concludes with some implications and recommendations based on the findings.**

Index Terms—**teacher education, training programmes, perceptions, needs**

I. INTRODUCTION

Teaching and preparing future teachers is fundamental for the success of the whole teaching process, leading to the successful implementation of future generations that are skillful, educated, and cultural. Freeman and Johnson (2001) define teacher education as 'the notion that teachers can be equipped in advance, at the start of their careers, for all that they will need to know and be able to do throughout their teaching lives' (p. 55). A milestone for any curriculum development success is the effective training of the teachers, which is based on programme evaluation. This is the main step in the professionalisation of English language teachers (Coskun & Daloglu, 2010).

Teachers' professional learning is a complex process which requires emotional and cognitive involvement, whether individually or in groups with other teachers (Avalos, 2011). Therefore, teacher education programmes can be challenging, calling for new solutions to prepare the teachers to fulfil their students' needs (Zeichner, Payne & Brayko, 2014). Research concerning teacher education is quite limited and lacking in focus (Grenfell, 2014). It is noteworthy that 'the more competent teachers feel, the more successfully they teach' (Gándara, Maxwell-Jolly & Driscoll, 2005, p. 12). Teachers' willingness to develop their practices in class is common but the methods of how to do so needs to be investigated. EFL teacher training programmes support teachers in many areas, but further investigation is needed to ascertain whether these programmes actually match teachers' needs (Hüttner, Mehlmauer-Larcher, Reichl, & Schiftner, 2011).

Many of the systematic reforms currently taking place in the Saudi context are necessary to maintain the enormous shift in all fields of study and curricula developments. Reforms are progressing to compensate for the defects of the past, with English language teaching taking on large-scale importance regarding changes to textbooks and the practice of new theories of language teaching. Teachers' education and training are of core significance in all these transitions. Saudi Colleges of Education offer courses covering eight semesters in order to prepare students to become EFL teachers.

Additionally, practical training is considered an important part of a teacher preparation programme. Berry (1990) argues that teachers' training influences their teaching and raises their proficiency level. Nevertheless, there are many in-service teacher training problems; some, as Bayrakci, (2009) indicates, include a lack of professional staff, lack of collaborative partnerships between teachers, lack of provision for feedback and lack of systematic in-service training models. In the Saudi context, teacher preparation programmes are 'non-systematic' and 'inadequate'; therefore, there is a call for more improvement to EFL teacher education programmes, encouraging them to take a systematic approach to pre- and in-service education (Al-Hazmi, 2003, p. 341).

Teachers' development and training are essential for raising levels of student proficiency. Recent studies in English language teaching methodologies have shown that teachers who stay up to date with the latest teaching techniques are always efficient (Farooq, 2016). Therefore, teachers are required to hold various qualifications in order to gain high-level knowledge and pedagogy, which will enhance their professional development (Alsalahi, 2015). Reasons behind the low language proficiency of school students in English language communication skills include aspects such as the educational system itself, teacher training, and the methods used in classrooms (Alharbi, 2015).

To date, a considerable body of research has sought to understand teachers' perceptions of training programmes and training needs. This research aims to provide a number of important insights, especially with regard to EFL teachers' training needs. In particular, it is noted that research on determining EFL teachers' perceptions towards training programmes in relation to their training needs in Saudi Arabia is lacking. This study is conceptually intriguing because it bridges two important domains in modern research (i.e., teachers' perceptions and training needs) that are likely related but seldom intermingled. This research seeks to fill this gap by quantitatively and qualitatively examining teachers' needs and perceptions of programmes that are scheduled, yearly, for the training of Saudi English teachers.

II. TEACHERS' PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Teacher PD is defined as 'teachers learning, learning how to learn, and transforming their knowledge into practice for the benefit of their students' growth' (Avalos, 2011, p. 10). Teachers are thus no longer to be considered as solely implementing theory in order to practice, but active mediators and constructors of knowledge (Hüttner *et al.*, 2011). Guskey (2002) describes PD programmes as systematic attempts to bring about changes in teachers' practices, attitudes and beliefs, and the learning outcomes of students.

There is evidence that PD can lead to improvements in instructional practices and student learning. Furthermore, it may increase teachers' use of certain practices in the classroom such as active learning opportunities (Desimone, Porter, Garet, Yoon & Birman, 2002). Tong, Luo, Irby, Lara-Alecio and Rivera (2017) investigated the direct impact of an intensive and structured PD programme on teachers' time allocation and Spanish-speaking English language learners' development. The results of the treatment group show the effectiveness of a PD programme on teachers' practice, in terms of time allotment and learners' language outcomes. Another study by Karimi (2011) on the potential of PD in enhancing teachers' beliefs about their teaching ability shows that the group receiving three 16-session courses obtained significantly higher efficacy scores than did the control group.

Most PD programmes are particularly designed to enrich teachers' content and pedagogical knowledge with little concern for the effectiveness and quality of PD endeavors (Guskey, 2003). Many factors could contribute to EFL teachers' PD. According to Amin and Saukah (2016), both personal and environmental factors are highly effective in developing teacher practices such as early interest and early exposure to the English language, as well as environmental aspects like the supervisory system. Consequently, teachers engage in PD programmes because they want to become better teachers (Guskey, 2002). However, 'much of what is termed "professional development" develops no one' (Cole, 2004, p. 3).

III. CHALLENGES IN EFL TEACHER EDUCATION

A number of challenges were identified as being encountered in EFL teacher education according to several studies (e.g. Canh, 2002; Almuhammadi, 2017). Canh (2002) introduces challenges related to EFL teacher training in Vietnam. These include: a gap between training content and the reality of teachers' practices; concentrating on theoretical knowledge; and excluding continuing PD. Similarly, Rhoton and Stiles (2002) denote that most teacher development programmes implemented in schools today, are designed to increase teachers' knowledge more than develop their practices and attitudes. As Almuhammadi (2017) presents, the current PD literature focuses on the process rather than the content or context. However, there needs to be a focus on all three components together: content, context and process. Content is the generic knowledge that is provided in PD programmes; context is the environment where PD takes place; and, finally, process is how these PD programmes are presented.

There are some challenges that result in unsuccessful PD programmes. On the one hand, there is a lack of understanding relating to the knowledge that teachers require from the courses they take part in. This incomplete conception seems to affect educators' practices and goals whilst teaching teachers. On the other hand, the learning environment might generate teachers' conceptual changes. This could provoke the notion of changing teachers' beliefs and, consequently, the practices that they might conduct in class. Further, these factors might restrict the stream of development that teacher educators aim to carry out (Grierson, 2010). Accordingly, there is a need for teacher educators to be qualified.

In the Saudi context, teacher preparation programmes are described as 'non-systematic' and 'inadequate'; therefore, there is a call for more improvement of EFL teacher education programmes with a systematic approach to pre- and in-service education (Al-Hazmi, 2003, p. 341). Consequently, this affects learners' language proficiency and language performance. Several studies have been conducted to present the factors that contribute to EFL PD in relation to personal changes in practices, attitudes and beliefs, and learners' outcomes. Some studies suggest more concern with pre-service and in-service training programmes in the Saudi context, as EFL teachers graduating from colleges of education only undertake a training course that lasts for 60 hours across 15 weeks. This course includes teaching methodologies, after which these methods are practiced in school during the aforementioned period of time. Therefore, the proficiency level of most Saudi English teachers is considered to be of a low level. Thus there is a need for training in-service teachers and setting up plans and programmes for pre-service teachers in the future (Al-Seghayer, 2011).

Although preparation programmes work ahead to prepare and train EFL teachers, it seems that there is no evidence of developing national standards and guidelines to prepare and train Saudi English teachers in the future (Al-Seghayer,

2011). The majority of students who join English departments or EFL reaching programmes at most Saudi colleges are not proficient in English; therefore, they start their teaching careers with minimal preparation. Additionally, many current teachers graduated from programmes at colleges of language and translation or English literature, taking neither language teaching courses nor practical course (Al-Seghayer, 2017).

IV. SOLUTIONS

There are some factors that might contribute to enhancing teacher PD; for instance, the focus on professional learning rather than PD. Additionally, the best place to practice learning is the school itself; school leaders need to take more responsibility for building up a professional learning culture within the school, as such a culture creates a team-work environment (Cole, 2004). In particular, many studies have been conducted that explore reflective practices for teachers and are concerned with teaching through teacher development groups. Furthermore, developing teacher educators might affect teachers' PD. Teachers' conceptual changes regarding teaching English could also be substantial.

Reflective teaching is associated with critical self-examination including self-inquiry and self-evaluation (Richards & Lockhart, 1994). Language teaching can be transformed by looking for the best method that teachers could use to explore and develop their own teaching. This might be achieved by reflective teaching and action research (Richards, 2002). Being reflective can provide teachers with rich opportunities to develop into professional educators. In addition, they may come to construct a self-image of who are they and, in terms of professional role identity, what they do (Farrell, 1999). Mede's (2010) study investigates the impact of collaborative reflection on EFL teachers, revealing that collaborative reflection seems to have a positive effect on EFL teachers' instructional practice and heightens teacher dialogue. Furthermore, Ferdowsi and Afghari (2015) investigate the possible effect of reflective teaching on different aspects of teaching, with results that show the majority of participants emphasising the effect of reflective practice on their communication patterns in the classroom. It also influences classroom management, error correction, techniques and strategies, as well as PD. As reflective practice seems to enhance teachers' ability to develop into professional educators, teacher educators might need to develop, too.

There are few studies related to the PD of teacher educators' professional experiences (Bates, Swennen, & Jones 2011; Murray & Male, 2005). Therefore, there are some complexities involved in the role of teacher educators when they try to determine their priorities in promoting their own PD (Bates, *et al.*, 2010). Williams and Ritter (2010) argue that 'there is an assumption that competent, experienced school teachers will automatically become teacher educators' (p. 77). Lunenberg, Korthagen and Swennen (2007) refer to the gap between both the core knowledge of teacher education and the real practices experienced by many teacher educators.

Koster, Brekelmans, Korthagen and Wubbels (2005) demonstrate that some particular quality requirements are needed for teacher educators. For instance, profession and professional profile being made up of task profile and competences profile. Related to task profile, educators can provide teacher education, take part in policy development or carry out research. On the other hand, the competences profile could include teacher educator aspects of knowledge and skills. These profiles may underpin the development of teacher educators and teacher education institutions, which could then lead to improvement in the quality of teacher education. Lunenberg *et al.* (2007) discuss the consequences for teacher education and show that modelling by teacher educators could increase in changing the views and practices of teachers. The conceptual change about teaching is a factor that might contribute to teacher development.

A longitudinal study by Borg (2011) explores the effect of an intensive eight-week in-service teacher education programme in the UK, concerning the beliefs of six English language teachers. The teachers underwent several experiences in order to enable them to think more explicitly, give voice to their beliefs and focus on ways of developing classroom practices, which reflected these beliefs. The results showed the positive impact of in-service teacher education on the language teachers' beliefs.

Conversely, Mattheoudakis (2007), conducting another longitudinal study, aimed to investigate pre-service EFL teacher beliefs about learning and teaching in Greece. Here, the results showed that student teachers' engagement in teaching practice seems to have a limited impact on the development of their beliefs. The dynamic interactions between teachers' beliefs contributed to a rise in the dialectical relationship between beliefs and practice and revealed the diversity of teachers' belief systems (Zheng, 2013). Therefore, there appears to be a need for further investigation into how teacher training contributes to a teacher's conceptual change regarding EFL teaching.

Another study by Rajab (2013) explores teacher instructional practices within EFL secondary school classrooms in Syria. This study highlights the need to invest in teachers' PD, particularly during the critical phase of curriculum alteration. Similarly, teachers in Saudi Arabia need more training in the following: teaching methods, teaching the four skills, classroom management, teaching grammar, utilising teaching aids, and technology (Al-Harbi, 2006). In particular, there is a need for more teacher training programmes. For example, programmes about how to implement activities that support language acquisition and development in addition to useful teaching materials and tools. Equally important is the emergence of using smartphone apps in classroom activities.

V. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The study aims to investigate the following questions:

1. What do Saudi EFL teachers expect to obtain from participating in training programmes?
2. To what extent do these training programmes match teachers' needs?

VI. Methodology

The population consisted of a number of in-service EFL Saudi male and female public school teachers. Ten EFL teachers (two males and eight females) participated in a semi-structured interview. Also, 216 EFL teachers participated in a semi-structured questionnaire. All the teachers had attended training programmes related to English language teaching, and all were experienced, having taught English for more than one year.

Data analysis

The data of the study were both quantitative and qualitative. The qualitative data were collected using the closed questions employed in the questionnaire. These data were statistically analysed using the computer software programme SPSS in order to provide important information (e.g. frequencies, means and percentages).

All interviews were transcribed fully and revised by repeated listening to the recordings. A thematic approach was adopted to coding in order to increase the reliability of the analysis. The initial stage in the analysis consisted of reading the transcripts several times in order to determine the main themes and categories. The transcripts were coded line by line, to help develop the categories which were related to the themes. The categories were drawn from the data, and informed by the research questions.

VII. Results and Discussion

A. Teachers' Expectations and Challenges

The analysis of teachers' answers to the questionnaire showed the expectations of the participating teachers regarding participation in training programmes. Table 1 shows the mean percentage for each expectation.

TABLE 1.
SAUDI EFL TEACHERS' EXPECTATIONS REGARDING PARTICIPATION IN TRAINING PROGRAMMES

Concerns of future training programmes		SD N^a (%)^b	D N^a (%)^b	N N^a (%)^b	A N^a (%)^b	SA N^a (%)^b	Mean%
1.	Programme about new trends in language teaching	5 (2.3)	5 (2.3)	39 (18.1)	91 (42.3)	75 (34.9)	81.0
2.	Teaching English to special needs students	8 (3.7)	19 (8.8)	46 (21.4)	95 (44.2)	47 (21.9)	74.4
3.	Programme on individual differences, multi-intelligences and learning styles in the classroom	6 (2.8)	5 (2.3)	17 (7.9)	108 (50.2)	79 (36.7)	83.2
4.	Programme on training teachers how to be reflective about his/her teaching development (self-evaluation, self-inquiry)	4 (1.9)	9 (4.2)	23 (10.7)	103 (47.9)	76 (35.3)	82.2
	Total						80.2

SD = Strongly disagree   D = Disagree   N = Neutral   A = Agree   SA = Strongly agree
a = Number (Frequency)   % = Percentage

The table shows that 81% of teachers expected to attend programmes about new trends in language teaching. Also, 74.4% expected to receive training about teaching English for special needs students while 83.2% expected to receive programmes on individual differences, multi-intelligences and learning styles in the classroom.

Meanwhile, other studies reveal that English language teachers in Saudi Arabia are in need of more training in the discipline of teaching methods in order to improve their skills and abilities, classroom management techniques, ability to teach grammar, utilisation of teaching aids, and technology (Al-Harbi, 2006). This is consistent with data obtained from the participants during their interview when all participants agreed with the need for such courses, especially in terms of assessing the language level of students. Also, all the participants mentioned being in need of programmes to help them learn more about using teaching aids in language instruction. The majority of the participants expressed a need for programmes that help them better teach students the English language.

Based on the above, it is clear that EFL teachers have the intention to improve themselves, wishing to gain better skills and insights to match the current trends in teaching the English language. In relation to the students, this requirement is congruent with the results revealed by Núñez and Téllez (2009), indicating that all English teachers in elementary schools should be well trained in the scheme of language in order to do their job professionally. The results obtained from the interviews support these findings, with one participant pointing out that she needs programmes about how to demonstrate EFL learners' needs, especially in the primary and intermediate schools. The current study results are stimulating policy-makers in educational schemes and other researchers to improve English language teachers' abilities and skills in relation to several areas such as assessment, teaching methods, language instruction etc.

The results revealed 83.2% of the teachers expected to receive programmes on individual differences, multi-intelligences, and learning styles in class; however, these results are not consistent with the results of Rhoton, and Stiles (2002), which show that most teachers' development programmes are to increase teachers' knowledge more than develop their practices.

Also, the majority of participants in the current study expressed in the interviews that they are expecting self and PD from the programmes; this resonates with Al-Hazmi (2003) who reveals a need for more improvement in EFL teachers' education programmes, with a systematic approach to pre- and in-service education. Additionally, most of the participants in this study expressed that their training programmes match their classroom teaching practices. This fits with the results of Martinez Agudo (2017) who reveals a relative agreement and satisfaction with the EFL programme, something that, to a certain extent, meets the needs and expectations of teachers.

There are some factors that might contribute to help teachers explore and develop their own teaching. This might be achieved by reflective teaching and action research (Richards, 2002). The current study revealed that 82.2% of English teachers expect to receive programmes on training teachers how to be reflective about their teaching development. This result could be attributed to the fact that teachers, especially of the English language, need training sessions about reflective educational skills. These results are supported by the qualitative part of this study, where one participant in the study expressed his wishes in terms of a need for reflective skills in education.

On the other hand, the theory-practice gap issue is a significant one in the current literature. The educational sciences take up a big share of this gap, with Lunenberg *et al.* (2007) concluding that there is a gap between both the teachers' core knowledge of education and the real practices among many educators. Thus, there is a need to have qualified teachers apply what has been taught at the university level in current practical situations like the classroom; furthermore, this was also revealed by Grierson (2010). These results are complementary to the results obtained from the interviews, where some participants expressed that they are not well qualified due to being taught by unqualified and/or non-professional trainers and educators.

Another factor that may play a significant role in developing a gap between theory and practice is the behaviour of the educator inside the classroom, which, in turn, leads to the production of students (the teachers of the future). As revealed in the current study results, they are unable to apply evidence-based science to the real world of practice. Some participants expressed this issue as "trainer using lecturing without communication or practicing". Other participants looked at this issue from another point of view, for example, providing expressions and wishes regarding training programmes to be conducted by professional native EFL trainers. This could be attributed to the fact that native EFL trainers have distinctive communication skills during the process of training since the mother tongue language may play an important role.

B. Practical Needs of EFL Teachers

Regarding the extent to which training programmes match teachers' needs for programmes to evaluate learners' language, table 2 shows the following: 87.2% of English teachers think that the training programmes match their need to evaluate learners' language fluency, while 85.4% of them think that the training programmes match their need to evaluate learners' language accuracy.

TABLE 2.
EXTENT TO WHICH TRAINING PROGRAMMES MATCH TEACHERS' NEEDS TO EVALUATE LEARNERS LANGUAGE

Need for programme to evaluate learners' language	SD N[a] (%)[b]	D N[a] (%)[b]	N N[a] (%)[b]	A N[a] (%)[b]	SA N[a] (%)[b]	Mean%
1. Fluency (able to speak very well, smoothly and confidently, with no mistakes)	2 (0.9)	2 (0.9)	22 (10.2)	79 (36.7)	110 (51.2)	87.2
2. Accuracy (being true, correct, or exact and free from error)	0 (0.0)	4 (1.9)	24 (11.2)	98 (45.6)	89 (41.4)	85.4
3. Learners' needs	0 (0.0)	4 (1.9)	25 (11.6)	92 (42.8)	94 (43.7)	85.6
4. Level and language development	0 (0.0)	2 (0.9)	25 (11.6)	95 (44.2)	9 (43.3)	86.0
Total						86.05

SD = Strongly Disagree   D = Disagree   N = Neutral   A = Agree   SA = Strongly Agree
a = Number (Frequency)   % = Percentage

Also, table 2 shows that 85.6% of English teachers think that the training programmes match their need for programmes to evaluate learner's needs, while 86.0% think that the training programmes match their need for programmes to evaluate learner's level and language development.

With reference to teachers' expectations of the training programmes in relation to meeting their practical needs, table 3 indicates the extent to which training programmes do match teachers' practical needs.

TABLE 3.
EXTENT TO WHICH TRAINING PROGRAMMES MATCH TEACHERS' PRACTICAL NEEDS

Practicum	SD N[a] (%)[b]	D N[a] (%)[b]	N N[a] (%)[b]	A N[a] (%)[b]	SA N[a] (%)[b]	Mean%
1. English activities which support language acquisition and development	0 (0.0)	1 (0.5)	23 (10.7)	95 (44.2)	96 (44.7)	86.6
2. Useful teaching materials and tools, and how to use them	5 (2.3)	1 (0.5)	24 (11.2)	84 (39.1)	101 (47.0)	85.6
3. Applying applications to classroom activities	4 (1.9)	5 (2.3)	31 (14.4)	64 (29.8)	111 (51.6)	85.4
Total						85.8

SD = Strongly Disagree   D = Disagree   N = Neutral   A = Agree   SA = Strongly Agree
a = Number (Frequency)   % = Percentage

86.6% of the study participants agree that training programmes do enhance their practical need to teaching English activities which support language acquisition and learners' language development. Also, 85.6% are in agreement that these programmes increase the usefulness of teaching materials and how to use these in the classroom. These results are consistent with the results of the study by Samson and Collins (2012) who revealed that the understanding of common patterns and milestones of second language acquisition and choice of materials and activities could advocate for teachers' development. Also, since teachers need to be involved in the choice of materials and be included in workshops on how to use multimedia resources and apply them in educational activities (Richards, 2001), they also need to implement and apply these resources to classroom activities.

The study of Hüttner *et al.* (2011) points out that teachers' willingness to develop their practices in class is common, but methods for how to develop these teaching practices need more clarification. In the current study, all ten EFL teachers in the interviews showed great motivation for attending training programmes in order to develop their skills in a professional manner. Also, most of the participants stated that they optionally attended training programmes, meaning that they had the internal motivation to attend training sessions, confirming a high level of interest in improving their proficiency level. The current study results suggest that good teachers are motivated to develop new skills, improve their abilities, and become proficient in terms of language skills. This resonates with the study by Pinsk, Monson & Irby (1998), which uncovered that the supposition of language proficiency development is that teachers can develop. The motivation of EFL Saudi teachers shows their willingness to improve and make changes to their skills and language level in order to understand new trends in English teaching. Furthermore, in their interviews, the majority of participants expressed a need for new programmes in order to better teach students the English language.

Moreover, 85.4% of teachers in the current study agreed that the training programmes match their practical needs in using apps in classroom activities. This is supported by the results obtained from the qualitative section in which five participants expressed their need to attend programmes to help them implement apps in teaching. The use of technology in teaching methods and in the assessment of students is a new trend, one which matches the behavioural requirements of students in the digital age who are familiar with new technology. Thus, as they become familiar with the English language, they may not face so many difficulties in understanding some of the language related issues. This is consistent with the results of Burns (2011), which reveals that mobile technologies offer an alternative way to involve teachers and students in the teaching and learning process. Also, the use of technology in education may enable English language teachers to better be in touch with the students, in terms of understanding learners' preferences, needs and motivations (Kukulska-Hulme, 2013).

VIII. CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

The study aimed at determining Saudi EFL teachers' needs and perceptions towards training programmes held at training centres in Saudi Arabia, in relation to their training needs. The study adopted a mixed design approach, in which both quantitative and qualitative methods were used to achieve the study objectives. This study stressed the actual needs of the EFL teachers. It might also contain an effective implication concerning the teachers themselves Based on the study findings, some relevant recommendations were suggested, these include several important issues in subsequent training programmes such as new trends in language teaching and training in teaching English to special needs students.

The results obtained from the current study present an optimistic view of Saudi EFL teachers towards the programmes that are scheduled annually at the training centres of the Ministry of Education in Saudi Arabia. In addition, some needs related to teachers in this study indicate that the teachers have a high motivation in terms of improving their abilities and skills in the process of education; consequently, this should make the learning process more familiar, accessible and easier for the students. Additionally, there is a need for more use of technology in educational programmes that occur within the classroom, for example, in activities and assessment strategies. Moreover, English language teachers appear to be looking forward to attending programmes provided by more qualified educators and trainers and learning more about reflective skills in teaching. It is important that training programmes consider the time element and teachers' social and personal issues. Lastly, the findings of this study have discovered many issues that show the perceptions of Saudi EFL teachers towards training programmes; such issues are related to Saudi EFL teachers' future concerns regarding training programmes, and the need for support to be better EFL teachers.

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Task-based Language Teaching in Southwest China: Insider Perspectives from Secondary School Teachers

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Abstract—**A voluminous body of research has examined the implementation of task-based language teaching (TBLT). However, research investigating the implementation of TBLT in Southwest China remains limited. This article reports on a study of teachers' knowledge of TBLT, difficulties in deploying TBLT and their perceived feasible solutions. Thirteen teachers from a private junior secondary school in Sichuan, China participated in the semi-structured interviews. The findings reveal that teachers' understanding of TBLT was limited and varied. The implementation gap was attributed to various contextual constraints such as exams, teachers' beliefs, and pressures and challenges from the school. Participants of this study disseminated both similar and differentiated views towards problems and solutions. The study concludes by highlighting the need for an overhaul of the assessment and a reinforcement of teacher support and development.**

Index Terms—**Southwest China, task-based language teaching, secondary school, implementation gap, problems and solutions**

I. INTRODUCTION

When China initiated the opening up and reform policy in the late 1970s, English has been gaining accelerating public importance and governmental attention (Hu, 2005b). The traditional English Language Teaching (ELT) approach in China combines grammar-translation and audio-lingual methods, characterized by thorough and systematic study of vocabulary, grammar and structural patterns (Hu, 2002a). The approach, however, has been unable to develop a satisfactory level of learners' communicative competence (Hu, 2002a).

Since the early 1990s, the Ministry of Education (MOE) has enthusiastically promoted the imported methodology, Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) to drive the ELT reform in response to a mounting dissatisfaction with the poor quality of ELT (Adamson & Morris, 1997; Hu, 2002a, 2002b). However, contextual factors such as education tradition (Hu, 2002a) and non-communicative exams (Qi, 2007) have impeded the wide implementation of CLT (Deng & Carless, 2009). Therefore, in the past decade, the MOE developed a revised National English Curriculum Standard, in which TBLT (task-based language teaching), an approach under the umbrella of CLT, was advocated (Hu, 2005b, 2013). It called for students' active participation in pair and/ or group work. Teachers are supposed to support students with meaningful classroom tasks and facilitate task completion through modeling, experiencing, practicing, participating, collaborating and communicating (Nunan, 2004). The rationale is that students learn the target language more effectively when involved in meaningful communicative activities, rather than focus on studying or manipulating grammatical rules (Ellis, 2003).

Despite the aim of bringing about changes in the education system, an implementation gap arises in the process. The implementation gap of this pedagogic innovation has been accompanied by soaring scholarly interest in the past fifteen years. Previous research has studied a myriad of contextual factors involving educational tradition, instructors, learners, institution and classroom that have emerged during the promotion of TBLT in secondary schools (Deng & Carless, 2010; Luo & Yi, 2013; Yan, 2015).

As shown in the article later, the majority of the studies were concentrated in coastal or developed regions such as Guangdong, Fujian, Zhejiang and Beijing (Deng & Carless, 2009, 2010; Hu, 2013; Qi, 2007; Sun & Cheng, 2000; Xie, 2010; Zheng & Borg, 2014), with few cases concerning the less developed inland regions. Thereby, the existing findings may be over-generalized and cannot represent the whole situation of China, or at least some less affluent areas such as Sichuan. In order to bridge some of the gaps of current body of research, this article seeks to investigate what difficulties junior secondary English teachers have experienced during the implementation of TBLT in Sichuan.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Problems Regarding TBLT

Confucian thinking has much influence on the expected roles of both teachers and students and people's understanding of language learning (Scollon, 1999). In China, the primary role of the teachers is to transmit profound knowledge, and the students receive the authoritative knowledge passively, without challenging or interrupting their

teachers, whereas in TBLT, teachers should employ learner-centered methods to facilitate the learning process (Adams & Newton, 2009; Butler, 2011; Song, 2009). The conventional view of learning languages as a process of knowledge memorization and accumulation rather than a process for practical purposes has been accounted for the failure of nurturing students' communicative competence (Hu, 2002a; Penner, 1995).

As for learners, their reluctance to speak English and their diverse purposes of learning English have hampered the practice of TBLT (Lee, 2005; Sun & Cheng, 2000; Yan & He, 2012). Some students learn English only for passing exams, albeit having an increasing awareness of the importance of communicative competence (Teng, 2013). Their lack of motivation for speaking English results from the unavailability of a supportive language environment, where English is rarely used outside of the classroom (Hu, 2002b; Liu, 2016; Rao, 2002).

Apart from student resistance, many teachers were reported as having a minimal understanding of 'task' and TBLT, in parallel with insufficient knowledge about teaching English under the proposed TBLT method (Adams & Newton, 2009; Deng & Carless, 2010; Hu, 2013; Zheng & Borg, 2014). Moreover, teachers' inadequate proficiency, together with students' limited proficiency in English, makes it difficult to carry out communication activities (Hu, 2005a; Li & Baldauf, 2011; Littlewood, 2007; Yan, 2012; Yu, 2001). Chinese is used as the main medium of instruction, with the grammar-translation method being the dominant approach. The exam-oriented teachers put absolute emphasis on language knowledge and exercises (Hu, 2013; Yan & He, 2012). Their obsession with exams largely grows out of the current teacher evaluation system, which is chiefly based on test results (Yan, 2012).

Some common practical constraints shared by almost all schools are big class size, mixed-ability students, and limited time given for ELT. The class size of 50-60 students makes it very hard to engage in pair-work and group-work (Xie, 2010). A related issue to mixed-ability groups is the difficulty of selecting appropriate tasks and managing the class (Adams & Newton, 2009). Normally the teachers spend a large amount of time covering the prescribed curriculum/exam content, leaving insufficient time for time-consuming communicative activities (Xie, 2010; Yan & He, 2012; Zheng & Borg, 2014).

A shared, pivotal challenge to the implementation of TBLT is the backwash effect of examinations, as it is intricately interwoven among factors vis-à-vis teachers, learners and administrators. Large-scale high-stakes tests play a gatekeeping role in primary, secondary and tertiary education; thus, determining how the curriculum is conveyed and studied (Adams & Newton, 2009; Li & Baldauf, 2011; Qi, 2007; Yan, 2012). Moreover, limited valuable training opportunities are provided for the further development of teachers (Adams & Newton, 2009; Yan, 2012). Teachers' frustration becomes aggravated when they lack support from the school and parents, who are all obsessed with exam results (Deng & Carless, 2010; Xie, 2010; Yan & He, 2012). Deficiency in funding and equipment was recognized as another important constraint, which is particularly serious in economically underdeveloped areas (Rao, 2002; Xie, 2010; Yan, 2012).

B.   Solutions to the Implementation Gap

Many scholars believed it essential that the non-communicative exams be geared towards evaluating students' individual understanding of knowledge and encouraging student-focused and learning-oriented teaching approaches (Yan, 2012). In this way, incentives can be generated for stakeholders to change methods, beliefs and attitudes (Deng & Carless, 2010; Li & Baldauf, 2011).

Teachers' beliefs were found to outweigh the high-stakes tests in shaping classroom teaching and learning (Deng & Carless, 2010). Hu (2013) expatiated on shared characteristics of successful practitioners of TBLT, who resembled with respect to ways of improving themselves through reading TBLT theories and education methodologies, selecting practical and appropriate tasks, and implementing tasks that met the learning objectives and interests of students.

Teacher development programs should equip teachers with understandings of TBLT (Zheng & Borg, 2014), enhance their decision-making abilities (Yan, 2012), and improve their pedagogical work (Yan & He, 2012). Teacher support can be created through improving teachers' working conditions to conduct autonomous professional activities (Yan & He, 2012) and providing a positive social atmosphere to implement new approaches, which should be done by local authorities and schools acting as an inter-mediator between the teaching reform and parents (Xie, 2010).

Bax (2003) suggested that teachers use the 'context approach', during which they should first conduct a needs analysis and then identify a suitable approach integrating and reconciling both communicative and non-communicative activities (Liao, 2004; Meng, 2010; Rao, 2002; Sun & Cheng, 2000). Likewise, Butler (2011) suggested that Littlewood's (2004) framework not be considered as an indicator of the desirability of activities, for activities with higher communicativeness are not always beneficial for learning.

Although most of the articles have provided a comprehensive and detailed analysis of the problems of and the solutions to the implementation gap of TBLT, there are, limitations that deserve to be discussed. The limitations are threefold: (1) previous studies were conducted exclusively in economically developed regions in China and were not demographically representative enough (Deng & Carless, 2009, 2010; Hu, 2013; Zheng & Borg, 2014); (2) some of the reported findings focused on pioneering schools where curriculum reform mandates have been implemented (Xie, 2010; Yan, 2012; Yan & He, 2012); (3) these studies underscored innovative practices of a few reputable teachers (Deng & Carless, 2009). The deliberately selected samples could not epitomize the general features of most English teachers in China. A limited number of studies cited above have investigated junior secondary English teachers' views on the obstacles of implementing TBLT, particularly those who teach different levels in the same grade.

Therefore, the present study sets out to examine what difficulties junior secondary English teachers in Chengdu, Sichuan Province in Southwest China are faced with in deploying TBLT. Both similar and different difficulties that confront the teachers will be closely explored and compared. It is hoped that this study could fill the current research gap and enrich the literature with its findings and shed light on some implications for stakeholders, including policy-makers, schools, and teachers.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Context

This study was conducted in a private foreign languages school in the capital city Chengdu, Sichuan in Southwest China. Consisting of kindergarten, primary school, junior secondary school and senior secondary school, the school has absolute right in admitting and grouping students based on either the internal entrance examination or the public examination. Junior secondary students are provided with three evening classes from Sunday to Friday, and three to five classes, according to their grade, on Saturday morning. Although the extra classes are not compulsory, almost all students and parents tacitly approve the arrangement. As one of the twenty-two demonstration secondary schools in Chengdu, English classes of the school are comprised of seven normal English classes using *'Go for it'* and two oral English classes taught by a different teacher using *'Good English'* each week. The school was selected as a research site because the author was once employed as an oral English teacher in the school.

B. Participants

There are in total fourteen teachers (who teach *'Go for it'*) in Grade Eight. Among them, thirteen teachers participated in this qualitative study. The teacher who teaches Class 2 was left out, for the students specialize in football and are not demanded to take senior secondary school entrance examination. Three factors were taken into account when selecting the participants. First, they taught in the same grade and had built a close rapport with the author, so reliable and abundant information could be elicited. Second, these teachers ranged from novice teachers to senior ones, and therefore, views of all age groups could be generated. Third, they taught different levels and were considered as ideal participants to breed diverse answers to the research questions. Table 1 provides the background information of the teachers with pseudonyms. If the same name occurs twice, it means the teacher teaches two classes. And their class information is shown in Table 2 respectively.

TABLE 1
TEACHERS' BACKGROUND

Class	Name F: female M: male	Age	Qualifications	Experience (years) Teaching	Others
1	Mina (F)	31	BA in English Education	11	
3	Mina (F)				
4	Amber (F)	31	BA in English Translation	10	
5	Shinny (F)	32	BA in English Education	11	Taught Chinese in the US for one year
6	Dolly (F)	28	BA in English Education	7	Taught high school English in an education company for five years
7	Andy (M)	34	BA in English Education	11	
8	Tracy (F)	46	BA in English Education	24	Taught junior high school English for ten years
9	Amber (F)				
10	Janet (F)	31	BA in English Education	10	Taught primary school English in an education company for six years
11	Gloria (F)	38	BA in English Education	16	
12	Kitty (F)	34	BA in English Education	11	
13	Dolly (F)				
14	Alicia (F)	24	BA in English Education	2	
15	Kitty (F)				
16	Andy (M)				
17	Janet (F)				
18	Alicia (F)				
19	Lucy (F)	29	BA in English Education	7	MA in Education Management (in progress)
20	Kelvin (M)	34	BA in English Education	9	Sold car insurance for four years
21	Leslie (M)	32	BA in English Education	9	Taught English (kids & adults) in an education company for two years
22	Leslie (M)				

TABLE 2
CLASS INFORMATION

Class	Numbers of students	Average score (Mid-term)	Highest score	Lowest score	Standard deviation
1	38	96.671	131	47	22.6557
3	42	77.762	129.5	21	31.6396
4	47	127.032	140	79.5	10.3031
5	41	132.171	144.5	105.5	7.7212
6	48	105.906	131	41	19.9381
7	52	107.375	137	60	15.777
8	53	117.792	140.5	55.5	17.1954
9	50	126.67	142.5	77.5	10.553
10	41	93.78	130	36	24.5888
11	42	126.964	140.5	101.5	7.969
12	39	86.962	122.5	21	27.385
13	55	108.545	133.5	40	17.659
14	43	98.047	133.5	39	29.4272
15	48	102.25	133.5	40	20.7961
16	45	88.167	136	35	29.0842
17	42	103.726	137	48	20.8527
18	52	111.981	139.5	33	21.0695
19	51	115.167	139.5	48	19.8856
20	42	80	116.5	37.5	23.761
21	45	94.178	134	0.5	28.5741
22	53	103.575	135	33	21.5315

The predominant research goal was to investigate what factors hampered teachers' implementation of TBLT. There are three research questions addressed in this study:

1. How much do teachers know about TBLT?
2. What difficulties teachers have experienced in deploying TBLT?
3. What are teachers' perceived possible solutions to the problems?

C.   Data Collection and Analysis

Semi-structured interviews were employed in this qualitative research, allowing both the author and the thirteen teachers flexibility in producing themes that were pertinent to the research questions (Maykut & Morehouse, 1994). An open-ended guiding protocol engaged by Chen and Wright (2016) was adapted in this interview (see Appendix 1). The interview centered on TBLT, including interviewees' knowledge of TBLT, trainings received about TBLT, perceived frequency of using TBLT, difficulties in employing TBLT, and possible solutions they proposed. Each interview lasted around 20-40 minutes, forming around 6.2 hours of data in total. The audio-recorded interviews were largely conducted in Sichuan dialect, enabling the subjects to express themselves fully. Nonetheless, they were allowed to speak Mandarin (Putonghua) or English whenever necessary or applicable.

Interview recordings were primarily transcribed into Chinese, verified by subjects with hardcopies later, and translated into English finally. Inductive analysis was adopted in data analysis (Miles & Huberman, 1994). This study segmented transcripts of each interviewee according to the questions used in the interview guide (see Appendix 1) and employed codes, categories and themes to analyze each participant's transcripts. The codes, categories and themes were initially extracted from the contextual factors investigated by Deng and Carless (2010), Luo and Yi (2013) and Yan (2015). Nonetheless, newly emergent themes, categories and codes were also extracted and highlighted. Through repeated readings of the transcripts, recurrent codes, categories and themes were identified. Afterwards, all participants' data were synthesized, summarized and further grouped for comparison of teachers' shared or differentiated views on TBLT.

IV.   FINDINGS

A.   Teachers' Knowledge of TBLT

One of the objectives of this study was to find out how much practitioners know about TBLT. They were asked about their knowledge of TBLT and whether they had received relevant trainings at the onset of the whole interview. Amber and Dolly acknowledged that they had not been trained to deploy this approach. Lucy and Alicia replied that they were introduced to TBLT during undergraduate study, but they forgot most of the theories. As to participants who admitted receiving trainings about TBLT, their answers still varied tremendously.

Gloria was recognized as the best English teacher in the school and won the first prize in the National Demonstration Class Competition in 2017. She delivered her understanding like this,

TBLT is to stimulate teaching through tasks. Before practicing, students are usually given a task to arouse their interest. For example, if students from another school are coming to know about the history and culture of ours. I tell my students that the best two students will be selected after class to interact with them. I provide them with a wide context and set a clear goal, and this guarantees a better result.

Shinny, leader of Grade 8 English group, won the first prize in the Teaching Competition in the District level half a year ago, expressed her views on TBLT as follows:

It is dividing a class into a few steps. And there will be a task in each step. Teachers should motivate their students to use different tasks to achieve the final goal.

Tracy was regarded as the most senior teacher in the midst of all participants as she had been teaching for more than twenty years. As she said,

It is to ask students to finish tasks by themselves. They know clearly what they should do. I will guide them in the process. I think it is also called autonomous learning, which can enlighten the students.

Kitty responded directly,

I know nothing about TBLT. I never listened to the trainings even if I went there. But I try to provide as many activities for students.

Janet, Mina and Leslie claimed that there were just some demonstration classes inside the school. Janet and Mina admitted that they did not have a clear concept of TBLT. Leslie expressed his understanding in this way,

Teachers must know the objectives. Then he needs to determine the lesson type and correspondent teaching procedures to enable students to achieve their best ability. Actually, I do not know what TBLT is.

Kelvin stated and asked,

TBLT was mentioned frequently when I first came here. It is about cultivating students' speaking ability. But it seemed that it is seldom mentioned nowadays. Is it outdated?

Andy explained his understanding as follows:

There are many tasks in the teaching design. And there should be an authentic context in each task to encourage communication.

During the interviews, as demonstrated above, participants disseminated diversified understandings of TBLT, and some interviewees displayed little knowledge of TBLT. Therefore, before moving to the next research question, all participants were provided with a hardcopy of Nunan's (2004) definition of pedagogical tasks and Ellis (2009) discussion of four additional criteria that characterize a pedagogical task. After reading, all interviewees were demanded to recall their frequency of employing TBLT. Not surprisingly, teachers varied enormously in their responses. Some articulated that they used less than 10%, while some held that the approach took up at least 90% of a whole class.

B. Teachers' Perceived Difficulties in Employing TBLT

This study sought to ascertain, from insiders' perspectives, what factors affected the effectiveness of the implementation of TBLT.

1. Learner Factors

The specific factors in terms of students mentioned by the interviewees are displayed in Table 3. An overwhelming number of teachers claimed that students' inadequate level of English impeded the use of TBLT. Some common explanations given by the teachers were students' lack of vocabulary, which restricted learners from expressing themselves. In worse situations, as Janet said,

Students' poor English forced me to speak Chinese sometimes. I have no way out because if I do not explain in Chinese, they will not understand even a word.

TABLE 3
LEARNER FACTORS MENTIONED BY PARTICIPANTS

Learner factors	Mentioned by participants
English proficiency	Amber, Tracy, Lucy, Kitty, Janet, Mina, Kelvin, Dolly, Alicia, Andy
Beliefs about learning English	Leslie, Dolly
Motivation	Mina, Andy
Study habits	Janet, Andy

The second factor was students' wrong beliefs about learning English. As noted by the participants, students still regarded learning English equivalent to mastering grammar points, but not learning for communicative purposes. Some learners still preferred their teachers to use spoon-feeding methods. Dolly described this difficult situation as follows:

When I organized some pair or group activities, some students from Class 13 would be highly demotivated and would ask me to teach grammar points for exams.

The poorly motivated students aggravated teachers' deployment of TBLT. Andy articulated his opinions as follows:

How to make my students confident and motivated? I think they will only achieve this goal by making progress in study. But how can I help them make progress? This only proves to be a vicious cycle because my students, especially Class 16, are reluctant to learn.

Andy further expatiated on how students' bad study habits affect their English study. As he explained,

Many students' suffering should be largely attributed to their bad study habits formed earlier. Some parents never take their children's habits seriously. These children can never control themselves or focus on the teachers in class.

2. Instructor Factors

Table 4 lists four factors that shaped teachers' implementation of TBLT. The overarching factor stated by the participants was their incompetent proficiency in English, understanding TBLT and designing appropriate tasks. The lack of confidence was extremely conspicuous in new teachers. Both Dolly and Alicia noted,

As a new teacher, I really do not know how to teach important points and improve students' speaking at the same time.

TABLE 4
INSTRUCTOR FACTORS MENTIONED BY PARTICIPANTS

Instructor factors	Mentioned by participants		
Comprehensive ability	Shinny, Tracy, Lucy, Mina, Kelvin, Dolly, Alicia		
Beliefs about English teaching	Gloria, Shinny, Amber, Kitty	Lucy, Janet, Mina, Tracy	Leslie, Kelvin, Dolly, Andy, Alicia
Professionalism	Tracy, Lucy, Kelvin, Andy, Gloria		
Motivation	Tracy	Andy	

Teachers demonstrated a huge difference with respect to their beliefs about English teaching. The first group of people (Gloria, Shinny, Amber, Kitty) attached more importance to the cultivation of students' communicative competence. As Gloria and Shinny commented,

As language teachers, we should help students achieve their long-term development, educate them as a human but not to produce machines who can only do exercises. Practice speaking does not necessarily threaten the test results. Actually, if a student does well in speaking, he will also excel in exams. Their exam results may decline when spending more time speaking, but this does not affect me.

The second group of people (Lucky, Janet, Mina, Tracy) realized the importance of fostering students' speaking capability and they tried to stick to their beliefs about teaching English in a more communicative way. However, they exhibited a certain level of deviation according to their description of their actual practice:

I have been reminding myself not to be too utilitarian. I should pay more attention to the improvement of students' communication skills. If I do not give students time to speak English, it will only be time shortage before exams. (Lucy)

The third group of teachers (Leslie, Kelvin, Dolly, Andy, Alicia) exemplified a high degree of unfaithfulness regarding the cultivation of students' communication competence. Some extracts are as follows:

I want to nurture students' speaking, but it is really hard. And in my view, we should develop more of students' reading and writing skills in Grade 8. (Leslie)

I had thought about it in Grade 7. However, as the final exam approaches, I do not have the energy to do so. (Kelvin)

I personally think I will teach under the exam guidance. (Andy)

A few teachers displayed a relatively low level of professionalism by admitting that laziness and negative emotion, in fact, have impaired their implementation of TBLT. Their responses are as follows:

I am old so I do not want to learn. (Tracy)

I do not want to learn TBLT deeply. I have nothing to pursue. (Kelvin)

Sometimes I do not spend too much time preparing teaching materials, especially now when I am pregnant. (Lucy)

To be honest, sometimes I do not prepare lessons sufficiently. And for convenience reasons, I use the old courseware. (Andy)

People are emotional animals. Therefore, we may have bad mood. This influences my teaching. (Gloria)

Both demotivation and motivation were also closely observed and identified as barriers in the implementation of TBLT. Tracy complained that what she had done was not recognized and acknowledged by students, parents, colleagues and leaders. Henceforth, she was demotivated to devote more efforts. Andy, however, clarified that his motivation grew more from teaching students to get higher grades. He justified that this granted him a sense of achievement when receiving favorable remarks from others and also secured him a place in the school.

3. Classroom-Based Factors

Table 5 summarizes factors related to classroom. Most participants ascribed the difficulty of adopting TBLT to large class size, which generally brought about classroom management and monitoring problems. When coupled with mixed-ability class, it added paramount difficulties to teachers:

I am afraid that my noisy students would disturb neighboring classes. (Kitty)

High-achieving students can always find things to talk, while the low-achieving students usually chat with their neighbors. It is too demanding to monitor and observe each group at the same time. (Lucy)

The gap among the students is widening in Grade 8. It becomes super challenging to design tasks that cater to all students' needs. The male students outnumber the female ones in Class 22. The naughty boys make the class noisy. (Leslie)

TABLE 5
CLASSROOM-BASED FACTORS MENTIONED BY PARTICIPANTS

Classroom-based factors	Mentioned by participants
Class size	Gloria, Shinny, Lucy, Kitty, Mina, Leslie, Dolly, Alicia
Mixed-ability class	Gloria, Lucy, Janet, Mina, Leslie, Andy
Atmosphere	Gloria

Nevertheless, Gloria was the only participant who emphasized the importance of class atmosphere. As she said,

You know I once had a demonstration class in Class 5. The students tended to be silent and did not talk much when I gave them tasks. These situations can be quite discouraging for teachers. However, there are always a few active students in Class 11, who can motivate the rest students.

4. Textbook Factors

Table 6 outlines two factors concerning textbooks. Gloria commented on the types of lessons,

When it is a grammar section in the unit, I have to sum up important grammar points and sometimes inevitably, give students non-communicative exercises.

TABLE 6
TEXTBOOK FACTORS MENTIONED BY PARTICIPANTS

Textbook factors	Mentioned by participants
Types of lesson	Gloria
Topics and contents	Lucy

Lucy, however, highlighted the significance of topics involved in the textbook. She interpreted the topics as determinants of both instructors' and learners' motivation. As she explained,

If the topics are fascinating, I would like to spend more time preparing for the class. Students will be demotivated if the topics are not related to their life. Some texts are out-of-date. For example, there is a passage, which still talks about basic functions of robots, but actually robots can do much more than that. There is a huge discrepancy between students' background knowledge and the textbook.

5. Societal-Institutional Factors

As Table 7 presents, the senior secondary school entrance examination was accounted as the overriding reason for the implementation gap. Some practitioners complained,

Though there are only ten multi choices testing students' grammatical knowledge, some gap-filling questions, listening and writing are all concerned with grammars, like tense. I have to ask students to recite the words and phrases. (Tracy and Alicia)

Honestly speaking, in the second term of Grade 9, we only give students exercises to practice. Doing exercises and dictations really improve exam results. (Janet)

TABLE 7
SOCIETAL-INSTITUTIONAL FACTORS MENTIONED BY PARTICIPANTS

Societal-institutional factors	Mentioned by participants
High-stakes exams	Gloria, Shinny, Amber, Tracy, Mina, Leslie, Dolly, Alicia
Teaching hours	Shinny, Lucy, Kitty, Janet, Mina, Leslie, Dolly, Alicia
Parents' support	Gloria, Shinny, Kitty, Mina, Leslie, Kelvin, Dolly, Andy
Teacher evaluation system	Janet, Leslie, Kelvin, Dolly, Alicia
Teacher trainings and demonstration classes	Shinny, Tracy, Dolly, Andy, kelvin
Other workloads	Tracy, Janet, Mina, Andy
Language environment support	Tracy, Dolly, Mina

Time shortage was also classified as a fundamental factor that constrained teachers' practice of TBLT. Most practitioners reflected that only seven classes a week would not suffice for using TBLT, as there was an increasing amount of language points they needed to cover in Grade 8. As Dolly criticized,

As a foreign languages school, the school only allocates seven classes each week, which is fewer than math classes. But group discussions and pair work really take time. Especially when the final exam approaches, I really cannot give students chances to talk when I have not finished the book.

It is surprising that most teachers talked about the support they gained from the parents. Gloria was delighted to share her experience as follows:

Parents from Class 11 support my decision of spending more time promoting their kids' communication skills. Generally speaking, the high-achieving students' parents are more educated compared with those low-achieving ones'. They know what education is and will help drive their kids to practice oral English and give me feedback.

Conversely, not all teachers were as lucky as Gloria. The rest stated that they faced enormous pressure from the exam-obsessed parents. Kitty's response is just a case in point:

After all, these parents have paid so much tuition. Although knowing that their kids are underachieving, they still hope that the kids can be admitted to a good senior secondary school.

The strict evaluation of the teachers based on students' exam results extinguished their passion for deploying a communicative approach. A decline in ranking often led to income reduction and public criticisms. Leslie elaborated as follows:

Your income and self-esteem are not only decided by your ranking in the Grade. Even if you have satisfied this goal, your annul bonus decreases if the English team is not ranked the top three in the district. Even though the first two goals are attainable, the result will still be compared with other subjects of the same class.

Trainings and demonstration classes from various levels were reported as being ineffective, because they were not applicable. Some practitioners described,

Last year the school designated me to observe demonstration classes in Hangzhou. Though I learned a lot, I still could not apply it to my class. (Tracy)

I think I need someone to direct and teach me to use TBLT. (Kelvin)

All teaching and research activities always focus too much on how to analyze the textbook and how to understand writer's purpose. Admittedly learning these is beneficial for high-achieving students. However, there is a constant lack of research on how to effectively teach the low-achieving students. (Andy)

Substantial workloads posed another great hindrance in constructing a supportive environment for TBLT. Some interviewees grumbled,

We spend a lot of time coping with leaders' checking of our attendance. As a head teacher, I am engaged in too many administrative tasks like attending meetings. (Tracy)

I teach two classes and my daily tasks are doing dictations to students, preparing teaching materials, assigning and checking homework, and talking with my students. Sometimes I really have no time to do lesson plan, so I can only give students an exam the second day instead. (Janet)

I counted that I need four hours to meticulously prepare for a 40-minute class. However, insisting on it made me both mentally and physically tired, because after finishing three classes in the morning, I have to hurry to check two classes' homework. In the afternoon, I usually prepare teaching materials for tomorrow. Sometimes I have to deal with students' homework, talk with parents or go to meetings. If unfortunately I have evening classes, I have to work overtime at home in the evening. (Mina)

The teachers judged the absence of English-speaking environment, which could be created by the school, as a challenge undermining teaching and learning. According to Kachru (1985) three concentric circles model, China falls into the Expanding circle because English, as a foreign language, is mainly used in restricted circumstances such as in the classroom. Tracy and Dolly delivered their opinions respectively,

The school has never thought of creating, for example, an English corner for the students to practice English. I hope you do not mind me saying that actually the oral English class is just lip service. The leaders do not really know nor care much about the class.

I received a training last month in a foreign languages school in Suzhou. It was amazing that the students even spoke English after class. Even the head teacher was required to learn English with and speak English to students. Their so-called English Class is allotted with twenty English classes each week, but how about ours?

C.   Teachers' Preferred Solutions to the Implementation Gap

This study also aimed to find out participants' desired solutions to the current problems. Some teachers came up with only one solution, but some raised more than one resolution. Their responses could be summarized in three aspects.

From the broadest perspective, almost all interviewees stressed the necessity of overhauling the present high-stakes exam, which was the accepted prerequisite for engendering subsequent changes. Their suggestions included adding speaking as an essential component of the entrance exam, empowering all stakeholders to realize the importance of learning English for communicative purposes. Most of the respondents stressed the impossibility of institutional change at present. However, Gloria and Shinny stated that teachers and students should be well prepared for the revolution of the current assessment system, because an overhaul of *Gaokao* (College Entrance Examination) and *Zhongkao* (Senior Secondary School Entrance Examination) were proposed in the Nineteenth National Congress. They pointed out that the initial implementation in Beijing in 2020 would undoubtedly accelerate the reform nationwide. Trainings and demonstration classes should also be geared toward resembling and reflecting front-line workers' individual and practical needs to enable teachers and students to be real beneficiaries of this prevalent pedagogy. Although Lucy enunciated the high cost that the timely revision of the textbook might come with, she still considered it indispensable for textbook writers to conduct a more comprehensive and profound needs analysis of both students and teachers.

From the school level, teachers seemed to yearn for more changes. More than half of the teachers anticipated that the current evaluation system not to be too much exam-based. They advocated taking teachers' daily performance in the classroom into consideration. Teachers, generally, called for an increase of teaching hours, allowing them to implement the time-consuming approach and cover all language points simultaneously. Mina, however, longed for less extra working hours on weekday evenings and Saturday morning. In this way, she could invest more energy and time in lesson planning. Both Amber and Mina recommended the mobile learning system, which guaranteed that students were placed at the proper level of their competence and also stimulated students' mobility among classes. They appreciated this mode but they still argued that the student management problems could be an obstruction. Meanwhile, the school could also support learners by simulating an ESL environment to encourage more English use outside of the classroom.

Being disappointed with the policymakers and school administrators, some teachers maintained that at least they could help ameliorate the existing plight by themselves. Among them, Gloria and Shinny underlined teachers' obligations to improve themselves by primarily changing their attitudes from teaching for exams to teaching for communicative purposes. A holistic development of their skills could also be achieved by taking advantage of online resources to enhance English proficiency and lesson planning expertise. Dolly and Kitty proposed that teachers could act as a catalyst in reshaping both parents' and students' view on learning English. Janet' eclectic resolution appeared reasonable and feasible, i.e., to employ TBLT to develop students' communicative competence in class and to enhance students' academic performance through making use of extra-curricular time.

V. Discussion

This paper has created an abundant source of teachers' implementation of TBLT in a private foreign languages school in Southwest China. By conducting in-depth semi-structured interviews with thirteen teachers, respondents' knowledge of TBLT, perceived difficulties in deploying TBLT and possible solutions were generated to breed some tentative insights and summaries.

The first research question identified teachers' knowledge of TBLT. Generally, participants lacked an adequate understanding of this pedagogy and their interpretations of 'task' varied substantially. Their responses indicated that TBLT usually involved goals, outcomes and communication in forms of pair work and group discussions. Some even declared an almost total absent knowledge of TBLT. The deficient and too broad understandings of TBLT can be primarily attributed to the failure of the 2001 NECS (National English Curriculum Standard) in defining precisely what a 'task' is (Hu, 2013; Zheng & Borg, 2014). Other reasons could be a noticeable decline of relevant trainings in recent years and teachers' insufficient intrinsic motivation to learn this pedagogy, both of which could account for the unsatisfactory findings.

The second research question examined teachers' insider perceptions of the specific obstacles that prevented the implementation of TBLT in their workplace, which was the predominant goal of this study. The findings echoed previous studies (Deng & Carless, 2010; Hu, 2002a; Li & Baldauf, 2011; Rao, 2002; Yan, 2015) in that constraints like high-stakes exams, student resistance, teachers' proficiency, large class size, mixed-ability class, the evaluation system of the teachers, were all identified within the context. In the same vein, backwash effect of exams was the overarching factor that posed influences on all stakeholders from all levels. In line with Li and Baldauf's (2011) study, the in-service trainings and demonstration classes were reflected as ineffective and impractical in teachers' individual context. A distinctive feature of this study was that teachers' laziness was discovered as a new instructor factor, which was seldom discussed by other studies. The obtainment could be ascribed to the author's affinity with the interviewees, allowing additional hidden factors to be revealed. Remarkably, the findings also suggested that there existed differentiated perceptions of the teachers. Participants who taught high proficiency students seemed to be least affected by exams and displayed positive views and confidence in cultivating students' communicative competence, while those taught mid or low-level classes were explored as being ambivalent towards practicing students' communication skills. Teachers of lower level classes, particularly novice teachers, were also examined as confronting more pressures from the school's evaluation system. Their situations were aggravated if they taught two classes or if they were head teachers, facing severe time shortage and enormous administrative workloads, characteristics of private schools.

The final research question investigated teachers' analyses of potential reconciliations between the implementation gap and status quo. Although exam was measured as the determinant in the reform process, it was not ranked as the primary consideration for an amendment, for more than half of the respondents reiterated that examination reform was completely beyond their control. The supports from the school, however, emerged as teachers' major preference for solutions. Having realized that teachers' evaluation system was immutable or might even exacerbate, as noted above, most exhausted teachers who were responsible for two classes and/ or taught low-achieving classes anticipated more teaching hours in the normal curriculum and less extra working hours in the evenings and weekends accordingly, which enabled these overburdened employees ample time to raise students' marks without sacrificing the implementation of TBLT. Other school-level suggestions such as diminishing class size and steering the mobile learning system were all observed as being somewhat not entirely applicable and practical. Teachers of high-achieving classes, on the contrary, sought to resolve problems by reflecting on themselves, as they insisted that that was how they could really make a difference.

VI. Conclusion

This study has identified teachers' knowledge of TBLT, the problems encountered during the implementation of this pedagogy and their perceived feasible solutions to the difficulties. The findings have been illuminated by semi-structured interviews of thirteen teachers. The findings indicate that teachers' understanding of TBLT was limited and varied. The study confirms that contextual factors concerning students, instructors, classroom, school administration and policies continued to exert a profound influence on teachers' implementation of TBLT, which proved to resonate previous research. However, specific factors reported by teachers differed based on their individual roles and responsibilities. It also suggests that teachers displayed both resonances and dissonances when required to raise some viable solutions.

Two implications can be derived from this study. First, urgent action needs to be promoted, including reforming the Chinese education system on a national scale. It is imperative that the non-communicative assessment should be overhauled to meet the new curriculum goal of cultivating students' competence, which can stimulate changes undertaken by all stakeholders, including curriculum developers, textbook writers, school administrators, teachers, parents and students. Second, the support and development of teachers need to be reinforced. In-service trainings should be geared towards providing effective and practical solutions to address participants' specific context, which can be accomplished by firstly establishing a database of information about schools, teachers and students. This supports teacher educators in their efforts to pinpoint targeted trainings. Schools are also supposed to experience changes and

reforms. They can alleviate teachers' stress through hiring more teachers to guarantee 'one class one teacher'. The mobile learning system can be successfully introduced if a teaching assistant can be assigned to each class to resolve student management problems, the extra cost of which can be subsidized by the local government. Teachers are also obliged to stick to the belief of fostering a holistic development of the students. Their determination can be maintained and fortified if such a belief can go through a 'brainwash' process in trainings and onsite meetings, empowering the recognition and internalization of the view.

The limitations of this study must be acknowledged. Although the primary goal of this research was not the actual performance of TBLT in the classroom, teachers' responses could be more objective if the study could be triangulated with classroom observations. In addition, the narrow scope of the qualitative study only concerned thirteen participants in the same school. Generalizations about junior secondary schools in Sichuan or in China, therefore, cannot be drawn from the study, given the economic, cultural and demographic diversity of China. Nevertheless, as teachers who taught both high, mid, and low achieving students were involved, this in-depth research has therefore, created a valuable point of reference for language planners, policy makers, school administrators and teachers in understanding a relatively comprehensive status in quo of the implementation gap of TBLT in Southwest China. Above all, secondary school practitioners can obtain a profound understanding of and reflect on their teaching practice of TBLT, from which they can, hopefully, find some possible solutions to their individual dilemmas within their capacity.

APPENDIX

Interview Guide
1. How much do you know about TBLT? Have you received any training about TBLT?
2. How often do you use TBLT? What do you think of this approach (effective or not)?
3. What difficulties have you experienced in employing TBLT? What obstacles would you attribute to?

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

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Exploration of Cultivating Business English Talents of Maritime University—Taking Zhejiang Ocean University as an Example

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Abstract—With the construction of Zhoushan Free Trade Zone and settlement of Boeing project, internationalization has brought new opportunities to Zhoushan's foreign trade industries, vigorously promoted Zhoushan's marine economy into rapid development, and put forward higher request to the cultivation of Business English talents. But based on the current social reality, there exist few international Business English talents who both have the ability of language and operation. Zhoushan's marine industries' development is entering a new era of internationalization. If we can cultivate Business English talents who both have the ability of language and operation, we will be sure to break through the bottleneck of Zhoushan's marine industries towards the world. Based on current situation of Business English talents training, this thesis takes Zhejiang Ocean University as an example to make positive contribution to exploring innovative talents training modes of Business English major in maritime universities and promoting the development of Zhoushan's marine economy. This thesis can be divided into 3 parts. Part 1 introduces the background, significance and current situation on cultivating Business English talents of maritime universities. Part 2 is an experimental research on current situation of cultivating Business English talents in Zhejiang Ocean University. And some suggestions on cultivating Business English talents of maritime universities are mentioned in part 3.

Index Terms—Business English, Maritime Universities, talents training, innovative training modes

I. INTRODUCTION

Business English major aims to cultivate compound and applicable talents who have a solid foundation in English with international perspectives and humanistic qualities, master basic theories and knowledge of Linguistics, Economics, Management, Law (International Commercial Law), and are familiar with the rules and conventions of international business with English application ability, business operation ability, cross-cultural communication ability, speculative and creative ability and independent learning ability. It is the goal of Business English major to cultivate compound and applicable talents who have a solid foundation in English with international perspectives and humanistic qualities, master basic theories and knowledge of Linguistics, Economics, Management, Law (International Commercial Law), and are familiar with the rules and conventions of international business with English application ability, business operation ability, cross-cultural communication ability, speculative and creative ability and independent learning ability. In view of the training modes of Business English talents, many experts at home and abroad have done researches, put forward valuable ideas, and pointed out instructive directions for cultivating Business English talents. However, Business English talents training are far behind the development of culture, economy and politics currently.

Therefore, in order to innovate Business English talents training modes and promote the development of Zhoushan's marine industries, based on existing researches at home and abroad, this thesis attempts to analyze curriculum construction, teaching content and reform methods of Business English major in marine universities. And this thesis mainly takes Zhejiang Ocean University as an example to make positive contribution to exploring innovative talents training modes of Business English major in marine universities, and promoting the development of Zhoushan's marine economy. This thesis are divided into 3 parts. Part 1 introduces the background, significance and current situation on cultivating Business English talents of maritime universities. Part 2 is an experimental research on current situation of cultivating Business English talents in Zhejiang Ocean University. And some suggestions on cultivating Business English talents of maritime universities are mentioned in part 3.

II. CURRENT SITUATION ON CULTIVATING BUSINESS ENGLISH TALENTS OF MARITIME UNIVERSITY

Since Business English major was approved to be set by the Ministry of Education, this major has gone into the process of rapid growth. How to cultivate Business English talents has become a hot topic in society. In recent years, many universities have actively explored the reform of English major and set up Business English major to provide

more compound language talents to the competitive market. Through years of exploration, the Business English training modes has been into the initial stage. Business English major now mainly use case study and practical teaching as useful ways to establish a curriculum system of Business English major, that combines language skills, business knowledge, and cross-cultural ability(Ellis, 2002).

Recent years, with the rapid development of marine economy and foreign trade, the demand for Business English talents has risen rapidly. During international communication, Business English plays an important role in foreign trade. It is used in many areas when negotiating, formulating agreements, signing contracts, etc. At the same time, the "One Belt and One Road" policy powerfully benefits the development of marine economy, especially in Zhoushan. The Business English major has a broad prospect. However, there are still many problems during the Business English talents training in China which will affect the employment of Business English major students to some extent.

First, the majority of universities and training organizations don't use original teaching materials, and have no clear teaching goals (Schleppegrell &Royster, 1990). A lot of efforts and reforms have been made to improve the efficiency of teaching, but students' practical ability of using English language still remains poor(Song Jianqing, 2012). Teachers spend most of time explaining business vocabularies and international trade theories which are too abstract to be understood. Over time, students will gradually lose their interest. Secondly, traditional Business English courses are still similar to traditional English teaching. There is even no difference from common public English lessons in university. Compared with general English major students, Business English major students do not have comparative advantages. Third, most courses are teacher-centered (Gborsong, et al, 2015). Traditional teaching modes ignore students' needs during talents training and limit their future academic and career development. When it comes to real business after the students graduate, the learned knowledge become unusable.

III. AN EXPERIMENTAL RESEARCH ON CURRENT SITUATION OF CULTIVATING BUSINESS ENGLISH TALENTS IN ZHEJIANG OCEAN UNIVERSITY

In this thesis, some researches are done on current situation of cultivating Business English talents in Zhejiang Ocean University. One is on students of Business English major in Zhejiang Ocean University through questionnaires to probe into current teaching deficiencies from students' perspective. The other research adopts telephone interview and live interview to analyze the demand of the enterprises of marine industries for Business English talents.

A. Research on Students of Business English Major in Zhejiang Ocean University

This research got 33 questionnaires from Business English graduates in Zhejiang Ocean University to obtain feedback on Zhejiang Ocean University's Business English teaching quality. The main contents of the questionnaire are about graduates' current working position, their evaluation of university' education on Business English, and their problems during work. Through this research, the authors aim to find out the actual employment situation of Business English graduates. After collecting the data and analyzing, marine universities can more easily adjust their Business English talents cultivating modes to enhance Business English graduates' competitiveness.

From the questionnaires, according to chart 1, when applying for a job, Business English graduates know little about the enterprise and are lack of relevant abilities.

CHART 1
THE PUZZLING FACTOR IN APPLYING FOR A JOB

Options	Amount	Proportion
Inadequate school career guidance	10	30.3%
Difference in major and job position	12	36.36%
Little known about the enterprise	16	48.48%
Lack of ability	15	45.45%
Others	4	12.12%

According to chart 2, most of the graduates reflect that their lack of English language skills(listening, translation, reading, speaking, writing, etc.), business operation skills(international trade terms, documents, quotations, etc.) and cross-cultural business communication skills(business etiquette, business negotiation, etc.).

CHART 2
SKILL NEEDED MOST IN WORK

Options	Amount	Proportion
A. Language skills (listening, translation, reading, speaking, writing, etc.)	16	48.48%
B. Business operation skills (operation of international trade terms, documents, quotations, etc.)	14	42.42%
C. Business theoretical knowledge (international trade terms, documents, international cargo transportation, etc.)	12	36.36%
D. Cross-cultural business communication skills (business etiquette, business negotiation, etc.)	13	39.39%
E. Others	4	12.12%

According to chart 3, the majority of graduates also reflect the importance of communication skills, problem-solving skills and Business English relevant knowledge.

CHART 3
THE MOST IMPORTANT SKILLS IN WORK

Options	Amount	Proportion
A. Business English major knowledge	21	63.64%
B. Responsibility	12	36.36%
C. Communication skill	28	84.85%
D. Innovation	8	24.24%
E. Teamwork	18	54.55%
F. Ability to solve problems	25	75.76%

They also put forward some suggestions on the talents training modes. One is to provide practical training, the other one is to train their ability on computer to develop students' competitiveness.

B.   Research on Demand of Zhoushan Local Maritime Enterprises for Business English Talents

In this research, we interviewed six marine related enterprises in Zhoushan which have demand for Business English talents. The purposes of the research on Zhoushan local maritime enterprises are mainly as follows:

• Investigate the needs for Business English talents in Zhoushan marine industries, and solve the problem that enterprises can not "go out" because of the shortage of Business English talents, thus to promote the development of Zhoushan marine industries.

• Provide reliable data for relevant government departments in Zhoushan so that the government departments can carry out specific policies to promote the development of Zhoushan Free Trade Zone and the rapid implementation of the "One Belt and One Road".

• Provide reference for marine universities and related training institutions to train compound Business English talents.

• Provide reference for marine universities' Business English major students to encourage them to learn more relevant professional skills so that they can get more opportunities to get better employment.

The findings of the research are based on the interviews. And enterprises' needs and requirements for Business English graduates can be concluded as follows:

• Generally speaking, the enterprises don't emphasize much on employees' educational background. Some managerial positions such as managers and supervisors may require higher degrees. Although the requirements for educational background are not high, most of positions require working experience. It may be adverse for current graduates.

• The requirements of employees' English ability are mainly determined by the nature of the work. Most enterprises require Business English graduates to have good English listening and speaking ability and effective business communication skill with CET-4 certificate or even CET-6. Enterprises also put forward certain requirements on the computer capabilities that graduates should be proficient in office software.

• For different positions, there are other specific requirements. For example, foreign trade clerks should be familiar with the process of foreign trade business and have the ability to do business operations independently. The foreign trade document specialists shall be familiar with business activities in connection with documentary.

• The comprehensive quality requirement of the employees is one of the aspects that enterprises pay much attention to. It can be reflected in employees' working attitude, working ability, communication ability, etc. It can be specifically expressed as: hard working, confident, responsible, innovative, cooperative, broad-minded and so on.

Besides, as to the current Business English training modes, the enterprises put forward some suggestions for reference to universities:

• Universities should set up clear teaching target and requirement for students' general abilities, and distinguish different knowledge and skills for different positions.

• Strengthen students' oral English training, and develop their ability to communicate in English. Students should obtain CET-4 and CET-6 certificate, as well as professional certificates, such as TEM-4, TEM-8, BEC. Students' business management skills shall also be developed which will benefit them for their career in the long term.

• Improve the comprehensive quality of students and cultivate students with good ethics. Graduates should not only have good professional ability, but also sound personality. Encourage students to take part in social activities such as competitions and volunteer activities during holidays.

• Strengthen cooperation with enterprises to achieve close interaction. Students should do internship in advance, to help them recognize their advantages, and find the job orientation for the future.

C.   Analysis of the Research Results

From the research on Business English graduates, the author finds out that, when it comes to job hunting, the majority of graduates believe that effort and careful preparation will bring opportunity. It can be shown that the demand for Business English graduates is relatively large. The graduates have promising employment prospects and optimistic employment situation. The majority of graduates think that they are competent for their work and they are making constant progress by studying and practicing. For graduates, sometimes it is more important to achieve practical

opportunities and gain working experience rather than care about salary when they first start to engage in foreign trade. Also graduates find that spoken English is very important during their work, but they seemed to practice little in class. At the same time, some specialized courses, such as Foreign Trade Correspondence, International Trade Affairs are very useful during their present work. Besides, interpersonal skills, social etiquette and computer proficiency are considered to be important in their daily work.

From the research on enterprises of Zhoushan marine industries, it can be seen that, the enterprises have little demand for Business English talents. They seldom distinguish students between English major and Business English major in the recruitment. One of the reasons is that, in the view of them, both Business English major students and English major students have basic English ability to listen, speak and write English. What the enterprises value most are students with good English language skills, especially spoken English, and business operation and communication skills. Business English students can not stand out. The second reason is the problem of the curriculum of Business English major. The Business English training is still at exploring stage. There are still problems like insufficient teaching and poor teaching resources. Enterprises of marine industries, such as shipping agent and forwarder shipping agent, have professional business terminology which Business English major students have not studied systematically. Thirdly, many Business English major students are confused about what Business English major should focus on. Most students pay too much attention to language learning instead of business operation skills.

The results of the two researches are important basis for the curriculum development and reform in the future, and are valuable reference. To meet the requirements of the enterprises, the training modes of Business English major need to be improved.

IV. SUGGESTIONS ON CULTIVATING BUSINESS ENGLISH TALENTS OF MARITIME UNIVERSITY

When cultivating Business English talents, we must pay attention to the comprehensive training of business operation skills, language skills and cultural customs. Business English talents should be familiar with capricious international business environment, and participate in international market with more professional knowledge. And in this thesis, there are mainly three suggestions on cultivating Business English talents of maritime universities, those are, adjusting teaching materials and innovating courses, strengthening the second foreign language teaching, and strengthening the cooperation between university and enterprise.

A. Adjusting Teaching Materials and Innovating Courses

Appropriate teaching materials can broaden learners' major knowledge, develop their ability of communication and practice, motivate their learning interest and promote them to raise the ability of self-study, so as to cultivate high-quality Business English talents to fulfill the need of the new century. In the past 20 years, the construction of Business English teaching materials in our country has developed rapidly. There are numerous series of Business English teaching materials in publishers. However, most of them sold in the market have disadvantages, such as inaccuracy, obsolescence and incompatibility, There is a lot to be improved.

Professional teaching materials should be practical, pertinent, informative, communicative, interesting and scientific. Appropriate Business English teaching materials should focus on practicability, equipped with a large number of practical training of language skills and business skills. The content should be real and novel, keep pace with the era, and fully reflect the international business activities. The materials should contain business culture and cross-cultural communication skills which are the key to determining the success of business activities and are vital parts of Business English teaching. The teaching materials must contain teachers' books, students' books, multimedia courseware, training software and database of exercises which benefit class teaching from multi-aspect and raise students' interest of self-learning to shift the teaching center from teachers to students.

Traditional general higher education is based on disciplines. It focuses on the teaching of comprehensive and systematic theoretical knowledge. Theoretical teaching occupies a large part of the curriculum, which leads to weak practical ability of students. According to the teaching objectives of Business English majors, Business English teaching should change the traditional way, and it should take the career requirements of the students as the center. It is important to achieve a transition from simply teaching English and business theory to training business employment skills and innovation capabilities, and build a curriculum system that focuses on cultivating students' abilities in application.

ESP is defined as an approach to language teaching in which all decisions as to content and method are based on the learner's reason for learning (Hutchinson &Waters, 1987). So Business English courses should be different from traditional courses. Traditional courses are defined as one way, that is teacher's teaching to students. New courses should be summarized as two-way, that is interaction between teacher and student during study. Teacher should provide students both knowledge in the text and varied activities, including business negotiation simulation, presentation, etc. The courses should aim at cultivating students' application ability by integrating and optimizing teaching content, merging and deleting repetitive, overlapping, similar and outdated content. Teachers should focus on adopting flexible and diverse teaching methods such as heuristic learning, interactive learning, discussion, case analysis, scenario simulation, role-playing and project teaching. At the same time, teachers can carry out various forms of teaching

activities to stimulate students' interest. Teachers should make full use of modern teaching methods such as multimedia, network, and training software to achieve three-dimensional teaching and teaching efficiency.

B.   Strengthening the Second Foreign Language Teaching

The second foreign language teaching is one of the important parts of Business English teaching. With the increasing demand for foreign language talents in the society, more and more attention has been paid to it. The second foreign language is considered as the enhancement of students' ability. Most universities set courses of the second foreign language, which are Japanese, French, and Russian. Students can master certain regularities and grasp the internal connection of language learning when learning the second foreign language. Zhoushan has advantages as an excellent port city. Its superior geographical location and abundant foreign trade resources attract more and more enterprises from all over the world to come to Zhoushan. It has been proved that foreign language talents who master bilingual languages are more competitive than others.

Nowadays, with the development of globalization, learning multiple languages has become a certain trend. While learning a language, we are also learning its culture. The new linguistic learning helps us to understand the differences in culture so that we can have a good understanding of ideas from the other perspective. Learning a second language can enable us to look at problems from different perspectives and to solve problems more creatively. As a tool for communication, learning a second language is the process of training the brain to accept new ideas and new knowledge, it can improve the cognitive ability and memory.

Learning a second foreign language can bring more employment options for Business English major students. The severe employment situation makes graduates realize the importance of multi-language and multi-disciplinary learning. Through learning the second foreign language, Business English major students can develop their language skills. More importantly, with language as a tool, students can play a promoting role in various fields, make the country's technology, culture and knowledge be clearly expressed to other countries.

C.   Strengthening the Cooperation between University and Enterprise

Strengthening the cooperation between university and enterprise can achieve a seamless transition from courses to practice, and provide students opportunity to participate in business operations. Building a diversified, multi-level training system that combines courses and practical training will train students with unique valuable experiences to make best use of the contents and skills learned in the classroom. This kind of teaching method focuses on the real business environment and provides students specific tasks, such as how to deal with customers' complaints, how to negotiate a contract, etc.

The training projects should be based on the marine industries in Zhoushan so that students can experience in the real business in advance to develop their Business English operation ability. On the one hand, the training is similar to students' future work. The experience can benefit students' career in the future. On the other hand, it can train students' cooperative ability, improve their communication skills, and cultivate their professionalism. By training in the foreign trade enterprises of marine industries, traditional Business English teaching can better transferred from theoretical teaching to practical teaching.

It is also essential to strengthen the construction of teaching staff and cultivate dual-qualified teachers. Teachers can participate in business training related to Business English major to enhance their professional skills so as to improve teaching effectiveness. By training in the real business, teachers can have a better understanding of the knowledge from books and real business operation. It can make up for the deficiencies that the teachers do not understand business and foreign trade knowledge, and it can change the situation that teachers just teach students theoretical things.

It is another powerful measure to cultivate Business English talents by enterprises providing courses to students. The enterprise staff with much experience in the business environment deliver the courses to students. They can use their ability of foreign trade in their work fluently and know much about how to deal with real business. Compared with traditional courses, students can learn more about enterprise culture, business operation and problems dealing in this way, they can have a better understanding of what their future work is about and get prepared in advance.

On July 27, 2017, Putuo Professional Education Group in Zhoushan was established covering resources of education, tourism, business, and media. Its establishment is the further cooperation between university enterprise and student to achieve resource sharing, market sharing, information sharing and even talents sharing. It can help to build a close university-enterprise cooperation community which can achieve win-win situation. The establishment of Putuo Professional Education Group plays an effective role in promoting the cooperation between university and enterprise. In the future, it can help to develop projects including teachers learning in enterprises, students practising in enterprises, enterprises providing courses to students, etc.

V.   Conclusion

In conclusion, this thesis takes Zhejiang Ocean University as an example based on exploration of existing problems in the training modes of Business English talents in marine universities and put forward some suggestions and opinions for reference. The thesis actively explores innovative modes for the cultivation of Business English talents, helps to optimize the setting of Business English courses, and strengthens the practical training to improve the practical

application ability of Business English students to adapt to the rapid development of China's marine economy and the changing needs of the talent market.

However, due to the author' limited ability, some specific problems have not been solved yet. For example, some enterprises may not be willing to cooperate with universities. Besides, it may be difficult to see significant results in a short period of time. This research is still in its infancy and requires a lot more time. And the author will do more researches if further exploration is needed.

APPENDIX.   QUESTIONNAIRE FOR BUSINESS ENGLISH GRADUATES

1. What is your current job position?
    A. Foreign trade
    B. English teaching
    C. Translation
    D. Business assistant and secretary
    E. Others
2. What do you think is the most puzzling factor in applying job?
    A. Inadequate school career guidance
    B. Difference in major and job position
    C. Little known about the enterprise
    D. Lack of ability
3. Have you ever met problems caused by inadequate major knowledge during your work?
    A. Yes
    B. No
4. What do you think are the reasons of problems during work due to inadequate major knowledge?
    A. My own reason
    B. The knowledge hasn't been taught in class
    C. Other reasons
5. Which skill do you lack most?
    A. Language skills (listening, translation, reading, speaking, writing, etc.)
    B. Business operation skills (operation of international trade terms, documents, quotations, etc.)
    C. Business theoretical knowledge (international trade terms, documents, international cargo transportation, etc.)
    D. Cross-cultural business communication skills (business etiquette, business negotiation, etc.)
    E. Others
6. What do you think should be the center of Business English teaching?
    A. Language skills (listening, translation, reading, speaking, writing, etc.)
    B. Business operation skills (operation of international trade terms, documents, quotations, etc.)
    C. Business theoretical knowledge (international trade terms, documents, international cargo transportation, etc.)
    D. Cross-cultural business communication skills (business etiquette, business negotiation, etc.)
    E. Others
7. Which skill do you think enterprises value most?
    A. Language skills (listening, translation, reading, speaking, writing, etc.)
    B. Business operation skills (operation of international trade terms, documents, quotations, etc.)
    C. Business theoretical knowledge (international trade terms, documents, international cargo transportation, etc.)
    D. Cross-cultural business communication skills (business etiquette, business negotiation, etc.)
    E. Others
8. Please select three of the most important skills in work?
    A. Business English major knowledge
    B. Responsibility
    C. Communication skill
    D. Innovation
    E. Teamwork
    F. Ability to solve problems
9. Please select three of the most important certificates to apply for work?
    A. Customs Broker Certificate
    B. Tour Guide Certificate
    C. BEC Certificate
    D. Certificate for Documentary Credit Specialists
    E. Secretary's Certificate
    F. Second-level Certificate for National Computer
    G. Logistics Certificate
    H. CET-4 and CET-6

I. TEM-4 and TEM-8

J. Teacher qualification certificate

K. Others

10. What advice do you have for current Business English talents training?

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Culture and Innovation in Essay Writing Project: EFL Students' Perceptions

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Abstract—Two important concepts in education nowadays are "culture" and "innovation." Culture is important as it goes along with the way people think, feel, and do and their phases of life, while innovation is important as it suggests development. In the context of education in the globalization, culture reflects identity, while innovation reflects creative products beyond conventional practices. This small-scale study examined EFL students' perceptions on the essay writing project incorporating both culture and innovation. It involved 25 students attending an essay writing course in the English Department of a state university in Indonesia, Following the completion of the teaching and learning actvites: the students' perceptions were elicited on the basis of three criteria: development of idea for writing, meaningfulness of the writing project, and writing competence of the students. The results showed that the EFL students perceived combination of local culture and innovation in the form of video making helped them developing essays. They also thought that the essay writing project was meaningful and they felt that their writing competence improved after following the writing project.

Index Terms—culture, innovation, essay writing, essay writing project

I. INTRODUCTION

Embracing culture and innovation in education is like bringing together things inherited from the past and the things wanted to be in the future. Combination of the two concepts requires the maintenance of the cultural contents and at the same time the presentation of the cultural contents in a new way. According to Hinkel (1999), "there are nearly as many definitions of culture as there are fields of inquiry into human societies, groups, systems, behaviors, and activities" (p. 1). More specifically, the term *culture* can be defined as "the customs and beliefs, art, way of life and social organization of a particular country or group" (Wehmeier, 2005, p. 373). Meanwhile, the term *innovation* refers to "the introduction of new things, ideas, or ways of doing something" (Wehmeier, 2005, p. 801). This article aims to integrate culture and innovation by focusing on cultural contents and the way to present the cultural contents.

A review of the literature suggests that culture and language are interrelated. The relationship between language and culture is shown vividly in Brown's (2001) words, suggesting that "one cannot separate the two without losing the significance of either language or culture" (p. 165, cited in Zu & Kong, 2009). Theoretically, there are opposing views with regard to the role of culture in second language learning. On the one hand, it is emphasized that local culture should be given a priority. Thus, when teaching English, English language teachers should use the target language as a means to deliver messages about the speakers' culture, preserving their cultural identity. This is supported by the understanding that English-as-a-foreign-language (EFL) learners have been grown up in their own culture. Therefore, the way they think, feel, and act is the product of their own culture and it affects how they learn the target language. For example, Imran's (2005, p.8) study showed that EFL learners' cultural background affected their reading performance in a negative way. She found out that EFL learners would not interact much in the instructional process and would not contribute to class discussion regardless of their knowledge on the topic due to their cultural resistance (i.e., "unwillingness to be put at risk of being mocked by their classmates").

On the other hand, the proponents of the importance of target culture suggest that when teaching English, English language teachers are expected to use target culture as a means to learn the language, or vice versa, using the English language to learn the target culture. According to Luciana (2005) target language culture should be emphasized over local language culture because the teaching of English in general aims at preparing learners to take part in the era of globalization. She provided four reasons for the inclusion of target language culture, namely "the development of cultural platform; students' broadmindedness; intelligibiliity consideration; and the nature of the English language heavily laden with its culture" (p. 78). In this sense, based on Luciana's proposals, target culture may be used to enrich the learners' awareness of their own culture, to make them understand that there is another culture beyond their daily life, to develop competences in using English language which is globally comprehensible, and to avoid problem of misunderstanding. In Luciana's words, English and (culture content) that should be taught to EFL learners is one that can help them "see and explore the world", not "*English* that confines them in their own world" (p. 78).

Apart from the option that either the local culture or the target culture should be taught, there is another alternative that combines the local culture and target culture. The combination of local culture and target culture conforms to the idea proposed by Kramsch (1998). Kramsch suggested an alternative of the inclusion of both types of culture contents

in order to establish awareness of 'interculturality.' Interculturality refers to the integration of knowledge of target language culture and local language culture in the context of language learning. Thus, learners can use their knowledge of local culture as a basis for understanding target culture. In Kramsch's (1998) words, it is used to refer to "the ability to acquire another person's language and understand someone's culture while at the same time retaining one's own" (p. 81). The opinions of the teachers also conform to the results of a research study conducted by Asmiyah (2009). In her study of the inclusion of Islamic topic for the teaching of English, she found out that Islamic topics cannot be included exclusively without integration with target language culture. Thus, to promote interculturality, she recommended that EFL learners of from Islamic colleges be taught using more varied contents, including Islamic and Western culture contents.

In addition to the types of culture contents to be included in ELT, an important issue deals with the topics that need to be included when using culture contents. With regard to topics for culture contents, it is worthwhile to consider the topics proposed by Cortazzi and Jin (1999, p. 203) as can be seen in Table 1.

TABLE I
TOPICS FOR CULTURE CONTENTS

No	Topics
1	Social identity and social groups (social class, regional identity, ethnic minorities)
2	Social interaction (differing levels of formality)
3	Belief and behavior (moral, religious beliefs, daily routines)
4	Social and political institutions (state institutions, health care, law and order, social security, local government)
5	Socialization and the life cycle (families, schools, employment, rites of passages)
6	National history (historical and contemporary events seen as markers of national identity)
7	National geography (geographic factors seen as being significant by members)
8	Stereotypes and national identity (what is "typical," symbols of national stereotypes)

(Cortazzi & Jin, 1999, p. 203)

It has been shown in the literature that cultural contents can be presented in various ways in the teaching of language. Rokhyati (2005) stated that when teaching English, cultural contents can be introduced through the use of authentic texts. However, she added that the authentic texts to be used to teach English should be "suitable for the students' level of competence and understanding" (p. 55). This is also the case with the textbooks used in the teaching of English. In their analysis of a textbook used in the teaching of English in China, *Learning English,* Zu and Kong (2009, p. 116) found out that materials oriented to target culture are introduced directly (e.g., through "words accompanied by pictures" and "situational dialogs") and indirectly (e.g., through "values, attitudes, and world outlooks that are vital to the understanding of language"). Thus, culture contents have been presented in a conventional way by using printed materials in the forms of texts and textbooks.

In this study, the students were provided with practices in using local culture contents in a writing project. Local culture contents are used because they are available in the students' environment, accessible by the medium owned by the students, and, thus, more practical than the target culture contents. The innovative element in this project concerns with the process of video-making of the settings related to the topics and the presentation of the students' essays. The final products of the students' essays are in the form of printed texts based on video recordings of topics on culture contents. Some previous studies (e.g., Cahyono & Rahayu, 2015; Nurcahyasari, 2015) addressed the use of videos in English language teaching. More particularly, Nurcahyasari (2015) suggested some procedures in applying materials from the videos for teaching various English language skills. In contrast, the present study deals with the videos made by the students to help themselves develop ideas in writing. Meanwhile, Cahyono and Rahayu (2015) reported the use of videos in supporting the students to work with process-analysis essay. The videos used in their study were made by the students who wrote the essay. Unlike Cahyono and Rahayu's study, this study focuses on the use of video to help students develop their ability in writing an exemplification essay.

Reflecting upon the background, this study examined the students' perceptions on the culturally and technologically oriented essay writing projects. It has three research questions as follows:

1. How do the students perceive the video-making project as a means of developing ideas for their essays?
2. How do the students perceive the meaningfulness of the essay writing project?
3. How do the students perceive their competence after working on the essay writing project?

II. METHOD

This study used a survey method to find out students' perception on the culturally and technologically oriented essay writing project. It involved 25 students who were attending *Essay Writing* course at *Universitas Negeri Malang* at the first semester of 2017/2018 academic year. At the University, writing skill is taught in a series of three courses: *Paragraph Writing, Essay Writing*, and *Argumentative Writing.* In *Essay Writing* course, in particular, students learn to write essays of five development patterns: exemplification, comparison and contrast, classification, process-analysis, and cause and effect analysis (Catalogue of the Department of English, 2017). This study specifically dealt with the exemplification essay, a five-paragraph essay which is developed by using examples. The first paragraph is the

introduction which contains the thesis statement. The second, third, and fourth paragraphs are developmental paragraphs, or the body part of the essay. The last paragraph is the concluding paragraph.

The exemplification essay was taught in six sessions (see Table 2 for the teaching schedule). In the first session, students were introduced to the theoretical basis of the exemplification essay.

TABLE II
THE TEACHING SCHEDULE

Session	Activities
1	introduction to example essay, explanation on the project, and group discussion of the topic
2	Practice on composition skills, analysis of model essay, and group discussion of the documentation plan
3	Presentation on the documented examples (by some groups) and individual essay writing (the introductory paragraph and developmental paragraph 1)
4	Presentation on the documented examples (by the rest of the groups); teacher feedback on thesis statement and topic sentence of the first development paragraph); and individual essay writing (developmental paragraphs 2 & 3, and the concluding paragraph)
5	Teacher feedback on topic sentences of the second and third development paragraphs and the concluding paragraph
6	Submission of the printed essay of the students and distribution of questionnaire on students' perception on the project on culture and innovation on essay writing

To teach how to write an exemplification essay, the textbook on "The Exemplification Essay" from Smalley, Ruetten, and Kozyrev (2001, pp. 137-147) were used as the material. From the textboo, the students read a model text entitled "Americans are Friendly to Strangers." They were also informed that they had to work on a culturally and technologically oriented writing project with the following instructions:

1. Work in groups of 3, 4, or 5 students to discuss about a topic for an essay.
2. Write a thesis statement showing a method of development by using examples.
3. Document the examples in the form of using videos, pictures, or drawings.
4. Do the documentation process in groups and write the essay individually.

In the second session, they were given practices on composition skills from the same source. They learned how to write "Transitions between Paragraphs" (Smalley et al., 2001, pp. 143-144). They were also asked to read another model of exemplification essay entitled "Words that Camouflage." In the end of this session, they were asked to work with members of their groups to discuss the plan for the documentation of the settings related to the topics of their essays. There were six groups of students.

In the third and fourth sessions, the students presented the documented settings in the forms of movies and images delivered through power points. The six groups of students presented six topics of exemplification essays, namely:

1. Malang Iconic Parks (4 students)
2. Car Free Day at Idjen Boulevard, Malang (4 students)
3. The Most Famous Universities in Malang (4 students)
4. The Iconic Food of Malang (4 students)
5. Facilities at English Self-Access Centre, Universitas Negeri Malang (5 students)
6. The Most Frequently Visited Canteens at Universitas Negeri Malang (4 students)

Based on the types of topics proposed by Cortazzi and Jin (1999), the topics of the students' essays can be included into "belief and behavior" (Topic 2), "social and political institutions" (i.e., Topics 3, 5, and 6), and "stereotypes and national identity" (i.e., Topics 1 & 4).

Following the presentation of the documented settings in the third session, the students were asked to write the introductory paragraph and the first developmental paragraph individually. After the presentation of the documented settings in the fourth session, the students showed the drafts of their individual essays assigned in the previous session. They got feedback from the lecturer regarding their thesis statement and topic sentence, Furthermore, the students were asked to continue working on their essays, covering the second and third developmental paragraphs and the concluding paragraph.

In the fifth session, the students got feedback on their second and third developmental paragraphs focusing on the relevance of the topic sentences and the use of transition markers between paragraphs. They were also informed that they had to submit their printed essays in the next session. In the sixth session, they students submitted their essays to the lecturer. One of the students' essays on "The Most Famous Universities in Malang" was used as an example as attached in Appendix A.

They were then given a questionnaire to elicit their perceptions on the Culturally and Technologically Oriented Essay Writing Project (See the Questionnaire in Appendix B). The questionnaire, which consisted of three parts, aimed to know how the students see the process in developing ideas into essay in relation to the essay writing project. The first part of the questionnaire had four questions. The questions dealt with whether or not the process of video-making project helped them in (1) determining the topic for the essay, (2) developing the topic in the thesis statement, (3) expanding the thesis statement into the developmental paragraphs, and (4) writing the concluding paragraph.

The second part of the questionnaire asked the students' perceptions on the *meaningfulness* of the essay writing activities (5 items), while the third part asked the students regarding their *competence* in writing (5 items). The two parts of the questionnaire were based on Likert-scale with five options varying from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree." The questionnaire was based on one made by Yujing (2015) and modified to suit the purpose of this study. All of the 25 students responded to the questionnaire.

III. RESULTS

The three research questions are used as a basis to present the results of this study. The first research question concerns how the students perceived the video-making project as a means of developing ideas for their essays. There were four questions in the first part. The students had to answer the questions by choosing the options "Yes" or "No." Empty space was provided for them to write the reasons for their answers, if they thought it was necessary. The students' answers to the four questions are shown in Table 3.

TABLE III
EFL STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS ON THE DEVELOPMENT OF IDEAS INTO ESSAY

NNo	Questions	"Yes"		"No"	
		N	%	N	%
1	Did the process in the video-making project help you in determining the topic for your essay?	22	88	3	12
2	Did the process in the video-making project help you in developing your topic into the thesis statement of your essay	23	92	2	8
3	Did the process in the video-making project help you in expanding your thesis statement into the development paragraphs of your essay?	24	96	1	4
4	Did the process in the video-making project help you in writing the concluding paragraph of your essay?	17	68	8	32

Table 3 shows that the majority of the students perceived the video-making project helped them in developing ideas for their essays with the exception of the concluding paragraph. This means that the video-making project help them in determining the topic for their essay (Question #1), in developing their topic into the thesis statement of their essay (Question #2), in expanding their thesis statement into the development paragraphs of their essay (Question #3), with the total number of 22(88%), 23 (92%), and 24 (96%) of the students, respectively.

However, with regard to the question on whether or not the video-making project helped them in writing the concluding paragraph of their essay (Question #4), about one-third of the students (32%) thought that they were not helped by the video-making project. The examination of the students' reasons for their perception revealed that these students have been helped by their thesis statement (Student 6) or the developmental paragraphs (Students 8, 10, 11 & 15). For example, Student 6 stated, "No, because I conclude my paragraph … from the thesis statement and topic I already talk in the previous paragraph," meanwhile Student 8 stated, "No, because basically the conclusion is taken by concluding developmental paragraphs and giving/adding my opinion." In addition, beyond the two reasons, one student (Student 20) found difficulty in writing the concluding paragraph regardless of the video-making project. This student stated, "No, because when I did my concluding paragraph I still find it hard."

The second research question deals with how the students perceived the meaningfulness of the essay writing project. There were five questionnaire items in this part. Responses to the options were given values from 5 ("strongly agree") to 1 (strongly disagree). However, for Questionnaire Item #2 the reverse value was given due to the opposite nature of the item. This item stated that "The work I do in essay writing class is a waste of time" which expected the students' disagreement. The average score of the students' responses for each questionnaire item is shown in Table 4.

TABLE IV
EFL STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS ON THE MEANINGFULNESS OF ESSAY WRITING PROJECT

No	Questionnaire Items	Total value	N	Average
1	The work I do for Essay writing class is valuable to me.	113	25	4.52
2	The work I do in Essay writing class is a waste of time.	110	25	4.40
3	The activities during the writing class improve my understanding of the exemplification essay.	105	25	4.20
4	Making video project prepared me for the essay writing activity.	103	25	4.12
5	Watching the video that has been made is helpful for the essay writing process.	107	25	4.28

Table 4 shows that all of the students' responses to the questions are favourable as all of the scores are above 4 value. Regarding Questionnaire Item #1, the students perceived that they were in between *agreed* and *strongly agreed*, meaning that the work they did for essay writing class was valuable for them. For Questionnaire Item #2, due to the opposite nature of the question, the students' average score indicated that they *disagreed* with the statement that the work they did in essay writing class is a waste of time. Pertaining to Questionnaire Item #3, it was found out that the students *agreed* that the activities during the writing class improved their understanding of the exemplification essay.

Furthermore, students' responses to Questionnaire Items #4 and #5 indicated they *agreed* that making video project prepared them for the essay writing activity and watching the video that they made was helpful for the essay writing process. Thus, the analysis of the students' responses suggested that they have positive perceptions toward the meaningfulness of the implementation of the essay writing project.

The third research question pertains to the students' perception on their competence after working on the essay writing project. The responses of the students to the five questions asking their perceptions of their competence are shown Table 5.

TABLE V
EFL STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS ON THEIR COMPETENCE IN ESSAY WRITING

No	Questionnaire Items	Total value	N	Average
6	I can do well in my essay writing class.	94	25	3.76
7	I am confident about my ability to write an exemplification essay.	94	25	3.76
8	Collaborative work in video-making helps me to improve my writing.	91	25	3.64
9	Because of the project, I can easily understand how to write an exemplification essay.	103	25	4.12
10	I have what it takes to do well in essay writing class.	99	25	3.96

Table 5 depicts that all of the students' average score for the five questions are close to 4 value, meaning that they all have positive perceptions about their competence related to the Essay Writing. More specifically, the table showed that the students *agreed* that they could do well in their essay writing class (Questionnaire Item #6) and they also agreed that they were confident about their ability to write an exemplification essay (Questionnaire Item #7). Moreover, they thought that collaborative work in video-making helped them to improve their writing (Questionnaire Item #8). They also perceived that the project in essay writing enabled them to understand how to write an exemplification easily (Questionnaire Item #9). Finally, the table shows that the students agreed that they had what it takes to do well in the essay writing class (Questionnaire Item #10). All in all, the students believed that they achieved good competence dealing with their ability in essay writing and one of the reasons for this was their participation in the essay writing project.

IV. DISCUSSION

This study has been situated in the context of integrating culture and innovation in ELT, more particularly in the teaching of exemplification essay writing. The culture element was reflected in the topics of the students' essays, while the innovation was apparent from the use of technology in the form of student-made videos. The results of the analysis are highlighted in reference to the three research questions.

The first research question deals with how the students perceived the video-making project as a means of developing ideas for their essays. An essay is a composition containing three parts: the introduction which contains the thesis statement, the body of the essay or the developmental paragraphs, and the conclusion (Smalley et al., 2001; Oshima & Hogue, 2007). The results of the study shows that students perceived that the process they undertook in video-making guided them in determining the topics of their essays, developing the topic into thesis statement, developing thesis statement into developmental paragraphs, and concluding the essays. The video-making process was beneficial in helping the students to write in a foreign language, a skill which is considered to be very complex (Richards & Renandya, 2002). Thus, the difficulty in developing ideas in writing which is usually encountered by EFL learners can be overcome through the implementation of the essay writing project, with an element of video-making. The use of the video in ELT in this study is in line with the strategies in using videos suggested by Nurcahyasari (2015), while the inclusion of student-made videos in writing exemplification essays support a study conducted by Cahyono and Rahayu (2015) which shows that video-based tasks enabled the students to write process-analysis essays better.

Pertaining to the second research question, the result of the present study indicated that the students thought that the essay writing project was meaningful for them. The essaywriting project was assigned to the students through a series of stages: Discussing about a topic in groups (planning), writing a thesis statement leading to paragraph development by using examples (drafting), documenting the settings for the topic through video-making, and writing (revising) the essay individually. This means that the stages which reflect process writing were meaningful for the students. Moreover, the inclusion of the local cultures as the topic helped them in the process of writing. In fact, all of the groups of students working on the project decided to choose topics within the types of cultural contents proposed by Cortazzi and Jin (1999), namely "social and political institutions" (i.e., Famous Universities, Facilities at ESAC, UM, and Canteens), "stereotypes and national identity" (i.e., Iconic Parks & Foods), and "belief and behavior," (Car Free Day), with which the students were familiar. This study is in line with the result of the study conducted by (Cahyono, Amelia, & Mutiaraningrum, 2016) which shows that students found out easier to write about general and personal topics compared to writing academic topics.

In addition to the students' perception on the meaningfulness of the essay writing project, they students were also asked about their perception on their competence following the implementation of the writing project. In general, as the students perceived, their competence in writing exemplification essays were above the average. This happened in various aspects of essay writing, such as in taking part in the essay writing activities, in working collaboratively with

classmates, and in doing their best at the course. In reference to Hinkel's (1999) and Wehmeier's (2005, p. 373) concepts of cultures, the students have created their own culture in attending Essay Writing course as they thought that what they have conducted in the course encouraged them to think, feel and do "what it takes to do well" in the course. This is also evident from the innovative process in writing exemplification essays and the presentation of the essays which were viewed positively by the students.

<div align="center">V. CONCLUSION</div>

This study has integrated culture and innovation in essay writing course by focusing on cultural contents (i.e., topics of the essays) and the way to present the cultural contents (technologically oriented process in making videos related to the topics and the presentation of the essays). The culture and innovation elements were integrated in the project in writing exemplification essays. More importantly, it has examined the perceptions on the video-making project as a means of developing ideas for their essays, the meaningfulness of the essay writing project, and their competence after working on the essay writing project. Overall, the results of the study indicated the positive perceptions of the students. This means that the students were helped in some ways in the development of the essays by the process of video making. They also thought that the essay writing project was meaningful and they were confident about their competence in writing after following the essay writing project. A lesson learned from the implementation of this study is that topics related to culture contents (things which are usually seen as old-fashion) could be successfully integrated with technologically oriented process (things which are considered innovative). This implies that English language teachers should consider applying the two seemingly contradictory elements in English classrooms.

<div align="center">APPENDIX A. A SAMPLE ESSAY</div>

The Most Famous Universities in Malang, Indonesia

As "The City of Students," Malang has many universities. Among those universities, there are some which have been known as the most famous ones. Universitas Negeri Malang, University of Brawijaya, and University of Muhammadiyah Malang become the most famous universities in Malang due to their well-facilitated campuses.

With its motto, *The Learning University,* Universitas Negeri Malang or UM has been known as a campus that put the learning systems and activities in the top place. To support the students' learning, UM provides good facilities for them. There is a huge hall named Graha Cakrawala. It is not only used for graduation ceremony, but also used for students' activities and events such as competetions, conferences, and musical concerts. There are also courts for students to do some sports like basketball, futsal, tennis, and also volleyball. Even UM has a clean swimming pool and a football stadium. Students can improve their ability in sports using those facilities. For moslem students, UM provides a mosque named Al-Hikmah. Moslems can pray and follow the Islamic seminars here. UM also has a huge library with thousands of books inside. Students can look for information about their subjects in the library. Those facilities make UM famous and make students want to study there.

University of Brawijaya or UB is well-known as one of the best universities in Indonesia. With that predicate, UB tries to provide its students with the best facilitates. UB has a hall named Samantha Krida which is usually used for the graduation ceremony. It is also used for certain events, like competitions and conferences. UB also has a handsome rectorate building for administrational businesses. Students come to rectorate building when they need some problems with lectures schedules, the fees, and so on. However, UB also thinks about their moslem students. They provide a great mosque named Raden Patah. It has Javanese architecture, like most of the UB buildings. Raden Patah mosque is a clean and comfortable mosque where the moslems can pray. Nevertheless, UB has a very great library with thousands books as collections. With all of the facilities, UB becomes the favorite destination for the students to study at.

University of Muhammadiyah Malang or UMM is a famous private university in Malang. Being a private university does not make UMM be careless about their students' learning activities. On the other hand, UMM provides the students' learning with many good facilities. There is UMM Dome, a huge building with many functions. It can be used either for academic events like conferences or non academic events like musical concerts. UMM also supports their students in sports by providing sport facilities such as basketball court, futsal court and so on. There is also a big mosque named A.R Fachruddin for moslem students. Besides, UMM does not forget the students' activities in organizations. UMM has a Student Center, a comfortable building which provides a room for each organization. So the students do not need to seek for places when they want to gather with the members in an organization. Moreover, UMM has a big library which can support the students' learning with sources from thousand of books. With all of the facilities, UMM becomes famous and attracts many students to study there.

UM, UB, and UMM become famous because they have good facilities to support their students' learning. You should be proud if you are studying at one of these universities (By Salsabila Ramadhani Imanda).

APPENDIX B. THE QUESTIONNAIRE

***Instruction:* In this *Essay Writing* course, you were required to write an exemplification essay based on Culturally and Technologically Oriented Essay Writing Project. This questionnaire aims to know how you see the process in developing ideas into an essay. Please give your responses to the following questionnaire items.**

PART 1: Developing Ideas into Essay

1. Did the process in the video-making project help you in determining the topic for your essay?

a. Yes   b. No

Why (why not)? _____

2. Did the process in the video-making project help you in developing your topic into the thesis statement of your essay?

a. Yes   b. No

Why (why not)? _____

3. Did the process in the video-making project help you in expanding your thesis statement into the development paragraphs of your essay?

a. Yes   b. No

Why (why not)? _____

4. Did the process in the video-making project help you in writing the concluding paragraph of your essay?

a. Yes   b. No

Why (why not)? _____

Give your response by crossing the appropriate letter of the options.

PART 2: Meaningfulness

1. The work I do for Essay writing class is valuable to me.

a. Strongly agree   b. Agree   c. Neither agree nor disagree   d. Disagree   e. Strongly disagree

2. The work I do in Essay writing class is a waste of time.

a. Strongly agree   b. Agree   c. Neither agree nor disagree   d. Disagree   e. Strongly disagree

3. The activities during the writing class improve my understanding of the exemplification essay/.

a. Strongly agree   b. Agree   c. Neither agree nor disagree   d. Disagree   e. Strongly disagree

4. Making video project prepared me for the essay writing activity.

a. Strongly agree   b. Agree   c. Neither agree nor disagree   d. Disagree   e. Strongly disagree

5. Watching the video that has been made is helpful for the essay writing process.

a. Strongly agree   b. Agree   c. Neither agree nor disagree   d. Disagree   e. Strongly disagree

PART 3: Competence

6. I can do well in my essay writing class.

a. Strongly agree   b. Agree   c. Neither agree nor disagree   d. Disagree   e. Strongly disagree

7. I am confident about my ability to write an exemplification essay.

a. Strongly agree   b. Agree   c. Neither agree nor disagree   d. Disagree   e. Strongly disagree

8. Collaborative work in video-making helps me to improve my writing.

a. Strongly agree   b. Agree   c. Neither agree nor disagree   d. Disagree   e. Strongly disagree

9. Because of the project, I can easily understand how to write an exemplification essay.

a. Strongly agree   b. Agree   c. Neither agree nor disagree   d. Disagree   e. Strongly disagree

10. I have what it takes to do well in essay writing class.

a. Strongly agree   b. Agree   c. Neither agree nor disagree   d. Disagree   e. Strongly disagree

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An Investigation into the Development of Structure and Evidence Use in Argumentative Writing

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Abstract—This study aims to investigate EFL learners' argumentative writing based on structural elements in Toulmin model (1953, 2008). It also explores the overall use of evidence in supporting claims. It was found that claim and data were the basic structural elements used by Chinese EFL learners in constructing argumentative writing. The respective use of counterargument data and rebuttal was significantly correlated with the quality of argumentation. In argumentative reasoning, the types of evidence and the number of evidence used by participants were very limited. Logical analysis was found to be the most frequently used data to support claims. Less proficient learners' use of evidence was not effective or persuasive to produce valid argument. The findings provide useful insights into the instruction of argumentative writing for EFL teachers.

Index Terms—argumentative writing, evidence use, EFL learners

I. INTRODUCTION

Argumentative writing is a key component in one's development of academic competence, and is often taken as an indicator to show learners' language proficiency level in international exams, such as GRE, TOEFL, and IELTS. The ability to write argumentative essay effectively is regarded as a distinctive feature to tell proficient learners from less proficient learners in universities (Mitchell, 2000). There is also an increasing need for graduate students to present and support their arguments and evidence to publish in disciplinary content. Compared with L1 learners, L2 learners are confronted with more challenges and difficulties in completing argumentative writing tasks, both culturally and linguistically. To be specific, in addition to L2 learners' limited proficiency levels and lack of genre knowledge, their cultural and ideological backgrounds exert great influence on their L2 writing. For example, in western cultures, the premise of argumentation is the conflict between the beliefs and attitudes held by the writer and the readers (Foss & Griffin, 1995), thus argumentation is to convince the readers which is established on the basis of the rhetoric of Aristotle (Connor, 1996). However, under the influence of Confucian philosophy, the Chinese rhetoric emphasizes general harmony and strong cohesion in the society (Wu & Rubin, 2000), thus Chinese EFL writers may not be good at producing persuasive ideas in argumentation. Compared with a number of studies in the area of L2 writing, the research on L2 argumentative writing is not yet fully developed in spite of its important function in the development of L2 learners' writing competence (Hirvela, 2017).

L2 learners' performance on writing argumentative essays may be affected by their inadequate knowledge about the characteristics of English argumentative writing genre (Lunsford 2002; Wingate 2012). According to Toulmin (1958, 2003), argumentative writing should basically consist of three interconnected elements: claim, data, and warrant; and through further analysis, a secondary level of elements may exist in argumentative writing: qualifier, backing, and rebuttal. Toulmin's (1958, 2003) model of argumentative writing has gained a popularity in the research of L2 argumentative writing. Many studies focus on proving the positive relationship between the presence of specific components in the model and the overall quality of argumentative writing (e.g., Nussbaum & Kardash, 2005; Qin and Karabacak, 2010; Wolfe et al, 2009). For example, a higher quality of argumentative essay may be achieved through including more argumentative components in Toulmin model (Qin and Karabacak 2010). However, these studies tend to overemphasize the organizational structure in argumentation without discussing the role of the logic of ideas and the quality of evidence or data used in supporting the claim (Nussbaum and Kardash 2005; Stapleton &Wu, 2015). Stapleton & Wu (2015) claim that the effectiveness of drawing upon evidence or data to support a claim may also affect the persuasive power of argumentative writing and it's necessary to use both argumentative structure and the quality of reasoning as guidelines in writing argumentation. Therefore, the present study is aimed at exploring the structural elements and the quality of evidence used by Chinese EFL learners in argumentative writing.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Toulmin Model of Argumentative Writing

The Toulmin model (1958, 2003) of argumentative writing includes six elements: claim, data, warrant, backing, rebuttal and qualifier. The claim refers to the assertion or conclusion of the argument. Data are the evidence to ground or support the claim. Warrant connects claim and data through indicating how the data support the claim. Backing is used to strengthen the warrant. Qualifier sets the limitations on the strength of the claim, and rebuttals are arguments question the truth of the claim. As suggested in this model, an argumentative writing requires writers to put forward an explicit claim and qualify the evidence through warrant and backing to support the validity of their claim, and during this process, the readers' rebuttals should be considered. The logic of argument is shown in the Figure 1 (Toulmin, 1958).
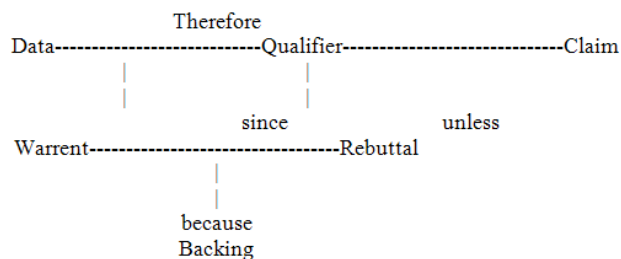

Figure 1. Toulmin model of argument

This model of argument structure has been widely applied in studies of exploring learners' argumentative writing. A number of studies have focused on the relationship between the application of Toulmin elements and the overall quality of argumentative writing (e.g. Connor, 1990; Crammond, 1998; Qin and Karabacak 2010; Nussbaum and Kardash, 2005). The findings of these studies suggest that the use of Toulmin components is an important indicator to show the quality of argumentative writing. Low ranked argument papers are insufficient in using certain Toulmin elements, such as data, warrants, whereas the high ranked argument papers present relatively more Toulmin elements, especially the use of counterarguments and rebuttals. Some studies suggest that the frequencies of use of certain Toulmin components increase with levels of learners' expertise (e.g. Crammond, 1998; Mc Cann, 1989). The results that higher graders significantly outperform lower graders in their argumentation indicate that the development of learners' argument abilities is based on their proficiency levels. Another direction of research from the perspective of Toulmin model is using it as a heuristic instruction tool to teach argumentative writing (e.g. Bacha 2010; Butler and Britt 2011; Lunsford 2002; Varghese and Abraham 1998; Wingate 2012). The results in the studies show that students gain significantly higher scores in their production of argumentative writings with the explicit instruction guided by Toulmin model. Most studies exploring argumentative writing with Toulmin model have been conducted within L1 context, while few studies analyze this topic in L2 context, especially the argumentative writing of EFL learners. As Hirvela (2017) claims, the research in L2 argumentative writing is not a fully developed research area.

In addition to addressing organizational structure of argumentation, another aspect needs further discussion is the quality of content or the logic of reasoning through writers' use of evidence in writing.

B. Evidence-based Argumentative Writing

Structure-based argumentation helps learners develop their ideas in a clear organization, but this should include analyzing the relevance of all the elements, whether the claim is supported soundly by the evidence, to ensure the overall quality of argumentative writing (Sampson & Clark, 2008; Stapleton &Wu, 2015). For example, learners' sophisticated adoption of Toulmin model in organizing structure does not necessarily guarantee their quality of reasoning in argument (Clark and Sampson, 2007). Acknowledging the importance of using evidence to support one's claim in an acceptable, relevant and adequate way is an essential part in judging argumentation (Sampson & Clark, 2008; Schwarz, et all, 2003). Without well-developed evidence, the argumentative writing is circular of various repetitions of the claim without specific purposes (Balwanz-Emmel,1989). Zohar & Nemet (2002) point out that good arguments should consist of "true, reliable, and multiple justifications" (p. 40). In other words, it is the soundness and validity of evidence that account for the logic of argumentation. However, studies examining L2 learners' actual use of evidence in writing argumentation are few.

Exploring the role of different types of data to support claims, Packer&Timpane (1997) classify seven categories of evidence: expert opinions, statistics, examples, personal experiences, common sense, logical analysis, and analogy. They can be further divided into two larger groups: factual evidence and non-factual evidence. For supporting a claim, the factual evidence, as hard evidence, is more persuasive than the non-factual evidence, the soft evidence. Hoeken and Hustinx (2003) put forward four types of evidence in argumentation: individual examples, statistics, causal explanations, and expert opinions. In terms of persuasive power, anecdotal evidence is viewed as less effective than expert, causal, and statistical evidence. Obviously, there is some overlapping between the two categories of classifying the evidence. For instance, in terms of the persuasiveness of argument, writers' own personal judgments and experiences are not regarded as strong evidence to support a claim. Based on these, the six different types of evidence investigated for further analysis in the present study are expert, anecdote, common sense, statistics, logical analysis, and analogy.

C. Interpretations of the Use of Evidence from Rhetoric Perspective

L2 learners' use of evidence in argumentation reflects their understandings about how to support their claims and make them persuasive. Thus, argumentation in nature is rhetoric (Sandoval & Millwood, 2005). Rhetorical analysis functions as a useful tool to justify the differences on the surface structure in argumentative writing (Liu & Du, 2018). For L2 learners, the differences between L1 and L2 linguistic and cultural conventions greatly influence their L2 writing. Some studies have been conducted to examine the differences between English and Chinese argumentative writing(e.g. Liao & Chen, 2009; Zhang, 2011). Researchers tend to interpret the rhetorical differences from the fundamental philosophy of the two cultures, that is, the differences between individualism and collectivism (e.g. Triandis, 1995). For example, Chinese cultures value collectivism, and self is defined by relations with others, while western cultures put more emphasis on individualism and self-achievement. In argumentative writing, learners' cognitive and epistemic patterns are reflected on their employment of rhetorical devices to present evidence in grounding claims (Kitcher, 1991). Therefore, better understandings of learners' use of evidence in argumentation may be achieved from the perspective of rhetorical analysis.

In a summary, the analysis of structural elements without considering the strength of evidence used is not enough to assess the overall quality of argumentation. As Sampson & Clark (2008) claim, there is a need to explore both the structural elements and quality features, such as relevance, sufficiency, and accuracy of the use of evidence in argumentation. However, the review of previous studies suggests an insufficiency in integrating both of the two aspects into the research of L2 argumentative writing. Thus, the present study is conducted to explore the features of structural elements and use of evidence in argumentative writing by Chinese EFL learners. The following research questions are developed for the study:

1. What are the structural elements adopted by Chinese EFL learners in argumentative writing?
2. What is the relationship between the use of structural elements and the overall quality of argumentative papers?
3. What are features of evidence used by Chinese EFL learners in argumentative papers?
4. What are the differences between proficient and less proficient learners in the use of evidence?

III. METHODS

A. Participants

The participants in the present study were 39 second-year English major students (ages 19 to 21) with 31 female students and 8 male students in a polytechnic university in China. They were native speakers of Chinese and came form two intact writing classes that were taught by the same teacher. At the time of the study, the participants had learned about how to write narrative, exposition, and argumentative writing. The focus of the writing class in this semester was to help students make preparations for the writing test in English Test for English Majors Band 4, in which students were asked to write an argumentative essay of 200 words within 45 minutes.

B. Instrument

In order to answer the research questions, three major instruments were employed in the present study: writing task, frame of structural elements in argumentation, rubrics of evidence use.

The argumentative papers used for the analysis in the present study were from the writing task conducted during the regular class time. The topic is "Should animals be used for scientific experimentation". The reason for choosing this topic was that participants were expected to have enough exposure to the background information of the topic in their daily experiences. Participants were required to complete the argumentative writing of no less than 200 words within 50 minutes. Clear directions on how to do the task were given by the teacher and the relevant information about pros and cons held by people were provided in the form of reading materials to participants to accomplish the writing task. Before taking the experiment, no participant had received any writing instruction about Toulmin model of argumentation.

To explore the structural elements used by participants in their argumentative writings, a modified Toulmin model of argumentation based on Qin & Karbacak's (2010) frame was adopted for further analysis. This frame emphasizes five elements in argumentation: claim, data, counterargument claim, counterargument data and rebuttal. A five-scale marking system was used to measure participants' average use of the five structural elements.

In addition to assessing structural elements of participants' argumentative writing, another importance factor affecting the quality of argumentation is the use of evidence. The rubrics of evidence used by participants to support their claims in the writing task was based on Packer & Timpane's (1997) and Hoeken & Hustinx's (2003) categories of evidence in argumentation. Six different types of evidence were included: expert, anecdote, common sense, statistics, logical analysis, and analogy. The overall inter-rater reliability of the rubrics was .86, which indicated the rubrics was reliable to identify participants' use of evidence in the writing task.

C. Procedure

Before the writing task, participants received an introduction to the present study from the teacher, who informed them of the purpose of the study was to examine university English-major students' argumentative writing. Then the teacher explained the directions of the writing task to the participants. Two opinion pieces in English with opposing

views on the controversial topic were presented to the participants, and participants were allotted 50 minutes to accomplish this argumentative writing during the class time. After they have finished, all the 39 papers were collected by the teacher. Finally, two papers which were unfinished were eliminated from this study, and altogether 37 argumentative writings were collected for further analysis.

D. Data Collection and Analysis

This study mainly focused on the five elements in argumentative writing: claim, data, counterargument claim, counterargument data and rebuttal. According to Stapleton (2001), the structural elements could be identified on the basis of semantic and linguistic features. For example, claims are usually put forward through using two syntactic structures: (1) by declarative sentences marked by "I think", "I believe" and "In my opinion"; and (2) by assertive structures, such as "on the whole,...", and "as opposed to widely held belief,...". Data are presented through prepositional phrases, such as "for that reason" and "for one thing", and subordinators "because". Counterargument and rebuttal are used through certain phrases or indicators, such as "although", "despite", "It is said that,...but...", "some people claim that,...however...". In addition to making decisions based on these obvious semantic and linguistic features, implied meanings expressed in the context were also coded.

Participants' argumentative papers were graded from four aspects according to the standard of Band 4 examination, including content relevance, content sufficiency, overall organization and language quality. The total score was 20 points. All the 37 argumentative writings were marked by two experienced teachers independently. The inter-rater reliability coefficiency of the scores given by the two teachers was 0.90, ensuring the overall grading standard.

According to different categories of evidence used to support claims in argumentative writing, all the 37 papers were encoded by two experienced teachers separately. They first identified the evidence used by participants and then classified the type of each evidence into the six categories respectively. For different opinions of the judgement, the two teachers discussed together and finally reached a consensus on the encoding method. After the process of encoding was completed, the descriptive date about the type of evidence and the overall number of evidence used in argumentative writing were analyzed.

IV. RESULTS

A. The Employment of Structural Elements in Argumentative Writing

To explore the overall use of structural elements based on the adapted Toulmin model by Chinese English-majors in argumentative writing, descriptive analysis was conducted. The results are shown in Table 1.

TABLE 1.
THE USE OF STRUCTURAL ELEMENTS IN ARGUMENTATION

Argumentative elements	Total N	Mean	SD
Claim	37	2.81	.79
Data	37	3.09	1.13
Counterargument claim	37	.87	.54
Counterargument data	37	.33	.43
Rebuttal	37	.37	.72

As indicated, all the five elements were employed in argumentative writings. On average, the most frequently used structural elements by Chinese English-majors are data and claim. The mean scores of the use of data and claim were 3.09 and 2.81 respectively. It showed that at least two claims and three pieces of data were used per paper. However, the mean scores of the use of counterargument claims, counterargument data and rebuttal were .87, .33, .37 respectively. Among all the elements, the mean score of the use of counterargument data (mean= .33) is the lowest. Further examined, only 6 out of 37 papers used counterargument data. This suggested that compared with data and claim, counterargument and rebuttal elements are less frequently used and few data from the opposing side were employed in argument.

B. The Overall Quality of Argumentative Writings

To find out the overall quality of argumentative writings, all the 37 papers were analyzed and graded. The total score of the writing task was 20 points. The mean score was 14.2 and the standard deviation was 3.17. The highest score was 18.5 points and lowest was 9.5 points. The results were shown in Table 2. It indicated that participants' overall performance on argumentation was poor and there was a relatively big difference in their argumentative writing performance.

TABLE 2.
THE OVERALL QUALITY OF ARGUMENTATIVE WRITING

	N	Mean	SD	Min.	Max.
Overall quality of papers	37	14.2	3.17	9.5	18.5

To further identify the relationship between structural elements used by the participants and the overall quality of their argumentative writings, the correlation analysis was conducted (See Table 3).

TABLE 3.
CORRELATIONS BETWEEN THE USE OF STRUCTURAL ELEMENTS AND OVERALL QUALITY OF ARGUMENTATIVE WRITING

	N	Claim	Data	Counter. claim	Counter. data	Rebuttal
The score of argumentative writing	37	.650	.592	.075	.034*	.040*

*p< .05

As shown in Table 3, participants' overall quality of argumentative writing was positively correlated with the use of counterargument data (p= .034< .05) and rebuttal (p= .040< .05), but the correlation between it and the use of other structural elements, such as claim, data and counterargument claim was weak. This indicated that in the present study counterargument data and rebuttal were the most important factors affecting participants' quality of argumentation.

C. The Use of Evidence in Argumentative Writing

Another research question in the present study is about characteristics of the use of support or evidence for claims in argumentative writing. Descriptive analysis was conducted to investigate the average types of evidence and the overall number of evidence used by participants. The findings were presented in Table 4.

TABLE 4.
THE USE OF EVIDENCE IN ARGUMENTATIVE WRITING

	N	Mean	SD	Min.	Max
The types of evidence use	37	1.99	.23	1	3
The number of evidence use	37	3.42	1.42	2	4

As shown in the results, the mean score of the types of evidence used by the participants to support their claims was 1.99 and the standard deviation was 0.23. The mean score of the overall number of evidence use was 3.42 and the standard deviation was 1.42. This indicated that participants employed nearly two different types of data as evidence and there was not big difference among learners. On average, at least three pieces of evidence were used for completing one argumentative paper.

In order to explore more about different categories of evidence used by participants in writing argumentation, frequencies of the use of six types of evidence were analyzed. The results were shown in Table 5.

TABLE 5.
THE FREQUENCY OF USING EVIDENCE IN ARGUMENTATIVE WRITING

	Categories of evidence					
	Expert	Anecdote	Statistics	Logical analysis	Common sense	Analogy
use frequency	5%	23%	0%	58%	11%	3%

According to frequency analysis in Table 4.4, the most frequently used evidence was the logical analysis(58%), which was followed by the evidence of anecdote (23%) and common sense (11%). The frequency of the use of expert opinions was 5%, and the analogy was used 3%. Among all the six categories of evidence, statistics was not found used (0%) by the participants in the present study. This finding indicated that logical analysis was used the most frequently by Chinese English-majors in argumentation.

To identify the differences in drawing upon evidence to support claims between participants, the employment of evidence by proficient and less proficient learners was compared. According to the scores of participants' argumentative papers, they were classified into three groups: proficient, average, less proficient. Participants with scores higher than 17 points were classified into the proficient group. Participants with scores lower than 11 points were classified into the less proficient group. The rest were classified as the average group. Thus, all the 37 participants were divided into three groups: 7 participants in proficient group, 20 participants in average group, and 10 participants in less proficient group. A further analysis was conducted through one-way ANOVA to exam whether the differences between proficient and less proficient group had statistical significance. The result was presented in Table 6.

TABLE 6
ONE-WAY ANOVA ANALYSIS OF SCORES AMONG PROFICIENT AND LESS PROFICIENT GROUP

	Mean Difference	Std. Error	Sig.
Proficient Less proficient	6.69	1.08	.002*

*The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

As shown in Table 6, the mean difference (.002< .05) between the two groups in scores of argumentative writing arrived at a significant level. Thus, they could be used to represent the proficient and less proficient group respectively. To identify the differences in evidence use between the two groups, a comparison between the two groups' use of evidence was conducted. The result was shown in Table 7.

TABLE 7.
MEAN SCORES OF EVIDENCE USE BETWEEN PROFICIENT AND LESS PROFICIENT GROUP

	Types	Numbers	Categories of evidence					
			Expert	Anecdote	Statistics	Logical analysis	Common sense	Analogy
Profi.	2.01	3.40	0.61	1.51	0	2.46	0.51	0.44
Less Profi.	1.97	3.12	0	1.02	0	2.71	0.56	0

The data in Table 7 showed that the mean scores of the types (m=2.01) and the overall number of evidence used (m=3.40) by proficient groups are higher than those of less proficient group (m=1.97; m=3.12), indicating that proficient learners may be more skillful in using evidence to support claims in argumentation. However, the average types of evidence used by proficient group was only 2.01, indicating that even for proficient learners in the study, their actual use of evidence was insufficient. In terms of specific categories of evidence, the mean scores of logical analysis for both of the two groups were the highest among other categories, and the less proficient group seemed to use more logical analysis (m=2.71) than the proficient group (m=2.46), indicating that logical analysis was the most popular type of data used as evidence and less proficient learners mainly draw upon logical analysis to support their claims in argumentation. Followed by logical analysis, the second most popular type of evidence was anecdote. The mean scores of the proficient group and less proficient group were 1.51 and 1.02 respectively. Besides, there was another overlap in using common sense as evidence between the two groups.

V. DISCUSSION

In the present study, it was found that the basic elements adopted by Chinese EFL learners in their argumentative writing were claim and data, and not every argumentation included counterargument claims, counterargument data, and rebuttal. This finding is in consistent with findings in previous studies (Lunsford 2002; Qin & Karabacak, 2010; Varghese & Abraham, 1998). The overall quality of argumentative writing was found to be significantly correlated with the use of counterargument data and rebuttal. According to Toulmin (2003), counterarguments are key elements in argumentation. This may suggest that the integration of counterargument and rebuttal elements into an argumentative writing helps to make powerful and persuasive arguments. One possible explanation for the finding is that compared with the basic elements in argumentative writing, the development of complex structural elements, such as counterarguments, may need a higher level of linguistic proficiency, and the proficiency levels of participants in the present study are not advanced enough for them to develop a sound structure. As put forward in previous studies, the secondary Toulmin elements are more likely to be used by expert writers and advanced learners, thus the inclusion of counterarguments in argumentative writing develops much later (Crammond, 1998; Mc Cann, 1989). Another possible reason for not including counterarguments and rebuttal in papers is that the participants have never received any explicit instructions about Toulmin model. Thus, they may not realize the significant function exerted by counterarguments and rebuttals to produce quality argumentation, and they are not aware of the necessity of discussing and refuting the opposing side of opinions in an argumentative writing. Still another possible reason is coming from the difference between cultures. Based on the concept of individualistic culture, personal individuality is highly emphasized, so people are encouraged to express their different opinions with freedom. However, under the influence of collectivist Chinese culture, people value interpersonal harmony and are hesitant about questioning authority in social communication, so Chinese are more likely to represent a compliant style rather than conflicting with others, which is reflected on their argumentative writing.

In addition to the structural elements, another aspect in quality argumentative writing is the use of evidence. Without justification and support for claims, a claim makes no difference to a personal opinion (Stapleton, 2001). It was found in the study that on average, participants employed two different types of evidence and three pieces of evidence per paper, and the logical analysis was the most frequently used data as evidence while statistics was not found to be used by the participants. The findings show that the types and the overall number of evidence used by Chinese EFL learner are very insufficient which may limit the construction of persuasiveness in argumentation. Besides, that participants relied heavily on the use of logical analysis and reasoning to support their claims in argumentation may be partly due to participants' lack of knowledge and skills in employing different categories of data as evidence to support their opinions. What's more, participants may also be greatly affected by their circular communication style and image thinking pattern in Chinese, thus they tend to persuade others by using more personal interpretations or explanations implicitly than giving facts directly in their writing. However, in western cultures, the persuasiveness of argument should lie in facts and truth.

Comparing the evidence used by proficient and less proficient learners, it was found that participants from both of the two groups employed logical analysis, anecdote and common sense as data, and less proficient learners tend to use more logical analysis and common sense to support their claims than proficient learners. However, the larger number of use of these data by less proficient writers does not contribute to the overall quality of their writings. This result is in line with previous study that the number of data used does not correlate with the quality of argumentation (Brem & Rips, 2000). One of the possible reasons is that the analysis and explanation given by less proficient learners are not effective or sound evidence in supporting their claims. Deeper insights into the evidence used by less proficient learners are gained through examining their writings. For example, a paper from the less proficient group:

On the one hand, animal experiments truly make a contribution to the improvement of science.[claim]. These results largely reduces the cost of scientific research[evidence]. And above all, these experiments lower mortality of human beings and make people live better[evidence].

In the above example, the student mainly uses logical analysis to support her claim. However, there are some problems with her use of evidence. First, the evidence used is quite opinion-dominant without further elaboration, such as why it reduces the cost and how to live better. Second, the relationship between the claim and the two pieces of

evidence is vague, thus, the persuasive power is lowered by the less relevant and unclear support. Although there are overlaps between proficient and less proficient group's use of evidence, the evidence used by less proficient writers are not well-developed and lack of relevance and sufficiency.

VI. Conclusion

To summarize, the study found that most Chinese English majors employed claim and data as the basic elements in constructing argumentative writing, but fewer adopted counterarguments and rebuttals. However, the employment of counterargument data and rebuttals was found to contribute significantly to the overall quality of argumentative writing. Another factor affecting the quality of argumentative writing is the use of evidence. In the present study, the types of evidence and the number of evidence used by participants were very limited. Among different categories of evidence, logical analysis was the most frequently used data to support claims. Less proficient writers' use of evidence was not effective or persuasive to produce valid argument.

The present study has several pedagogical implications for argumentative writing instruction in EFL contexts. First, explicit instruction of Toulmin model could be adopted to raise students' awareness of the use of counterargument and rebuttal to produce quality argumentative writing. Before actual writing stage, teachers may guide students to find out both approval and disapproval on a certain topic to back them up. Besides, students also need to cultivate their abilities to think through a topic critically from multiple cognitive perspectives. For example, students should get ample exposure to materials including different ideas related to the writing topic and be encouraged to argue against different ideas. Second, there is a clear need for more extensive practice and treatment of evidence use in argumentative writing. The soundness of argumentation also depends on the logic of reasoning, so students should be able to establish the relevance between claim and their use of evidence to make their view valid and persuasive. For example, teachers should guide students to distinguish facts from opinions and encourage students to ground their claim on factual-based evidence. Teachers may also help students consider readers' expectations and require them to search for sufficient resources. Third, it is suggested that the evaluation of the quality of argumentative writing should attach great importance to the relevance and sufficiency of the use of evidence. Teachers may encourage students to point out weaknesses of reasoning in peer review and let them give suggestions to enhance the validity of argument.

Limitations with the present study are coming from the small sample. All participants are from two convenient classes and only one argumentative writing of every participant is analyzed. Another limitation with the study is that the writing task is completed within 50 minutes during the regular class time. The time limitation may have certain effects on participants' writing content. Further studies may explore EFL learners' perceptions of effectiveness of using different categories of evidence in argumentative writing.

Acknowledgments

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The Translational Eco-environment of Pinteresque Language and the Construction of Audience Acceptance Space*

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Abstract—**This study applied eco-translatology to drama translation. It's showed that the key to successful drama translation is how to properly deal with various elements in the ecological environment of drama translation, and always take the interpretation and acceptance of the actors and the audiences in the target language as an important criterion. Therefore, under the perspective of eco-translatology, three features of the translation of Pinteresque language, namely the life-oriented, action-directed and character-targeted features, need to be realized to complete the construction of audience's acceptance space, so that more audiences in the Chinese mainland can enjoy and fully appreciate the beauty of Pinter's outstanding drama.**

Index Terms—**eco-translatology, Pinteresque language, life-oriented, action-directed, character-targeted**

I. INTRODUCTION

Harold Pinter was a Nobel Prize-winning British playwright, one of the most influential modern British dramatists, his writing career spanned more than 50 years. His plays are noted for their use of understatement, small talk, reticence---and even silence---to convey the substance of a character's thought, which often lies several layers beneath, and contradicts, his speech. He occupies a position as a modern classic which is illustrated by his name entering the language as an adjective used to describe a particular atmosphere and environment in drama: "Pinteresque". The Swedish Academy defines characteristics of the Pinteresque as: Pinter restored theatre to its basic elements: an enclosed space and unpredictable dialogue, where people are at the mercy of each other and pretence crumbles.

II. PINTERESQUE LANGUAGE AND ECO-TRANSLATOLOGY

The traditional drama often revises the stammering, pause, repeating, contradiction and errors of everyday language into a smooth and flawless language like ironed. In comparison, Pinter's drama leaves the impression as: wait a minute, let's look at the language itself. He is free from the trap of linguistic efficiency, which is to express as much meaning as possible in as few words as possible (Silverstein, 1993). He tried to bring his dramatic language close to the language of real life. Sometimes he deliberately repeats and it's verbose, which is obviously not economical considering the linguistic efficiency. But this kind of repetition and hesitation can often more skillfully explain the situation and mentality of the characters at the time (Taylor, 1969). This "Pinteresque" language has attracted wide attention in academic world. In the opinion of Fang Bolin, to a large extent, Pinter's plays can be said to be linguistic plays (Fang, 1996). John Russell Brown thought "Pinter promoted the expressiveness of drama language", and language is vital for Pinter drama, because "the interactions between the poles as the trust and fear for language, what language can achieve and fail to achieve becomes a gripping force in Pinter's dramatic dialogue, like blood and nerve of all his works" (Brown, 1984). Esslin Martin also showed that Pinter's use of language and non-language is perhaps his most important contribution to contemporary drama (Essin, 1970). A.Sykes pointed out that surely the most serious aspect of the Pinter play is its language (Sykes, 1970). While in China, Pinter's dramas have been performed several times. However, few scholars have ever discussed the performance of Pinteresque language in theater, which involves two aspects: the translation of Pinteresque language and the audience's acceptance space.

Considering the translation of Pinteresque language, there is a translation theory named eco-translatology proposed by domestic scholar Hu Gengshen (2008), according to whom eco-translatology can be understood as an ecological

approach to translation studies or translation studies from an ecological perspective, emphasizing the translational eco-environment in the process of translation and translators' adaptive selection, proposing the translational concept of "translator-centered" and focusing on translation process, translation principles, translation methods and translation evaluation criteria. The "translational eco-environment" in eco-translatology refers to the world presented by source language and target language, which is an entirety of interconnection and interaction between the language, communication, culture, society and the author, reader, entrusting party. Drama is also a kind of literary work, which requires readers' appreciation to be of vitality. The readers of drama translation include not only the readers of the text, but also the audiences of the performance of target language, as well as the directors and actors who use translational text of the drama. The key to successful drama translation is how to properly deal with various elements in the ecological environment of drama translation, and always take the interpretation and acceptance of the actors and the audiences in the target language as an important criterion, so that drama translation can better adapt to the translation ecological environment and construct the audience's acceptance space. The specific implementation method includes three aspects: under the guidance of ecological translation, to realize the life-oriented, action-directed and character-targeted features of the translation of Pinteresque language with specific translation skills to complete the construction of audience's acceptance space.

III. The Translational Eco-environment of Pinteresque Language and the Construction of Audience Acceptance Space

A. *To realize the Life-oriented Feature of the Translation of Pinteresque Language*

Drama is a living system, which contains all kinds of cultural elements: language environment, story background, social customs, etc., which widely involves many aspects such as linguistics, psychology and social culturology. At different times in different places, its appearance, meaning and value are different for different groups of people. It is possible to see certain language information which is plain and straightforward for one receiving group may not be easy to understand for another receiving group.

Drama translation, like many other types of literary translation, is to some extent, a process of intercultural communication, for which the most difficult is the difference between linguistic and social culture. The unspoken and metaphorical information in one culture can sometimes become difficult to understand in another culture, which needs strength and energy for translation and explanation to make the target language accessible and understandable to the readers and the audience. While there are many cultural factors involved in drama translation with instantaneity of the performance and annotation-free of the dialogue due to the limitation of time and space.

Pinter's works are extremely simple, which can be almost summed up in the so-called minimalist tradition. His works usually present a taste of life with only one room and two or three characters. If one character is enough, Pinter would not allow two. Nor are the plots of Pinter's plays fluctuating. When going to watch Pinter's play, it's not like someone is watching a play, it's more like listening to a play (Deng, 2008). Whenever there is drama, there must be such basic elements as conflict and dramatic action. And according to Aristotle, the best plots are not simple ones, but complex ones. So how did Pinter create his drama in such simple conditions and plots? Language is his greatest weapon. Pinter boldly innovated the traditional theatrical language, combining language authenticity and absurdity as one. On the one hand, his language, unlike traditional dramas, is not filtered by reasoning, but comes directly from life. On the other hand, he is good at capturing the absurdity of real language. Critic Bernard F. Dukore (1982) noticed the dual nature of the Pinteresque language. Pinter's theatrical language is neither Shakespearean harangue of "to live or to die", nor George Bernard Shaw's flowing rhetoric words, but "mostly working-class language with the characteristics of naturalism including vague soliloquies, self-repetition, grammar confusion, incomplete sentences, jumping thought, suddenly changing themes and reluctance to give up the topic that the other side has already given up, like a tape recorder." In fact, these two characteristics are unified: there is the possibility of absurdity in authenticity. The absurd linguistic features that Dukore describes are very close to reality.

Therefore, it is necessary to realize the life-oriented feature of the translation of Pinteresque language under the guidance of reception aesthetics to enable the actors of the target language accurately express the connotation of the drama, quickly convey the emotion of the drama, and enable the target audience smoothly understand the development of the drama story and clearly understand the meaning of the drama.

The Caretaker (Pinter, 1961) was created in 1959, whose subject is typical in Pinter's early works: fighting for a room. There are only three people in the play: two brothers, Aston and Mick, and an outsider, Davies. The conflict in the play revolves around the fight that brought by the outsider who tried to take the place of the caretaker of the room. In his works, Pinter mainly reflects ordinary people, especially those who have no place to live. Therefore, he uses a language that reflects the daily life of the bottom characters in the language presentation.

Original language:

DAVIES   All them Greeks had it, Poles, Greeks, Blacks, the lot of them, all them aliens had it. And they had me working there…they had me working… All them Blacks had it, Blacks, Greeks, Poles, the lot of them, that's what, doing me out of a seat, treating me like dirt.

Target langauge:

戴维斯　　那些希腊人都有座位，波兰人、希腊人、黑人，一大帮子，他们这些外国佬儿都有座位。他们一直让我在那儿干活……他们一直让我干活……所有那些黑人都有座位，黑人、希腊人、波兰人，他们一大帮子，这些家伙，让我连个座位也找不着，没有把我放在眼里。

This happened when Davies was first invited to Aston's place. Aston invited him to sit, but Davies kept complaining about his previous experience that no one respected him but to ask him to work. All he intended was to earn some respect in front of Aston and strive for a place to live. Davies was a tramp whose language meant to be indecent and foul. So in the target language, it's better to use a language that not that decent, graceful and polite, but vulgar, coarse and rude. So from the expressions "黑人", "外国佬儿" and "一大帮子", the Chinese audiences could easily decide that Davies lived at the bottom of the society without too much education. It is because of the real life language that Pinter gave to his character in his plays that the audience can feel the reality of the scene, and thus sense the absurdity behind it. And that is what eco-translation exactly aims to.

In another drama *No Man's Land* (Pinter, 1975) Pinter used cultural expressions to highlight the elegance of upper class that Chinese audiences might get confused.

Original language:

FOSTER　　It's a world of eighteenth century cookery books. It's nothing to do with toffee apples and a packet of crisps. It's milk in the bath. It's the cloth bell pull. It's organization.

Target language:

福斯特　　这里享用的都是法式贵族大餐。从来不吃那些乡巴佬食物。这里用牛奶沐浴，仆人们都各司其职。一切都是那么井然有序。

This happened when Spooner and Forster, the servant, began to battle, and both sides began to use the materials they could gather to try to raise themselves up and diminish each other. For the servants Forster and Briggs, their first objective was to highlight their distinguished status, and to exclude Spooner, by a decent life belonging to another class. Therefore, in Forster's words, he used four representative images to express his admiration for the elegant order of the upper class, and used them to flatter his master, show off himself and suppress his opponents. But if literally translated these four images "eighteenth century cookery books", "toffee apples and a packet of crisps", "milk in the bath", and "the cloth bell pull" as "十八世纪的烹饪书", "太妃苹果和炸薯片", "浴缸里的牛奶", "布铃铛绳", It is more or less difficult for contemporary Chinese audiences in the context of Chinese culture to understand, and is impossible for the Chinese to accurately understand the living standards represented by these images, and may even feel confused at the moment of watching the drama. Therefore, considering translational eco-environment, it is necessary to consider the Chinese audience's general understanding of western culture and use the same or similar imagery to compensate for meaning. So it's necessary to use "法师贵族大餐" and "乡巴佬食物" to compensate for differences in food culture, "仆人们都各司其职" to replace unreadable external cultural symbol, trying to make compensation for the cultural meaning for the life of honor and convey the information intended to be expressed in the drama to the audiences in the context of the target language in a realistic way so that the contextual information in the original language can be easily accepted, which enables the whole process of watching the play to go smoothly and unimpeded, so as for the audiences to get better audio-visual experience.

B.　To Realize the Action-directed Feature of the Translation of Pinteresque Language

The trait of drama itself determines the necessity of using action-packed theatrical language. In a drama, the actors' lines and stage performance together constitute the acting of the drama, and they are supposed to complement each other. That is to say, the stage actions of the actors influence the lines of the characters, and at the same time, the acting of the drama can as well be clearly sensed from the lines of the characters. In the drama, the character language should not only match the external actions of the stage performance, but also display the inner action state of the human being together with the cooperation with the external actions. Especially when there is emotional change of the characters, language will show a strong inner state of action, perfectly combined with external body movements, constitute the whole movement of characters, revealing the characters' state in a specific environment, and thus strengthening the artistic expression of the drama.

If the dramatic translation cannot reproduce the dramatic action language in the source language, the characters created will be descriptive and static and therefore it will be impossible to present the ideas of drama vividly, which makes it difficult for the actors to express their feelings and for the audience to understand the conflict. Under different linguistic and cultural backgrounds, there are obvious differences in the application of language habits, so as to the morphological changes and sentence patterns of spoken English. The purpose of drama translation remains to be performance on stage, which makes it necessary that the target language must be colloquial to enable the actors to easily display the action of language and highlight the dramatic conflicts, and be in line with the linguistic and cultural habits of the target language to enable the audience to better grasp the dynamic nature of the language and understand the development of the plot.

Traditional dramas tend to put social reality before language, that is, to take social reality as the cause, while language as the result, and social reality as the entity, while language as its image. Pinter was aware of the unreliability of language and the danger of communication, he, therefore, boldly changed the one-dimensional cause-result and

entity-image relationship between social reality and language, and replaced it with the two-way dynamic relationship of mutual causation, which was that social reality determines language to a certain extent, and language can reconstruct social reality as well. The characters in Pinter's plays do the most talking rather than doing something. "In Pinter's play, the most important thing in the verbal communication between characters is what people do to each other rather than what they say to convey in language. (Esslin 1984:90)" For this reason, we cannot understand Pinter's language as a passive carrier of external actions, but language itself becomes a dramatic action. Ignoring this will lead to confusion of understanding. Researchers accustomed to viewing Pinter's works from the perspective of traditional dramatic action will often encounter difficulties, who believes that Pinter's work seems to be a theatrical exercise, not a strict drama. John brown once compared Pinter to a "fan of the car that keeps his car in the garage in excellent condition, but never takes it on a trip. But his is made by hard work, and he is always making new cars." This passage illustrates Pinter's mastery of language, but the idea that the car was intended to travel, apparently derived from Aristotle's theory of imitation, does not apply to Pinter's research.

Over the past four decades, Pinter researchers have gone through two divergent approaches: one is to seek meaning, that is, to take language as a form, focusing on the study of content, for example, the living state and value reflected in the works, that is, the absurdity of life, disillusion, coercion between people, character's subconscious, the symbolic meaning of the work and so on. But the quest for meaning was opposed by Pinter himself. In terms of the creation intention, he has no preset meaning. He opposes the interpreters to attach moral meaning to the work or put the characters into the symbolic framework. Another approach is to study Pinter's language skills, focusing on the stylistic implications and subtexts of the language. However, both approaches ignore the possibility of language as an action, isolating content and form into distinct dualities.

The action of language is the construction or reconstruction of social reality. Language becomes the means by which characters control and dominate others. These characters seldom act, but are keen on the struggle of language, and are deliberately competing in the battle of language in order to gain a favorable position in the relationships in which they are involved. This is best illustrated in a conversation between Forster and Spooner in the play *No Man's Land*.

Original language:

FOSTER   *Listen, my friend. This man in this chair, he's a creative man. He's artist. We make life possible for him. We're in a position of trust. Don't try to drive a wedge into a happy household. You understand me? Don't try to make a nonsense out of family life.*

Target language:

福斯特   听着，朋友。椅子上的这个人，是一个创造者，是一个艺术家。我们努力照料他的生活，他很信任我们，你就甭想着毁坏我们这个幸福的家庭，听明白没？想扰乱我们的家庭生活，没门儿。

It was a battle between Forster the servant and Spooner. Spooner lied on his age and experience to win the sympathy and acceptance of the owner of the house, but it made the servants feel deeply that they wanted to replace them, fearing that their living space in decent homes will be completely taken away. Forster, therefore, was sternly warning Spooner of his deep discontent and anger. He was also very ambivalent at the same time actually, because although still slightly dominant in his identity pride, he has not felt strong enough nor confident enough, but to have to vent his anger and emphasize his close relationship with the host, Hirst, to feel like he can defend his living space. So in translation, word conversion method can be applied. For example, try to use verb phrase "努力照料" that is consistent with Chinese customs to replace "make life possible", use verb "信任" to replace "a position of trust", use the verb "甭" that is morely appeared in spoken Chinese to replace "don't" and use the verb "扰乱" to replace "make a nonsense", use "没门儿" to replace "don't", to strengthen the action of language in Chinese context, in order to act out this subtle psychological change, and enable the performance on stage to stimulate the other actors to react appropriately, thus, in turn, to promote the dramatic changes in the plot, and enable the audience to grasp the inner world of the characters quickly and accurately, and deeply understand the plot changes just at that moment.

C.   To Realize the Character-targeted Feature of the Translation of Pinteresque Language

A good play, a very impressive play, is precisely because there are some vivid characters that leave a deep impression on the audiences. Therefore, one of the important characteristics of drama art creation is the characterization. In novels and other literary forms, the author can achieve his goal by using words to describe the appearance of the characters, the inner activities of the characters and the social background, while in drama, characters' identity, personality, thoughts and feelings are mainly represented by their dialogues. In the stage, actors aim to, through stage behavior and the characteristics of the language, let the audience know the characters' social status, cultural background, understand their heart, go into their inner world, feel the joys and sorrows, and experience characters' image characteristics.

And in the process of drama translation, it's better to start from the perspective of target language audience, and look for language symbols that can reflect the identity and personality of the characters in the target language usage and audience's cultural background, which requires the translator not only to be familiar with the identity background and personality characteristics of the characters and their role in the drama, at the same time, also to have a knowledge of the cultural environment of the target language and the audiences' life experience to determine what kind of language to

reveal specific images of the characters. Only in this way can the actors effectively master the role of the characters, and enable the audience accurately understand the characters and approach the characters.

Pinter's greatness lies in his ability to bring drama back to its most basic elements. A closed room and unpredictable conversation in which characters can be defeated by each other, and thus all pretensions collapse. A closed space, separated from its material functions, makes it a symbol of human self-identity, which is precisely the absurd irony of Pinter on the predicament of human existence. Pinter's irony is reflected exactly in the characterization of his Pinteresque language which is full of repetitive pauses and blanks, plus a lot of slang. Pinter himself has argued like this: "language is very vague. There is often something unspoken beneath the words spoken. It is in this nature that a language comes into being. I must stress that this language, under the words spoken, has something else to express." So how do we deal with this signifier and signified fracture? Pinter thinks the best solution is silence and pause.

In *The Caretaker*, the author uses a lot of pauses, as much as one hundred times. When Davies mentioned his identity, his conversation with Aston was full of pauses and hesitations. Similarly, when Aston asked about Davies's birth, Davies hesitated.

Original language:

Davies   *Well, I been around, you know... what I mean... I been about...*
Aston   *Where were you born then?*
Davies   *(darkly) What do you mean?*
Aston   *Where were you born?*
Davies   *I was... uh...oh, it's a bit hard, like, to set your mind back... see what I mean... going back...a good way... lose a bit of track, like...you know...*

Target language:

戴维斯: 我一直到处游荡，你知道……我的意思是……我一直到处……

阿斯顿: 那么你出生在哪儿？

戴维斯: (脸阴沉沉的)什么意思？

阿斯顿: 你出生在哪儿？

戴维斯: 我……呃……哦……有点难，就像，要回想过去……明白我的意思……回忆……很久以前……已经没有什么记忆了……，就像……你知道……

Davies's pause and hesitancy belied his inner fear of identity, and was meant to distract Aston from his identity. Questioned by Aston, all Davies could do was delay and escape. His true heart and face are seen through pauses in front of the readers and audiences. What Pinter was trying to present in the drama is not that the characters had no ability to communicate, but that, in the play, they often deliberately avoided communication, rather than constantly bickering or talk about other things in order to avoid the sincere communication. In this way, they are safe from the danger of getting to the heart of their relationships.

Drawing from the above, from the perspective of ecological translation, in the process of translation, translators should pay attention to whether the communicative intention in the original text is reflected in the translation, which requires the translator to focus on the adaptability of communication, enable the target language readers and audiences to experience the intentions that the author expressed, and produce resonance or controversy in emotion and thought, which thus achieve the purpose of communication between the author of the original text and the target readers and audiences of the target language.

Therefore, through the Target langauge, Chinese readers and audiences could still feel the confusion of the identity of the tramp Davies. From the beginning to the end, we don't know whether his real name is Davies or Jenkins, because he himself is vague and inconsistent about that. Although he was only a lowly custodian, he never gave up the idea of finding his own identity. Unfortunately, his search for identity was limited to words without action. He repeated the story in endless nagging and complaining. He was a man with a great dream, but now he is just trying to recall the glory of the past to find the destination of his soul. He was helpless in the face of social and personal obstacles and limitations. Despite the dream of returning to the good old days, he had no ability to rebuild the spiritual home, which was a true portrayal of modern western society that Pinter was trying to convey in his original language.

Here is another case in *No Man's Land*.

Original language:

FOSTER   *He turns to Briggs.*
        Why am I bothering? Tell me. Eh?
        He turns back to Spooner.
        Listen chummy bum.

Target language:

福斯特   (他转向布里格斯。)
        我怎么这么恼火呢？告诉我为什么？为什么？
        他转向斯普纳。)
        好一个老乞丐，你给我听着。

It happened during the first encounter between Spooner and the servants. As Spooner searched for empathy through his own experience and skillfully weaving memories, and step into his inner world becoming more and more accepted by Hirst, Forster lost his temper, being completely enraged, and was very angry. But he had no idea why he became so anxious and angry, and at the same time, being not very high in education degree and class status, he tore through the previous friendly disguise and showed the gray side of his heart directly because of the burning anger. So in translation, it's better to choose to repeat "为什么" twice to increase the frequency aiming to emphasize Forster's anxiety and helplessness. Furthermore, add "好一个" that is very colloquial in Chinese to convey the ironic "chummy" in the original text. In addition, add "老" and "你给我" to highlight Foster's anger and even resentment. Therefore, with these added Chinese grammatical units, actors can better convey the author's writing intention, to directly tear apart Forster's disguise to reveal the character's personality, making it easier for the audience to read into the character's nature when watching the play.

IV. CONCLUSION

In China, drama is called "话剧"(language drama for its literal meaning), but Pinter's tradition for language is almost the opposite. The language of most traditional drama is fluent and beautiful, but the language of Pinter's play was broken and commonplace with even pauses and silences inserted. He tore up the literary language to be seen, but it was comedy, not tragedy. On the other hand, literary translation requires understanding the basic information and connotation of the original text by carefully studying the original text, grasping the central thought and language features, analyzing specific problems, choosing the most appropriate translation strategy for the overall framework, and applying the most appropriate translation skills for specific implementation. In addition, each type of literary texts, because of influential factors like different range, different approach and different times of acceptance, will inevitably make it different as for the purpose achieved through translation. Therefore, when translating Pinter's plays, the translation ecological environment should be considered with the knowledge of achieving literary readability, stage performability and performance appreciability of Pinter's plays. It's also necessary to comprehensively collect the relevant information of the original text, understand the author's background and other related work, study the content of the works and various meanings, analyze the target language audiences and evaluate the target language cultural environment to finally work out what the audience can get from the translation, what needs to be learned from the drama watching process, and how can they better accept what needs to be accepted. With all these in mind, the translator looks for the best channel to build the most suitable bridge between the audiences and the work, so as to realize the best connection between the two.

From all the above, it's only when guided by the ecological translation theory and applying the most appropriate translation strategies and techniques with flexible and principled analysis and processing of the original text to realize the life-oriented, action-directed and character-targeted features of the translation of Pinteresque language that the translation of Pinter's play could achieve literary readability, stage performability and performance appreciability to better construct the audiences' acceptance space and meet the audiences' expectations. Thus, actors and audiences in the Chinese language context could easily accept and understand the plot of the drama and the author's intention, so that more audiences in the Chinese mainland can enjoy and fully appreciate the beauty of Pinter's outstanding drama.

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The Use of Mobile Technology in Learning English Language

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Abstract—**The mobile phone is present everywhere nowadays and the advent of this technology is transforming the way we communicate and interact with other people as it is considered an integral part of anyone's social life. Recently, this technology has made its way to the educational environments across the globe as a way of learning languages instead of the traditional language learning methods which were tedious and had a monotonous nature for the rising generation. More and more English language apps are being developed, made and posted on AppStore™ or GooglePlay™ that can be accessed via the language learners and even English language teachers as well as other educational authorities to be used in the English language classes. Some of these apps are the mobile version of those websites that provide English learning materials for the students as well as other language learners. The said websites have gone one step ahead and have developed separate student edition as well as teacher edition that have caused the English language learning world to undergo massive changes. In this paper, we discuss the mobile-based language learning versus the traditional-based language learning in English language classes.**

Index Terms—**mobile-based learning, traditional-based learning, apps, mobile technology, English language, e-Learning (or ELearning), m-Learning, challenges, objectives**

I. INTRODUCTION

The learning of a language can be included under the two major categories of traditional leaning and e-Learning. E-Learning is a broad concept that has its own methods including self-study, video/audio tape, CBTs and WBTs, blended e-Learning, mobile learning, social learning, simulation, and game-based learning. Most of these methods relating to eLearning, especially the mobile-based learning methods, have been born and used from the second half of 20th century up to the present time (Amit K., 2015). But the one that prevails over all the other eLearning methods is the mobile-based language leaning method that has been widely accepted and some of the significant factors which resulted in the acceptance of this method over the other existing methods were its portability, user-friendly interface and human-computer interaction in some cases relying on the technology used by its developer(s). The sole player in a traditional learning method is the language teacher and some of its methods, including quick answer and full answer, are all teacher-oriented and there is almost no trace of creativity in either of the traditional language learning methods and the students only perceive the teachings, and messages conveyed to them by the teacher only. The latest language teaching approach in today's world is called Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) which is an approach to teaching of second and foreign languages which emphasizes interaction as both the means and the ultimate goal of learning a language (Savignon, 2000). It is also referred to as "Communicative Approach". This latest approach in language teaching (i.e. CLT approach) correlates with eLearning which in turn has been represented in the best widespread form available nowadays, namely mobile learning. This research paper spotlights the characteristics and uses of mobile learning after providing a summary of all the eLearning methods.

Before focusing on mobile learning method itself and comparing it with the traditional learning, eLearning methods are introduced at the first stage (Amit K., 2015):

II. METHODOLOGY

Self-study

This is the most common method used nowadays in which all the necessary required learning materials are provided on the website and the login details are given to the language learners. In some cases, a 24/7 instructor is also available to help the language learners any time that they may encounter and experience problems either with the website itself or the learning materials and steps that should be taken to finish their online assignments.

Video/audio tape

This is the second method that is mostly used for creating demo videos that can result in training the language learners and it can also help the language learners know the basics of the language they are striving to be successful at by watching or listening.

CBT (Computer-Based Trainings) and WBTs (Web-Based Trainings)

E-courses are given and made in either of the above methods or even a combination of them that can be more useful for the e-course learners. Both of these courses utilize the Internet as their primary platform. Since these courses are

self-paced and the language learners have no interaction with each other and also their trainer/instructor, they can work well with the language learners who are self-motivated to learn many new skills.

Blended eLearning/Instructor-led (ILT)

This method is taken where the classroom exercises and interactions are required. This method is a combination of the traditional method of teaching with the eLearning method and is appropriate for short e-courses in which a background of the lesson is given to the language learners to prepare them before entering the classroom.

Mobile learning / Mobile-based learning

The most important advantage of this method over the other eLearning methods is the availability, portability, and the affordability of mobile devices which has given the way for more and more learning materials to be produced in the mobile-based learning or mobile learning format. However, some other aspects of mobile learning that can be taken into consideration are its screen size, capacity, and Internet connectivity.

When the language learning materials are delivered via mobile phones, the costs of production of such materials as well as the time taken to prepare them are reduced remarkably.

Social learning

In this method, the learning materials are also delivered via the mobile phones in the same way as the mobile learning method, but the social media apps play the primary role in this method. The impact of social media in the twenty first century is unavoidable and more and more educational institutions are realizing this fact by investing funds in this field of technology. They also encourage their language learners and even teachers to share and discuss their problems, queries, experiences, etc. on these social platforms. This method is already taken by some other English language teachers who take private tuition classes or even some freelance language teachers.

A good example of this kind can be the Telegram™ channel of Dr. Iman Pandi that is called 'Vocab coding" where the number of the people who are joining this Telegram™ channel is on the increase in Iran.

Simulation

Simulation eLearning is a very interactive method and is dependent upon graphics, video and audio. There are also custom simulations videos or games that include 3D components.

Game-based learning

The most powerful tools in learning a language which are considered to be fun by all the people are video games. The term "gamification" is used nowadays as designing an activity such as learning, solving a problem, etc. Gamification can be a very effective tool for young language learners and help them develop their language knowledge and skills while keeping them entertained at the same time.

Choosing the right eLearning methods totally depends on factors such as the availability, expenses, language learners' characteristics, and so many other things that are associated with eLearning methods (Amit K., 2015).

Mobile Learning

The use of mobile devices in English language classes has led to revolutionary changes in the way the language learners learn the English language. Mobile learning is a type of learning that takes place with the help of mobile devices (Kukulska-Hulme& Shield, 2008).

While at the beginning, mobile learning used to focus on the role of mobile phones in education, in the twenty first century the mobile learning is associated with the mobility of the users or language learners in an English classroom.

Mobile learning has certain benefits for language classes as well and allows language teachers to offer access to authentic content, communicative language practice, and task completion (Chinnery, 2006). While the effect of some mobile phone affordances such as Short Message Service (SMS), voice-messaging, cameras, video-recording and internet access have spawned studies (e.g., Thornton & Houser, 2005; Jee,2011), "few studies have investigated students' personal use of mobile apps for learning and the learning benefits" (Steel, 2012, p. l).

Mobile learning can be defined as "any educational provision where the sole or dominant technologies are handheld or palmtop devices" (Traxler, 2005). A mobile device is "any device that is small, autonomous, and obtrusive enough to accompany us in every moment" (Trifanova & Ronechetti, 2003, p.3). In accordance with the developmental history of mobile learning (Sharples, 2006) three aspects can be specified for this type of learning (El-Hussein & Cronje, 2010):

• Mobility of technology
• Mobility of learning
• Mobility of learner

Mobility of technology focuses on examining the possibility of using portable devices such as mobile phones, laptops, and tablets for educational purposes. The focus of mobility on learning is on the extensive use of mobile devices for learning inside and outside the class.

The third aspect focuses on "the mobility of the learner, the design or the appropriation of learning spaces and on informal learning and lifelong learning" (Pachler, Bachmair, & Cook, 2010, p. 41)

The development of mobile phones in the recent years from simple phones to smart-phones, which can serve as a mini-computer for transferring all kinds of data, has made mobile phones efficient learning tools. Klopfer and Squire (2008) describe the affordances of mobile phones as:

• Portability: can take the computer to different sites and move around within a location;
• Social interactivity: can exchange data and collaborate with other people face to face;

• Context sensitivity: can gather data unique to the current location, environment, and time, including both real and simulated data;

• Connectivity: can connect handhelds to data collection devices, other handhelds, and to a common network that creates a true shared environment;

• Individuality: can provide unique scaffolding that is customized to the individual's path of investigation (cited in Squire & /Dikkers, 2012, p. 447);

Mobile devices are effective tools for language learning in general terms (e.g., Rosell- Aguilar, 2007; Fallahkhair, Pemberton, & Griffiths, 2007). They have positive effect on the development of language skills (e.g., Chen & Chang, 2011; Chang & Hsu, 2011), heighten learners' language learning attitudes and motivation (e.g., Huang, Huang, Huang, & Lin, 2012), and support learner interaction, collaboration, and co-construction of knowledge (Joseph & Uther, 2009).

III. DISCUSSION

Mobile Learning Characteristics

According to the researches that have been conducted on characteristics of this kind of eLearning, a number of characteristics has been described for mobile learning. Some of the most important ones are provided below (Al-Ahmadi, 2013):

1. Portability and mobility: Device portability relies on some physical features of the device such as size, weight, and the number of latest technologies applications provided in the construction of the device.

a) The language learners can access the saved information anytime at any place including their English language class.

b) When the data and information are stored in mobile phones, they are portable and moveable.

2. Wireless networking: This characteristic makes the process of learning vital and flexible because most of problems related to Internet connection can be avoided.

3. Interactivity: mobile learning is related to three aspects:

a) **The educational cognitive environment:** By means of mobile learning, even distant language learners who are not in the same area or geographical region can interact with the language teacher, physical and virtual environment.

b) Language learners: The mobile learning is considered as an interactive procedure because in this procedure the language learners are the ones who direct the process of learning. They are not like passive language learners in traditional language learning class, who just wait for the language teacher to provide them with the necessary data and information. Instead, they are independent and create their data themselves.

c) Skillful aspect: This aspect deals with using the latest technologies, apps and other language tools which make the English language learners capable of interaction with each other. A number of these technologies include language learning apps, designated channels for learning any language on the social media app channels including WhatsApp™, Telegram™, Viber™, etc.

4. Unlimited Accessibility: In mobile learning, you have access to a wide range of learning materials and resources from anywhere at any time.

5. Privacy: This does not mean that information and data cannot be shared with other language learners or students, but it means that you may have access the data you want independently from other learners.

6. Spontaneity: The information and data provided for the language learners in mobile learning are not planned in advance and are more flexible.

7. Immediacy: This characteristic is always associated with mobile learning. It means we need quick answers for specific queries such as definitions, formula, or equations.

8. Significant high quality files: All the data delivered via mobile devices are characterized with such kinds of files and the said files can be in the form of images, videos and diagrams.

9. Combination of two learning methods: Mobile learning is a combination of two learning methods which are eLearning and distance learning.

10. Availability: This characteristic was the most important factor which led to the widespread use and development of mobile learning among all groups of language learners because people with different economic states or budget are capable of affording a mobile device. Without the availability of mobile technology, it is impossible to consider mobile learning as a language learning option for learning a language such as English (Al-Ahmadi, 2013).

As it is can be seen so far, the mobile device ownership is increasing across the globe and there has been a lot of discussions and researches about the benefits of using mobiles in language learning.

IV. ANALYSIS

Uses of Mobile in the Classroom

1. **Use of audio recording feature:** Lecturers can make use of this feature built into most smartphones in order to provide personal and quality feedback to all the students. The recent researches have proved the interest of the language learners in it.

2. **Live pooling tools:** Most of the said tools are free of charge and used to determine what the students or language learners already know and what should be focused on by them. These tools can also provide the strength and weakness of those language topics in which the students are week and need more practice to master those topics.

3. **Creating of videos:** Rather than asking the language learners to write a long essay on a topic, the language learners can be asked to create a video file or even an audio recording of what they had researched about.

4. **Chat and other online discussion forums:** To create an online discussion forum to encourage class participation on content topics, language learners can utilize the chat features of mobile phones.

5. **Use of Quick Response (QR) Codes:** The uses of these quick response (QR) codes are on the increase nowadays and are regarded as another great way to use mobile technology in the classroom. The language learners are capable of chatting or discussing together either in the presence or absence of their teacher.

A research recently conducted at the University of KwaZulu-Natal revealed, concluded that 92% of the students agree it is easier to use their mobile device to improve the access to the information. The students will be capable to find whatever they need at the right time whether it is general information on the Internet or it is the information related to their English language course.

Efficiency versus Effectiveness

Before we proceed with continuing the mobile learning topic, there is a need to differentiate between efficiency and effectiveness when we discuss on mobile learning technology. Efficiency in mobile learning mainly refers to the time taken to do something, whereas effectiveness is the level of results required from the actions of the students or language learners. Efficiency deals with achieving something with the least possible resources in the least possible time. The development of mobile technology over the years has helped all the people who are engaged in the education including the language teachers and language learners to achieve this. The powerful features of the mobile technology can be creatively used to make the language learning work effective in order to acquire high results and the language learners are encouraged to add the mobile technology to make the language learning more efficient by preparing plans for creative use of mobile learning in the English language classes (Amit K., 2015).

The English language learning classes or in general, the language learning classes can be more effective by using mobile devices. As all of us has experienced in part of our educational life in the past, the use of mobile phones in the classes were prohibited strictly. However, the remarkable changes happened in the manufacture of these portable devices that changed them from simple devices for daily communication to smartphones which can carry out and handle a large number of the people's daily tasks which was a major step ahead to eliminate these obstacles in using mobile technology in the classes and encourage the educational authorities across the globe to utilize this technology more effectively to benefit in their classes, especially English language learning classes.

Some of the best ways that the mobile devices can be used in the English language classes as an extra tool of learning are listed below (Amit K., 2015):

1. Look for next class topics / new topics

This is one of the basic things of learning and it is always better for the language learners to be familiar with the topic that is going to be discusses in their next language class and mobile devices are the tools which make this possible for the language learners.

The teacher can upload the learning materials for the next class topic or even the existing topic in the form of videos, presentation slides, PDF documents and the language learners or students can easily have access to those files at any time through a simple login.

2. Pre-learning assessments and post-learning assessments

It is predicted that 70% of professionals will do some work from their own, personal smart phones or tablets by 2018(Gartner).

Pre-learning and post-learning assessments are the best option available for a language teacher to identify how much of the content or learning materials have sunk into the minds of their students or language learners.

Conducting these assessments before the beginning of learning a topic on a mobile device can help understand the caveats as well as identify the amount of leaning on that particular topic that has been absorbed by the students or language learners.

But the results of the assessments received after the learning procedure (i.e. post-learning assessments) can be compare with the pre-learning assessments to measure the learning analytics and taking the necessary steps required to clear the learning gaps existing.

Both of these assessments can have a wide range of interactive questions that can be answered over the mobile platform and all or some of these questions can even be selected by the language teacher as part of the language learners' classwork or teamwork.

3. Attendance tracking

This is a way to find out how each student is doing in the language class and to understand the level of participation of the students attending the language class which is a crucial thing for the language teacher. For example, the language teacher can arrange for and add a QR (quick response) code at the time of creating a mobile course for the language learners. If the mobile course is composed of 8 learning modules or 8 learning chapters, the language teacher can add a QR code for each of the said modules or chapters.

A copy of the same QR code relating a learning module can be placed anywhere inside the class and the students who attend the class are requested to scan that QR code via their mobile phones in order to have access to all the activities and exercises of that module or chapter and the person who does not scan the code cannot have access to the learning materials of that particular module or chapter. This is considered a paper free and hassle free procedure to track the attendance of a language learner in a language learning session of a language class.

Once the classroom is over, the language learner can sign in once again and refresh whatever was being taught in the classroom through content for revision available on his mobile phone anytime at any place.

4. Feedback after learning

The level of satisfaction of the course can be shown at this stage and it shows how the learning was taken by the language learners. This feedback can be about anything including the content, the learning environment, the language learner himself and the overall aspects of whatever was being taught. The feedback can be performed real time or through a list of questions about the whole language learning program. These feedbacks either negative or positive are of high importance for the language teachers for adopting new teaching strategies and approaches as well as the educational authorities in modifying and improving the educational policies in the future.

5. Tracking

The other advantage of using mobile devices in the procedure of learning a foreign language such as English is that this technology enables the language teachers to capture the learning journey of their students or language teachers in great detail. The detailed reports generated in this way can be both at individual and cumulative levels (Bhattacharyya, 2016).

Both the performance and participation levels of the language learners can be tracked and monitored strictly via visually enriching reports such as bar charts, pie charts, graph charts, block charts, and so many kinds of charts or tables. This kind of strict monitoring and tracking can provide so much information before the eyes of the language learners. They can notice the strengths and weaknesses of their language learners based on their gender and evaluate their capabilities and talents they may have in a particular language skill(s).

I hereby provide you two examples of my own teaching experience at Towheed International Iranian School in Dubai, UAE. These examples can show you how a teacher can track and monitor his students' language learning skills and help them improve their strengths and eradicate their weaknesses they all encounter in learning a new language.

In our school, we usually use two separate websites for language teaching. One is called "MyELT" that is used with National Geographic English Language Books Series and the other one is called "IXL" which is a digital platform for providing activities and exercises in the area of language arts, math, social studies and science where we hereby focus on the language arts section of this digital platform.

The official website for "MyELT" is http://myelt.heinle.com where the students can have access to the website trough their own login details and proceed with doing the exercises assigned by their teachers within a time period locked by the language teacher. It means that they cannot do any more exercises if their time period is expired.

The teacher can also assign different types of exercises to different students based on their language learning capabilities, especially if there are any SEN (Special Student Needs) students in your language class. Afterwards, the language teacher can track his students' level of participation and performance in different exercises assigned to them in a chart I have provided for you in the following page.

A photo of the cover page of the book whose either app or website is used by my English language students is shown as well.

The next page chart provides the performance and participation of students in language classes in the girls' section of Towheed International Iranian School and expresses doing the exercises of Unit One of National Geographic English Language Series Book No.3.

This unit consists of the following activities:
• Clear and precise words
• Pronoun references
• Unity
• Sequencing information
• Transitional words and phrases
• vocabulary
• Editing
• writing

Student ▲	Total ▼	Unit 1 / I...ction to Paragraphs / Editing	Unit 1 / I...entifying Unrelated Sentences	Unit 1 / I...on to Paragraphs / Noun Forms	Unit 1 / I...electin
✉ Akbari, Ghazal	73.82%	70%	50%	30%	50%
✉ barzegar, fatemeh	98.95%	80%	100%	100%	100%
✉ ebrahimzadeh, sadaf	80.63%	60%	75%	100%	90%
✉ Jalali, Negin	97.91%	100%	100%	100%	100%
✉ jalili, hosna	31.41%	0%	0%	0%	0%
✉ joukar, leila	42.93%	50%	50%	80%	90%
✉ khajavi, hedieh	92.15%	70%	75%	100%	90%
✉ mzn, zahra	83.77%	90%	100%	100%	60%
✉ rafiei, maryam	29.84%	0%	0%	0%	0%
✉ ramzi, zahra	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
✉ Saidian, Farnaz	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
✉ shafiee, zahra	92.15%	100%	100%	80%	80%
✉ Shekari, Shiva	97.38%	100%	100%	100%	100%
✉ sorbi, maryam	72.25%	70%	50%	70%	80%

/aiting for myelt.heinle.com...

Chart 1: Students' performance and participation in doing online practices
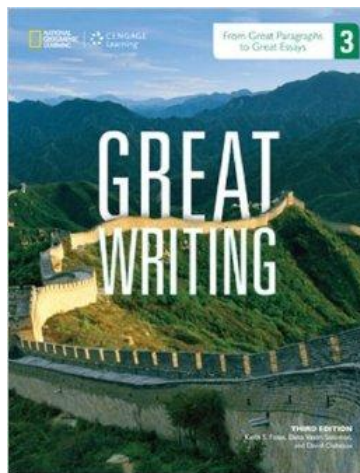
As a language teacher, you can easily track their performance in doing the exercises of Unit One in the said book in the form of a percentage and a percentage average of their overall performance for each chapter or unit is given separately.

Another official website introduced above is "IXL" website which is a digital educational platform and its app version is also available at Apple© AppStore™ for mobile learning in English language classes and this is the key of success for this website that made it one of the popular educational digital platforms among the UAE schools including Towheed International Iranian School and is widely used by the English language learners. IXL official website is given below:

http://www.ixl.com

Because our school has purchased the annual subscription for this website and we are a member school of their digital educational platforms, our language teachers usually sign in the said website through the following link:

http://www.ixl.com/signin/towheed

Same as the "MyELT", I hereby provide you the analytics report of the same class students in general and some of my particular students in that class in great detail.

A sample screenshot of the website welcome page is shown below:

Towheed International School

Sign in

Username mobinizad @towheed

Password •••••

Sign in   ☐ Remember

Forgot username? | Forgot password?

Teachers, have an activation key? Set up your account

Not from Towheed International School?

Learn more about IXL ›

Welcome to IXL!

IXL is a comprehensive, standards-aligned math and language arts practice program offering unlimited problems in thousands of skills. One of the best things about IXL is that you may use it from school and from home!

Before you start, be sure to sign in to your IXL account! Enter your username and password on this page and click "Sign in." If you do not know your username or password, please ask your teacher. And remember to bookmark this page so that you can return here easily.

After signing in, click on your level – to select skills to practice. You may place your mouse over any skill to see a sample question. Or, click the Awards tab to begin conquering challenges and uncovering prizes!

IXL – Practice and excel!

After you login the IXL website, you can see the exercises are listed according to different levels from Level A up to Level N. Level A is designated for KG1 students or language learners and Level N is designed for Grade 12 students or language learners who will graduate from the high school. The content of the exercises for each level of students is defined according to their abilities and appropriateness for their age. For Example, KG1 students are more fun-driven than content-driven.

This website contains many tracking tools for the language learner to understand the progress of the students in English language. The first tab is "Dashboard" tab that is shown below:
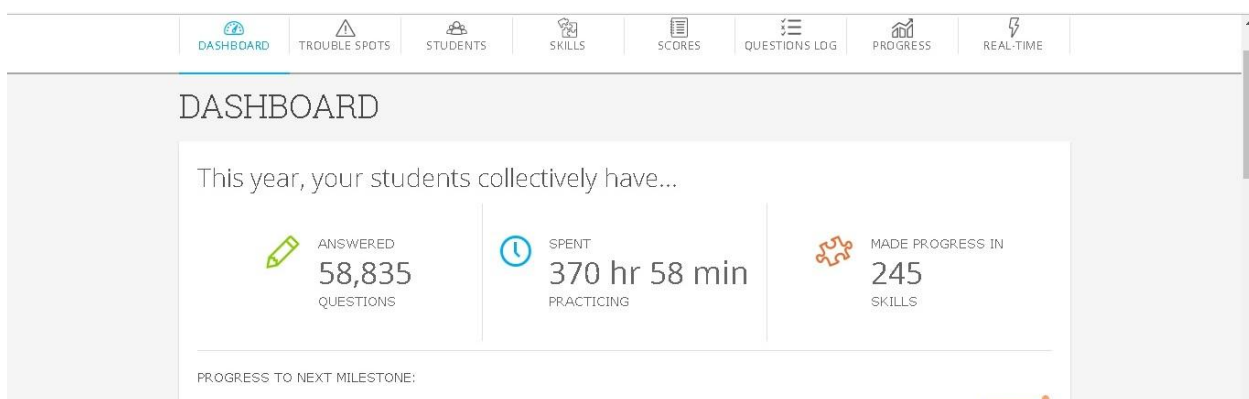

Chart 2: Total number of questions answered and time taken by each class

This tab tracks information such as the total number of questions answered, the time spent by them and their progress in language learning skills.

The second tab is called "Trouble Spots" whose screenshot is provided below:

Chart 3: A typical grammar question and names of students answered incorrectly

The tab shows the question or questions that the language learners were unable to answer or even missed and the name of those language learners are provided after the question itself in green boxes.

The third tab is "Students" tab which shows the amount work practice by the student at school as well as the activities done by the students at home or whenever the student was at home or anywhere out of the school and had access to his mobile device.

The daily practice of each language learner is shown in a separate bar chart same as the typical bar chart provided in the next page for one of my students in the said class and it can be easily recognized based on their color. The green color shows the practice was done at school and the blue color shows the practice was done at home or anywhere else where the mobile devices were within the access of the language learners. Their category practice is also represented in different colors and in a circular shape.
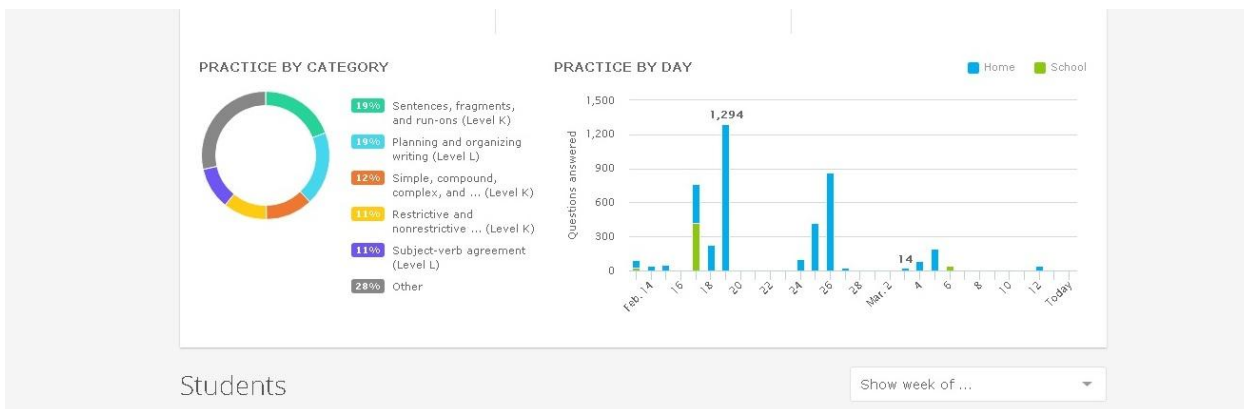
Chart 4: Grammar category practice

The "Skills" tab is the following tab which evaluates the language learners' skills in doing the modules they were assigned plus some other useful information such as the number of students who practiced that particular module, the questions answered and the time sent by them.

SKILL	STUDENTS PRACTICED	QUESTIONS ANSWERED	TIME SPENT
L-EE.1 Order topics from broadest to narrowest	8	438	4 hr 13 min
K-J.3 Choose punctuation to avoid fragments and run-ons	8	385	1 hr 57 min
K-J.2 Identify run-on sentences	8	162	59 min
K-B.1 What does the punctuation suggest?	7	295	2 hr 24 min
K-M.2 Is the sentence simple, compound, complex, or compound-complex?	7	273	1 hr 1 min
K-J.1 Identify sentence fragments	7	270	1 hr 21 min
L-M.1 Identify and correct errors with subject-verb agreement	7	178	2 hr 19 min
L-EE.2 Identify thesis statements	6	353	1 hr 4 min

Chart 5: List of skills practiced by each class

The fifth tab is called "Scores" tab and provides a more detailed analysis among the students of the same class in answering various modules of a topic in the form of a grid.

Viewing best attempt scores for practice from this school year.

	GHAZAL AKBARI	FATEMEH BARZEG...	SADAF EBRAHIMZ...	NEGIN JALALI MO...	HOSNA JALILI	LEILA JOUKAR	HEDYEH KHAJAVI	ZAHRA MOAZENI	MARYAM RAFIEI	ZAHRA RAMZI SAR...	FARNAZ SAEIDIAN...	ZAHRA SHAFIEE S...	SHIVA SHEKARI	MARYAM SORBI
▼ COMMAS														
A.1 Commas with direct addresses, intro...	55	100	40	94		100	70	38	80	13	100	69	54	
A.2 Commas with series, dates, and plac...		100	48	86		90		100		100	19	16		
A.3 Commas with compound and comple...		100	61	100		0		100		100	100			
A.4 Commas with coordinate adjectives		100	19	43			81		88	81				
A.5 Commas: review		100	19	84			100		38					
▼ RESTRICTIVE AND NONRESTRICTIVE ELEMENTS														

Chart 6: Students' scores in different grammar categories

The sixth tab is "Questions Log" and includes information such as current smart score, the number of questions answered and the time spent separately and in the form of a chart as well. This information is available for each of the students in a class and can be of great potential for both the English language learners and the English language teacher.
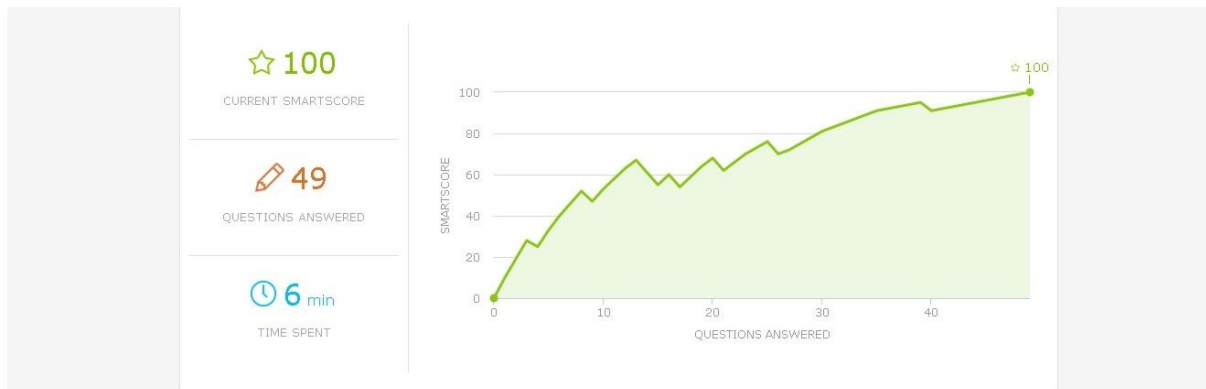

Chart 7: Total progress graph of each student

The seventh tab is "Progress" tab and is a sign of the amount of progress and improvement of any of the English language class students in a particular area of English such as language arts, grammar or even writing mechanics.

The language teacher can also track the performance speed of the student in answering each of the questions and whenever there is no logical connection between the time spent by the student and the related questions answered by the same person, or even when there is a long delay in answering the questions, I can conclude that the student just repeats himself and does not know how to find out the answer.

This also means that the student(s) do not master some topics completely and they have a lack of comprehensive information in that language skill.
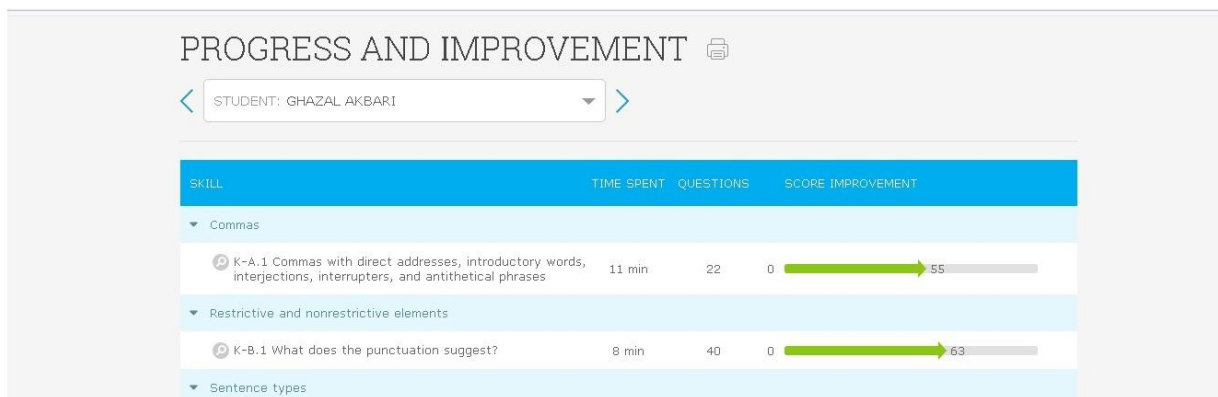

Chart 8: A typical student progress

The last tab is "Real-time" tab and is always referred to as a student activity wall where everything is marked and registered over this wall and each language learner or student has his own activity wall.
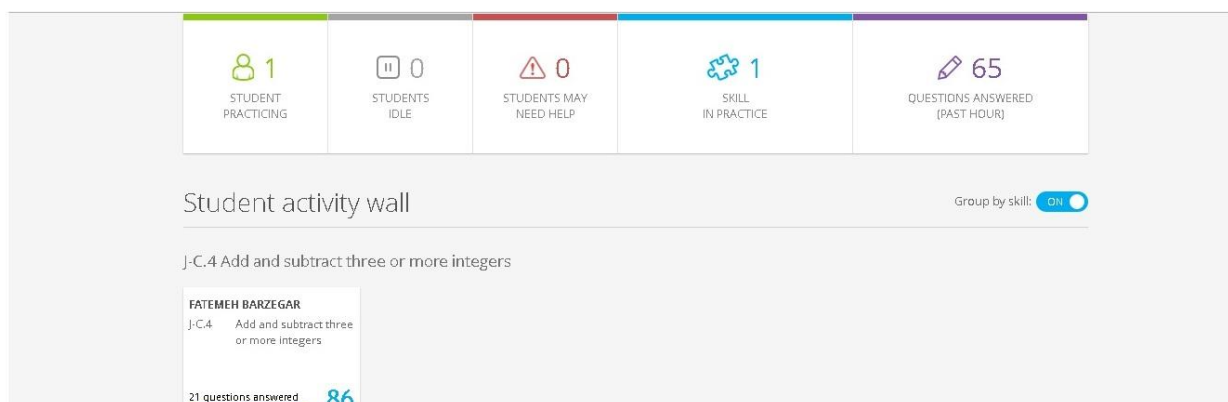

Chart 9: Student activity wall (real-time)

Utilizing websites such as the one I use at Towheed International Iranian School in Dubai is a typical tracking website whose app is installed on the students' mobile devices in the English language classes and is a practical way of

tracking your language students before or after entering the class and encourage their tendency in participation in classes more than before.

This can be regarded as a useful interaction of education and technology in the current century which benefits both the English language teachers and the English language learners and will result in more progressive learning processes in the upcoming years. the preferences for mobile learning is on the increase with time and using their potential power to make the English language learning more exciting and interesting can reward the English language learners and their lecturers or teachers.

You have learned so far that a language teacher can make the most advantage of a language learning class by embracing the mobile learning in his or her language classes or even the live events of his or her classroom. The mobile learning technology in a language class can raise the engagement and participation of in a language learning class. I hereby introduce 5 easy tips that can be taken by a language teacher to build the mobile learning into his or her classroom events or teachings and instructions (Davis, 2013).

6. Poll or quiz learners in real time

Using a service like "Poll Anywhere" accompanied with the learners' mobile phones, you can set up a poll or quiz in order to track the instant messages sent via text, twitter, or a web browser.

At first, the language learner can prepare so sort of fun language-related activity to get the attention of the language learners and make them familiar with this technology, and then continue to engage them throughout the class.

7. Leverage an online learning space related to the event

An online learning space (for example, a members-only group on Whatsapp™ or LinkedIn™) offers tools for interacting with other language learners during a language learning session and the learners would be able to use their cell phones to log in to their online learning portal during the language training. They can also benefit the online learning portal by recalling and refreshing on what they learned for on-demand learning

8. Watch a video online

According to the policies defined for mobile learning in a language learning class by the instructional designers of classroom materials and educational facilitators, the access to a wide range of comprehensive resources including the multimedia files can live up any language learning experience.

You can create a video channel relating to your language learning class on "YouTube" website and upload weekly videos for your students to watch, especially whenever you are on long vacation or you have a sick leave and cannot attend the language class physically. It can even be a pre-learning video which sounds necessary for all the language learners of a particular language class before taking part in the next language learning session. Depending on the nature of the video, language learners can reference it later for on-demand mobile learning.

9. Build Internet-related activities

This is a useful adjunct to the real language learning classes. An easy way to do such kinds of activities is to ask learners to research online information related to the topic at hand. These activities can be assigned individually or as a group depending on the size and structure of language classroom.

10. Use voice messages

By leaving a voice message on a language learning class group, all the students invited in that group-whose administrator is the language teacher of the said class- can receive all the necessary instructions or directions they need to answer their activities during the class time or even when the teacher is out of reach and is not present in the language class. For example, the message can provide clues that learners need to address a series of questions as part of an activity (Davis, 2013).

"The inclusion of mobile technologies in a language learning class can indeed increase the impact of learning, but it can also have its own concerns for the language teachers which will be discussed in the following chapters".

V. RESULTS

Mobile learning concerns in a language class

The concerns involved in mobile learning range from fears of distraction to personal lack of knowledge on how technology works and some other concerns that may threaten the language learners' potential capabilities which seem to be of less degree of importance in relation to the advantages that this technology brings with itself to make the language learners more active than the traditional language learning classes.

Some of these common concerns are listed below (Amit K., 2015):

1. The technology supersedes the language learner's knowledge.

If the language learner feels that his technological literacy is lower than his students, this may bring in a loss of confidence in handling new technology for learning. In these cases, the best way for a language learner is to update his knowledge of the recent technologies or even software released to the market and study the software tutorials in order to take and gain confidence in handling them. The language teacher can understand and master the utility of the available apps and choose the right ones for their classroom.

Then he can also answer the learners' queries on how to use it and afterwards, the language learners can follow up their language teacher's instructions for using that app on their cell phones so that the language teacher not only gains confidence but also feels that he or she is one step ahead of his students or language learners.

2. The mobile devices are considered as distracting tools by language teachers.

The language teachers may have such opinions because all of our daily lives are saturated with mobile phones, but there are ways that can help the language teachers to harness their students' appeal for mobile technology into classroom training.

The popularity of the mobile phones should be an opportunity for language teachers to embrace and channel the interests of their students by integrating mobile devices into classroom learning. So it is the best to make the most of this technology and avoid conflict with learners over the prohibition of their favorite device when getting students involved in the lesson by allowing use of the technology that would otherwise be a distraction.

3. The language teachers sometimes cannot tie mobile learning into the language learning class.

In fact, cell phones were not invented for learning, but there are many features embedded in smart phones that made them as the best practical tool to be utilized in a language classroom. Language learners or instructors can prepare specific assignments for language learners to complete, and learners can carry them out using their mobile devices. Mobile learning apps are integral to a language lesson and become second nature for language teachers and students to use. And the language learners should be aware that some mobile apps designed for language learning programs or classes will work better for certain teaching styles than others. In the end, no one can deny that mobile devices are here to stay and the number of the mobile apps is increasing with each passing day. Most language learners or lecturers agree that student engagement increases and learning outcomes are achieved better when language classroom lessons are run by mobile technology as part of the language learning procedure.

Mobile learning objectives

1. Encourage 'anywhere, anytime' learning

Mobile devices allow students to collect, access, and process data in and out of the classroom, but our focus in this paper is on in-class mobile learning. One of the objectives here is to encourage learning in a real-world context.

2. Reach underserved children

Getting access to the children from economically disadvantaged communities and those from the developing countries is another objective that can be met with the help of these digital handheld devices.

3. Improve the social interactions

If you want to be a successful person in the 21st century, it is necessary to promote your communication via the help of mobile devices.

4. Fit with learning environments

Mobile devices can help overcome many of the challenges associated with other technologies in various learning environments.

5. Enable a customized learning experience

Instruction can be adaptable according to the needs of each language learner and this is what that can be individualized through mobile learning (**Source:** http://Mobl21.com).

Mobile learning challenges

1. Negative aspects of mobile learning

The potential for distraction or unethical behavior, physical health concerns, and data privacy issues are some of the common disadvantages related to mobile learning.

2. Cultural norms and attitudes

A 2008 study done by the Joan Ganz Cooney center in collaboration with Common Sense Media found that most teachers see cell phones as distractions and feel that they have no place in school.

3. No mobile theory of learning

Up to now, no widely accepted learning theory for mobile learning has been defined and established among the educational authorities or even among the English language learners themselves.

4. Differentiated access and technology

The mobile technologies represent a challenge for language teachers as well as the language learners or students who wish to accelerate academic outcomes.

5. Limiting physical attributes

Small screen size and limited battery life are two major physical aspects of mobile phones that prevent an optimal learning experience. These existing problems may be eliminated in the upcoming years (**Source:** http://Mobl21.com).

I hereby draw your attention to the following table made and prepared by "mobl21" website. (**Source**: http://Mobl21.com). This chart compares e-Learning with m-Learning (or mobile learning). Before you proceed with the chart given below, keep in mind that e-Learning can be real-time or self-paced but on the contrary, mobile learning is self-paced ad informal in its presentation.

e-learning	mobile learning
lecture in classroom or Internet labs	learning anywhere, anytime
e-mail to e-mail	instantaneous messaging
private location	no geographic boundaries
travel time to reach to Internet site	no travel time with wireless Internet connectivity

VI. CONCLUSION

The fact that technology has entered our classrooms and is here to stay is undeniable. What is left is finding the best possible way to navigate through the sea of pros and cons finding the best possible solutions for your students and their needs (Sarah Green, 2015). As you read this paper, you noticed that no fixed theory has been established in the field of mobile learning but this technology is making progress on its way towards the next generation of learners in the future and everything will be affected by this portable technology since education is the foundation of all branches of sciences which turned our world to better place for living.

And all the traditional methods will be soon replaced by mobile-based methods and technologies and no more trace of the old previous methods will be left in educational world as you can see nowadays that their role is diminishing and fading away gradually.

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A Review on Motion Event from a Typological Perspective

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Abstract—**In light of the lexicalization patterns as proposed by Talmy (1985, 1991, 2000) and Slobin's "Thinking for Speaking" hypothesis (1991, 1996, 2000), this paper provides a review on motion event from a typological perspective. Also, a constellation of studies on the classification of Chinese in motion event typology has been presented and discussed. These works advance our knowledge of motion research, and set the stage for subsequent research on how motion expressions are understood and used in everyday communication.**

Index Terms—**motion event, motion event typology, satellite-framed languages, verb-framed languages, equipollently-framed languages**

I. INTRODUCTION

In the last several decades, there has been an increasing interest in the research of motion events, as well as their descriptions in typologically different languages. It has become almost impossible to consider motion-event descriptions from a typological perspective without starting from the seminal work of Talmy (1985, 1991, 2000), and its application to narrative and to the issue of linguistic relativity by Slobin (1996a, 1996b, 1997a, 1997b, 2000), as also testified by many of the contributions to this volume (cf. Ibarretxe-Antuñano, Zlatev & Yangklang, Ameka & Essegbey, Tai, Papafragou, Massey & Gleitman, and Wen & Shan).

II. TALMY'S LINGUISTIC TYPOLOGY OF MOTION EVENTS

Motion events, as Talmy (1985, p. 61) describes, is a situation "containing movement or maintenance of a stationary location". Motion is one of the most essential and pervasive experiences, which can be subdivided into two kinds: self-contained motion and translational motion. The former refers to motion without a change of location in space, such as rotation, oscillation, or dilation, while the latter denotes motion of an object whose location in space makes a change. In Talmian research on typology of lexicalization patterns of motion events, translational motion is among the major subjects.

According to Talmy (2000), a motion event consists of six basic semantic components, while the first four elements constituting the central or "internal components", the last two are associated or "external co-event components". These are: Figure, Ground, Path, Motion, Manner and Cause.

(1) The internal components of a motion event
    Figure: the object that moves
    Ground: the entity that the Figure is moving in relation to
    Path: the trajectory of the Figure or the course followed by the Figure with respect to the Ground
    Motion: the fact that some entity changes its location
(2) The external co-event components of a motion event
    Manner: the way in which the Motion is performed
    Cause: the cause due to which the Motion originates
    These components can be illustrated with some of Talmy's classical examples (1985, p. 61):
(3) *The pencil*   *rolled*   *off*   *the table*
    [figure]   [motion+manner]   [path]   [ground]
(4) *The pencil*   *blew*   *off*   *the table*
    [figure]   [motion+cause]   [path]   [ground]

In both sentences *the pencil* and *the table* functions as the figure and the ground respectively, and the particle *off* plays the role of the path. As for the motion part, in (3), the manner component is conflated with the motion component, and the verb *rolled* specifies that the manner of movement. In (4), it is the cause component that is conflated with the motion component and the verb *blew* specifies the cause of the movement of the pencil, which is the figure object.

Talmy (1991) has identified the *core schema* ("the association function that sets the figural entity into a particular relationship with the ground entity", Talmy, 2000, p. 218) of motion events as being the path dimension of motion, i.e., corresponds to the category of path. Therefore, among the six semantic components of a motion event, path is generally regarded as the core feature of the event, and languages differ significantly in that the distinction in the way the core feature of an event is expressed.

According to Talmy (1985, 2000), languages generally fall into two basic typological categories: "verb-framed" languages and "satellite-framed" languages (V-languages and S-languages), on the basis of how they encode the core information about the path of movement. The former languages encode the core feature in the verb, while the latter in a "satellite" (e.g., verb particles, prefixes) to the verb, and the verb expresses the co-event, usually manner or cause. The distinction of the verb stem or the "satellite" is supposed to cut a line through the world's languages, as stated by Talmy:

Languages that characteristically map the core schema into the verb will be said to have a *framing verb* and to be *verb-framed*. Included among such languages are Romance, Semitic, Japanese, Tamil, Polynesian, most Bantu, most Mayan, Nez Perce, and Caddo. On the other hand, languages that characteristically map the core schema onto the satellite will be said to have a *framing satellite* and to be *satellite-framed* languages, and included among them are most Indo-European minus Romance, Finno-Ugric, Chinese, Ojibwa and Warlpiri. (Talmy, 2000, p. 222)

For instance, English, which is a typical S-language, characteristically encode the path in the subordinate satellite element associated with a verb such as a particle (in, out, across), whereas V-languages as Spanish, encode the path in the main verb in a clause more frequently (e.g., equivalents of enter, exit, ascend, descend, etc.). This contrast can be best illustrated by example (5) from Slobin (1997b).

(5) English Original　　　　　　　　Spanish Translation
　　I ran <u>out</u> the kitchen door,　　　*Sal í por la puerta de la cocina*
　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　"I <u>exited</u> [by] the kitchen door"
　　<u>past</u> the animal pens,　　　　　*pas é por los corrale*
　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　"<u>passed</u> by the animal pens"
　　<u>toward</u> Jasón's house.　　　　　*y me dirig ía casa de Jas ón*
　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　"and <u>directed myself</u> to Jasón's house"

These two categories of languages also differ in their preferences for encoding manner of movement. In other words, S-languages typically encode manner of movement in the verb, whereas V-languages usually use subordinate elements to describe the manner. Therefore, to describe a scene in which a man ran as he entered a house, an English speaker would most likely say *The man ran into the room.,* rather than *The man came into the room,* ***running.,*** even though both are possible for this S-framed language. In contrast, a speaker of Spanish will most likely indicate that motion has occurred in a particular direction, without indication of manner. Instead, a "supporting information" about manner of movement may conveyed by a gerundive form *corriendo* (equivalent of "running"). As Talmy (1985, 2000) points out, the gerundive or adverbial type of constituent can be "stylistically awkward", thus in some circumstances, information about manner or cause of movement is "often either established in the surrounding discourse or omitted altogether" (Talmy, 1985, p. 69).

All in all, English speakers explicitly and obligatorily indicates manner in the verb and path in the adverbial particle. This pattern contrasts with that of Spanish, the speakers of which are forced by their language to use path verbs, whereas manner is confined to an optional adverbial modifier. In sum, to talk about culminated events, English speakers typically encode both manner and path, while Spanish speakers encode path in the verb and tend to left manner unexpressed (Gennari et al, 2002).

It is worth mentioning that English also has certain verbs that encode information about path and that can be used as main verbs (*rise, enter, exit, ascend, descend, advance, proceed, approach, arrive, depart, return, separate, part,* etc.). However, most of such verbs are borrowed from French or other Romance languages that they are not the typical means of expressing motion events in English. Similarly, certain manner verbs in Spanish can also be used as the main verbs to describe motion events. Yet again, this is not the preferred way of expressing motion events in Spanish.

III. Slobin's "Thinking for Speaking" Hypothesis

As described in the previous section, speakers of English and Spanish differ in how they talk about the same observed change of location. The typological differences across languages show that languages have different syntactic-semantic preferences when their speakers talk about motion.

By comparing the ways in which speakers of different languages depict the same events in orally elicited narratives as well as in written texts based on a wordless story-book, *Frog, where are you?* (Mayer, 1969), Slobin proposes that such typological linguistic differences have also been shown to impact the structure of an entire narrative, and lands on the conclusion that "the form and content of descriptions of journeys are heavily shaped by the typology of lexicalization patterns" (1996a, p. 195). Several contrasts have been observed between S-languages and V-languages, and those structural differences have significant and predictable implications for the organization of connected discourse in the two language types.

Slobin's (1997b) proposals regarding motion event descriptions in S- versus V-languages
Regarding manner
　a. V-language users express manner only when it is absolutely needed, and typically, translational motion takes precedence.
　b. S-languages have a larger and more diverse lexicon of manner verbs than V-languages.
　c. Manner verbs in S-languages are more expressive than those in V-languages.
regarding path

d. V-language users mention fewer path segments than S-language users do when describing comparable motion events.

regarding ground

e. V-language users use fewer ground elements per clause than S-language users do.

f. V-language users are more likely to use motion verbs without any ground information in the clause than S-language users.

regarding rhetorical style

g. V-language users devote more attention to describing aspects of the static scene which provides the physical context for a motion event, whereas S-language users devote more attention to descriptions of the process of motion.

This pattern of differences between S- and V-languages in language use has been examined by independent researchers working on a variety of languages (e.g., Slobin, 1997b; Ibarretxe-Antuñano, 2004; Papafragou, Massey & Gleitman, 2006, etc.), and is "apparently independent of language family, geographical area, and culture" (Slobin, 2003, p. 164).

To account for the systematic differences in patterns of language use (e.g., narration of motion events in stories) by narrators of typologically different languages, Slobin (1996b) proposes what he calls "Thinking for Speaking" hypothesis, which is a modified version of the classic Sapir-Whorf arguments on linguistic relativity and determinism that were much debated in the first half of the twentieth century. The two critical terms of Sapir -Whorf hypothesis are *thought* and *language*, which are inseparable. Languages vary from one another; thereby each speech community embodies a distinct world-view. Slobin (1996b, p. 71), however, replaces *thought* and *language* with a related yet different pair of terms: *thinking* and *speaking*, in order to draw attention to the mental processes that occur during the act of formulating an utterance. The difference between Slobin's hypothesis and Sapir and Whorf's view is that the main goal of the latter is not to prove the effects of grammar on world-view or non-linguistic behavior, but to "focus attention just on those parts of utterances that are acquired by the grammatical organization of the language" (ibid.), and to demonstrate how speakers of a language organize their thinking in line with the linguistic tools offered by that language, i.e. how "the thinking is carried out, on-line, in the process of speaking" (Slobin, 1991, p. 11). According to his own formulation,

The expression of experience in linguistic terms constitutes thinking for speaking — a special form of thought that is mobilized for communication…We encounter the contents of the mind in a special way when they are being accessed for use. That is, the activity of thinking takes on a particular quality when it is employed in the activity of speaking. In the evanescent time frame of constructing utterances in discourse one fits one's thoughts into available linguistic frames. "Thinking for speaking" involves picking those characteristics of objects and events that (a) fit some conceptualization of the event, and (b) are readily encodable in the language (ibid., p, 12).

That is to say, an experience cannot be expressed unless the speaker takes a specific perspective influenced, if not determined, by the typological characteristics and lexicalization patterns of a given language. We perceive the same events but choose the different ways to talk about them, and that is what language presents to us. Therefore, Slobin (1996a) suggests that any event, i.e., a motion event, can be described in terms of two different cognitive frames. The one which he calls a "discourse frame" refers to the actual event or experience that we want to describe, and a "typological frame", on the other hand, depicts the domain that the tools provided for and constraints imposed on speakers in verbalizing that event in a particular language.

The "Thinking for Speaking" hypothesis also claims that there is a special kind of thinking that is intimately tied to language. That is to say, besides speaking, the thinking carried out on-line in the process of writing and reading, talking and listening, or translating, which can be confirmed respectively in motion events in creative fiction, in conversation and from one language type to the other (Slobin, 2000).

IV. THE TYPOLOGY OF MOTION EXPRESSIONS REVISITED

Current cognitive linguistic research on the underlying conceptual organization of language has identified the "event" to be a basic building block of language and cognition (e.g., Goldberg, 1998; Talmy, 2000). From a typological perspective, motion events have received more attention than almost any other type of event. There have been indubitable signs since Talmy first suggested the intriguing proposal that language fall into two types with respect to how they encode directed motion events over thirty years ago (Talmy, 1972).

It is undoubted that Talmy's topological classification of motion events has been extremely influential. This generalization, however, does not apply to all lexicalizations of motion events. It has started to be modified more recently; new types have been proposed, by Talmy himself and by others, so as to account for languages that do not quite fit into this classification, or that go against the purported type.

Croft et al. (2002) point out that the original classification that Talmy proposed, i.e. satellite framing and verb framing, "…are asymmetric in their encoding of the semantic components of an event, which means one component is expressed by a verb predicate, and the other component by an element that cannot independently function as a verb predicate" (ibid., p, 206). But for the class of symmetric constructions in diverse set of languages, there seems different for the encoding of event and frame. In their serial verb constructions, for instance, Mandarin Chinese, or Thai, both event and frame are verbalized in forms that may occur as predicates on their own. This has also been observed by

others (see also Zlatez & Yangklang, 2004; Bohnemeyer et al., 2007), including Talmy himself, thus a third—serial construction has been added to the binary typology. However, besides the serial strategy, compounding and coordination also fall into the symmetric construction. Compounding is more grammaticalized; the two forms are morphologically bound, more closely integrated than the serial strategy. And a coordination construction can be used to express the combination of two components of a motion event, with the same subject in an appropriate context. Croft et al. (2002) identify another construction, a double framing construction, where "the path or framing expression is expressed twice, once as a detached satellite and once as part of the verb" (ibid.). Bohnemeyer et al. discover the type, too, describing it as "double marking" (Bohnemeyer et al., 2007). In their analysis, the double framing construction is not symmetrical, in that "the complex event is encoded partly in the verb form and partly by a satellite" (ibid.). Consequently, as Croft et al. suggests, Talmy's typological classification can be extended as follows:

(6) a. Satellite framing   (e.g. English, Russian)
    b. Verb framing   (e.g. French, Spanish)
    c. Symmetrical
       (i) Serial   (e.g. Thai)
       (ii) Compounding   (e.g. Kiowa)
       (iii) Coordinate   (e.g. Amele)
    d. Double framing   (e.g. French, Russian)

By examining the examples of a, b, and d, it is worth mentioning that Talmy's categorization has generally been taken as a topological classification of languages, which means, languages encode different motion events consistently with the same morphosyntactic type. Nevertheless, this is not the case. In fact, none of these languages are consistently one type or another in the expressing of events. Berman and Slobin also comment that "as a general caveat, it should be remembered that topological characterization often reflects tendencies rather than absolute differences between languages" (Berman & Slobin, 1994, p. 18).

Speaking of Slobin, a more acceptable and putative broadened version of Talmy's typological classification is Slobin's trichotomy method of encoding complex events. Zlatev & Yangklang (2004) argue that serializing languages share characteristics of both satellite- and verb-framing languages, and thus do not easily correspond to either of the patterns provided by Talmy's typology. In order to better account for typological distinctions, Slobin (2004) then introduces a third pattern – the Equipollently-framed pattern, mainly representing languages with serial verbs, and bi-partite verbs in which two (or more) verb stems are required to lexicalize motion events. Recently, more work extends Talmy's typology to include a third class of "E-framed languages", comprising languages in which "path and manner are expressed by equivalent grammatical forms" (ibid, p. 249).

Indeed, an important gap in the typology seems apparent when considering serializing languages, such as Thai (Zlatev & Yangklang, 2004), or Ewe (Ameka & Essegbey, 2006). The specificity of these languages is to express both path and manner *equipollently* in a single verb clause containing two (or more) obligatory verbs, i.e. one verb may express path and one or more verb may encode manner. That is to say, path and manner receive equal semantic emphasis within the same verb complex.

(7) a. Satellite-framed: Manner is encoded as a main verb; path must be a satellite.
    b. Verb-framed: Path is encoded as a main verb; manner must be a subordinate adjunct.
    c. Equipollently-framed: Path and manner are both encoded as main verbs.

In our analysis, we adopt the second elaboration of revised topological classification, for its strong influence and widely acceptance, to identify the place of Chinese in motion event typology.

V. THE VARIOUS WAYS OF ENCODING MOTION EVENTS IN CHINESE

Talmy's (1985, 1991, 2000) binary typology is based on the way in which different languages across the world preferentially express path (i.e., change of location) in verbs or in elements associated with verbs. This is obvious for languages such as English and Spanish where distinct lexical categories or morphological markings are present to differentiate the main verb from its supporting elements. In these languages, there is only one verb slot in a clause. In satellite-framed languages (e.g., English and German), the verb slot is typically occupied by a manner-of-motion verb. In verb-framed languages (e.g., Spanish and French), the verb slot is typically occupied by a path verb and a manner verb is used as the main verb only if the clause does not assert a change of state (Slobin & Hoiting, 1994). Consequently, in these languages, it is relatively easy to figure out which is the main lexical element, and which is the supporting element.

Chinese, however, makes use of a quite different strategy, where manner is typically expressed in the first verb and path is expressed in the second verb in a serial verb construction (V1 + V2) as in *zǒu-jìn jiàoshì* "walk-enter classroom". Chinese allows for at least two verb slots in a single clause: one for the path verb, and another or more for the manner. It always seems not quite clear that which verb is the main verb.

Therefore, the classification of Chinese in motion event typology has been a highly controversial issue, and a plethora of related studies recently inspire an increasing debate among linguists home and abroad.

A.   Chinese as a Satellite-framed Language

Talmy (1985, 2000) claims that Chinese is a satellite-framed language, as he supposes that the specification of manner lies in the verb root, and the path information is encoded in another verb that functions as a complement to the manner verb. Before further analyzing Talmy's inspection toward the status of Chinese in motion event typology, we must first deal with a set of factors that tend to indicate that a language treats a particular constituent type as its main verb or verb root (Talmy, 2005) (cited in Ibarretxe-Antuñano, 2005).

Principle

(1) *Factors that tend to mark a particular constituent type as the main verb (root)*

Of two constituent types in a language that can be considered for having main verb status, one of them ranks higher for that status.

(1a). Morphology

if it can take inflections or clitics for such semantic categories as tense, aspect, mood, evidentiality, negation, causation, voice, transitivity, or the person, number, and gender of the subject (and object).

(1b). Syntax

if, as head, it directly or nestedly forms constructions with such other sentence constituents as: adverbs; particles for place, time, aspect, quantity (e.g., floats), negation, etc.; a subject or object nominal.

(1c). co-occurrence patterns

if its presence is required across a range of construction types, while the other constituent type need not or cannot be present in some of those construction types.

(1d). class size

if it has more morpheme members or is open-class while the other constituent has fewer morpheme members or is closed-class.

(1e). phonology

(1e1). if its morpheme members have a greater average phonological length.

(1e2). if its morpheme members vary over a greater range of phonological length or pattern.

(1e3). if its morpheme members including phonemes ranging over a greater portion of the phonemic inventory of the language.

(1f). semantics

(1f1). if the meanings of its member morphemes tend to have more substantive content greater specificity, and a greater number of more varied conceptual components associated together in more intricate relationships, while those of the other constituent type tend to have less of these.

(1f2). if the meanings of its member morphemes range over a greater variety of concepts and types of concepts and trail off into more outlying conceptual areas, while those of the other constituent type tend to fit a more stereotyped semantic category.

(1f3). if it is experienced by speakers of the language as contributing the criterial component of actuation to the proposition that is otherwise represented by the sentence.

According to Talmy (ibid.), "different subsets of the factors apply to a specific constituent type in different languages, with no individual factor emerging as crucial. The more factors that converge on a particular constituent type in a language, the more that that constituent type is being privileged with main verb status". Typically, in Chinese, the verb in the first position of the serial construction, i.e. V1, expresses the co-event – either manner or cause, while the verb in the second position, V2, indicates the component of path; and there may be a third verb or V3, symbolizes the Deixis component of path.

Take the serial verb construction (V1 + V2) as in *Tā zǒu-jìn jiàoshì* "He walk-enter classroom" for example. Firstly, the former constituent type exhibits factor (1b). The motion verb *zǒu* "walk" functions as the head of the construction: it forms with *jìn* "enter", not vice versa. Further, it forms with the subject *tā* "he", with the place *jiàoshì* "classroom"; and the most importantly, it can be concatenated with adverbs. The former constituent type, in addition, demonstrates factor (1c) in that some representative of it must be present in a range of sentence types, whereas the latter one here represented by *jìn* "enter" can be excluded from many of those sentence types. By contrast, the reverse pattern, however, is minimal. For the factor (1d), the former constituent type is an open class with many morpheme members; the latter has fewer morpheme members or is closed-class. Finally, the first constituent shows evidence all three parts of factor (1f). Related to the second, on average, its member morphemes have greater specific content, as well as more semantic components together. They also range over a greater variety of meanings, while the latter tend to fit a more stereotyped semantic category of path. Moreover, they present the actuating or dynamizing feature. Consequently, on the basis of certain syntactic, co-occurrence, class size, and semantic behavior, V1 ranks higher than V2 for main verb status.

According to Talmy (ibid.), the verbs that occur in each of the two or three positions of the serials belong to different sets in general. He compares the verbs in each set, with the same verb when used as the sole verb, V0, in a sentence without a serial construction, to further identify which is the main verb or root. Here is the principle (2):

(2) Constituent-type overlap

If a language has two syntactically distinguishable constituent types that share some but not all of their morpheme members, then:

(2a). the degree of their divergence as distinct constituent types correlates with:

(2a1). the proportion of non-overlap of their respective morpheme memberships and – for morphemes within the overlap –

(2a2). the proportion of morphemes whose meanings differ in the two constituent types

and

(2a3). the degree of such differences in meaning.

(2b). a morpheme occurring in both constituent types with basically the same meaning can seem to belong to a meta-category spanning both constituent types or belong to one category type even when functioning syntactically in the other type — more so than can a morpheme outside the overlap or a morpheme having distinct meanings within the overlap.

Let us check the principle (2) to show how it might function. In terms of property (2a1), it seems that there is a greater overlap of morpheme members between the V1 and V0 constituent types than that of the V2 and V0. If it is true, the class of first-position verbs would be more alike with the class of solo verbs, whereas the class of second-position verbs may show more divergence from the class of solo verbs. Furthermore, regarding to the overlapping portions of morpheme memberships, the members that can function both as V1 and V0 seem to have basically the same connotations across both usage, while certain of the morphemes that can function both as V2 and V0 have divergent meanings across the two usages. For instance, when *guò* "pass" appears as the V0 in the sentence *Tā zǒu-guò jiēdào* "He walks through the street.", as *Tā guò le malù* "He crossed the street.", the morphemes do not have the same semantic content across the two usages, which shows semantic divergence. In Talmy's later publications (Talmy, 2000), a more generalized concept of path usually encompasses some other semantic categories, including aspect. Therefore, as to the property (2a3), the morphemes that denote aspect in V2 usage mainly express rather divergent meanings in V0 usage. Take *hǎo* and *wán* for example: both of the two morphemes designate the aspectual concept "to completion" in their V2 usage, yet as V0, *hǎo* means "be good"; and *wán*, to some extent, implies "be done for". Finally, in respect of (2b), according to Talmy, "a native speakers sense of the syntactic status of an individual V2 form seems directly affected by that form's V0 usage" (Talmy, cited in Ibarretxe-Antuñano, 2005). That is to say, if the form has almost the same meaning in both usages, one may think that V2 has a relatively prominent form; if the two usages are different, one regards the V2 as having a more subordinate role. The experiment he takes demonstrate that: in sentence *Tā zǒu-jìn le jiàoshì* "He walked into the classroom.", subjects cannot tell which one – V1 (*zǒu*) or V2 (*jìn*) functions as a main verb; but when V2 form is occupied by *guò*, their feeling is that the V1, *zǒu* is undoubtedly the main verb, whereas the V2 *guò* is subordinate.

Therefore, Talmy (ibid.) lands on the conclusion: the situation in Chinese seems to be that, "…in a serial verb construction representing motion or one of its semantic extensions, the V1 constituent type clearly has main verb status, while the V2 constituent type is in the process of diverging toward a subordinate status as a satellite to the main verb". As we mentioned before, typically in Chinese, V1 represents the manner or cause, and V2 indicates the component of path, thus, according to Talmy, Chinese belongs to satellite-framed language in that it encodes the core information of path of movement in the subordinate satellite element associated with a verb.

In addition, Shen (2003, p. 22), who conducts a study on "typology of verb-complement structure in modern Chinese", considers Chinese as satellite-framed language but not a typical one.

B. Chinese as a Verb-framed Language

Talmy's claim that Chinese is a satellite-framed language has been challenged by Tai (2003). Tai argues that Chinese is primarily a verb-framed language, on the basis of the evidence that the path verb rather than the manner verb is the main verb. From the perspective of resultative construction in Chinese, he proposes that the resultative complement V2 appears to express foreground information, and the action verb V1 seems to designate background information. This can be best illustrated by following examples from Tai (2003):

(8) *I killed John, but he didn't die.

(9) 我杀了约翰两次，他都没有死。

Wǒ shā le   yuēhàn liǎng cì   tā dōu   méiyǒu   sǐ.

I   kill LE   John   twice CL   he all   not have   die

"I performed the action of attempting to kill John twice, but he didn't die."

The verb *shā* in Chinese is assumed most equivalent to *kill* in English in English-Chinese and Chinese-English dictionaries. The verb *kill* necessarily implies the death of the recipient of the action; nevertheless, the verb *shā*, as shown in (9), doesn't necessarily imply the death of the recipient of the action. To guarantee the death of the recipient of the action, the verb compound *shā sǐ* has to be used. The ungrammaticality of (10) demonstrates that *shā sǐ* does has just about the same meaning of *kill*.

(10) * 我杀死了约翰两次，他都没有死。

Wǒ shā si le   yuēhàn liǎng cì   tā dōu   méiyǒu   sǐ.

I   kill dead LE   John   twice CL   he all   not have   die

"*I killed John twice, but he didn't die."

Besides, many of the verbs in English are expressed by action-result verb compounds in Chinese: *see* is *kàn-dào* "look-reach", *hear* is *tīng-dào* "listen-reach", *find* is *zhǎo-dào* "seek-reach", and *receive* is *shōu-dào* "collect-reach".

These resultative verb compounds behave semantically and syntactically no different from those equivalents to verbs in English that mentioned above.

Therefore, it is inevitable to identify the "main verb" or "head" in these action-result verb compounds in Chinese. The dominant view holds that the first component of the compounds which represent action is "main verb" or "head" (Chao, 1968; Li & Thompson, 1989; Huang, 1988; Chang, 2001). A different view has been proposed by Tai (1973) and Hsueh (1989) which regards the second part, i.e., the so-called "complement", as the "head". According to Tai (2003), if "…we accept 'result' as a semantic prime underlying action-result verb compounds, it makes sense to take the second element as the center of predication, even though it cannot be analyzed as an independent transitive verb in surface syntax". Hence, the verb compounds in construction with *sǐ* "to die" as in *shā sǐ* or *dǎ sǐ* can be analyzed as "cause to die", that is to say, as second element of the compound, it is really equivalent to *kill* in English and thus functions as the center of predication. The action verbs in these compounds, however, function like manner adverbs. In his opinion, in fact, the first element in verb compounds with *sǐ* doesn't have to be a verb by itself (Tai, 2003). For example, *dú* in (11) and *qì* in (13) cannot stand alone as a verb as illustrated in (12) and (14), respectively.

(11) 他们毒死了约翰。
Tāmen   dúsǐ le   yuēhàn.
they   poison dead LE   John
"They killed John with poison."

(12) *他们毒了约翰。
Tāmen   dú le   yuēhàn.
they   poison LE   John
"They poisoned John."

(13) 这件事气死了约翰。
Zhèjiàn shì   qìsǐ le   yuēhàn.
this CL case   infuriate dead LE   John
"This case infuriated John to death."

(14) *这件事气了约翰。
Zhè jiàn shì   qì le   yuēhàn.
this CL case   infuriate LE   John
"This matter infuriated John."

Talmy (2002) treats the resultative complement as the satellite rather than verb root in Chinese, which in accordance with his support that the V1 is the main verb. While Tai (2003) suggests that in Chinese action-result verb compounds (V1-V2), V1 expresses the cause, yet presents the subordinate event; while V2 expresses the result, but presents the main event. Therefore, V2 can be considered as the main verb. If so, then Chinese is no longer a satellite-framed language as Talmy claims. Rather, it makes more sense to treat Chinese as primarily a verb-framed language and only secondarily a satellite-framed language.

C.   Chinese as an Equipollently-framed Language

Slobin (2004) revises Talmy's binary typology by adding a third type. According to him, in addition to the original types of verb-framed and satellite-framed languages, there are other languages (e.g., Chinese) that may be best characterized as equipollently-framed, for which the specifications of path and manner information are achieved by equivalent grammatical forms.

"Because the path verbs can occur alone, they cannot be regarded as satellites, which are verb particles and affixes that do not occur alone. …It may be most appropriate to treat serial-verb languages as a third typological category with regard to motion events. … [I] propose … a third type be added, equipollently-framed languages, to include serial-verb languages and other types of languages in which both manner and path are expressed by 'equipollent' elements, – that is, elements that are equal in formal linguistic terms…" (Slobin, 2004, p. 228)

Following Slobin's work, Chen (2005) examines the habitual patterns of motion event descriptions in spoken narratives elicited from Chinese speakers using the wordless picture storybook *Frog, where are you?* (Mayer, 1969); also, he investigates the development of motion event descriptions by Chinese children through an examination of the spoken narratives produced by children from different age groups in comparison with adult narratives. These studies, on the whole, suggest that Equipollently-framed structural patterns of motion event descriptions are found in Chinese. Chen and Guo (2009) examine the use of motion events in nine Chinese novels. The results of both studies demonstrated that the structural and discourse characteristics of Chinese did not completely pattern with those of either S-languages or V-languages, yet instead showed hybrid patterns that are characteristic of both types. Therefore, Chen and Guo advocate that Chinese should be categorized as an E-language, as is suggested by Slobin. This proposal for a third type reveals the difficulty in classifying serial-verb languages like Chinese into a strict binary typology.

In addition, Wen and Shan (to appear) examines the ways in which Mandarin speakers conceptualize motion events by using the famous cartoon volume in China *Winter of Three Hairs* (*Volume I*) (Zhang, 1982). According to them, there are three subtypes of the "manner + verb serial constructions" in Mandarin; while the first two belong to the "verb + verb construction", the last subtype is the "verb + satellite construction". Furthermore, the results are in turn applied

to a set of properties proposed by Talmy (2005, 2016) as identifying main verb status in a construction, exploring that Equipollent framing holds a dominant position in Mandarin.

VI. Conclusion

The present paper has provided an overview of research on motion event from a typological perspective. The pioneer researches of Talmy's linguistic typology of motion events and Slobin's "Thinking for Speaking" hypothesis are introduced, and discussions of the place of Chinese in motion event typology are presented. However, as we have mentioned, translational motion, i.e., motion with a change of location, is the major concern in these literature. We hope that other motion expressions – metaphorical motion expressions such as *Christmas is drawing near* and subjective motion expressions such as *The road goes along with the railway track* – which shares properties with literal motion as well, would be studied within the framework of typology in the future and the results would provide new insights to some controversial issues.

Acknowledgements

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Influence of Negative Transfer of Mother Tongue on Chinese English Learners' Pronunciation

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Abstract—In our modern society, English is becoming increasingly important. As is known to all, pronunciation is a significant part of a language, which is complex and flexible. Chinese learners with a fluent and native English will benefit a lot. But the fact is that Chinese learners who have learned English as a second language for a long time still have lots of different problems on English pronunciation because of the interference of mother tongue. Therefore, based on language transfer theory, this paper intends to show different English pronunciation problems of learners in several areas—Northwest China, Central China, Northeast China and Southern China. By comparing Chinese and English phoneme families, the reasons of the problems in these areas will be analyzed. This paper aims to alleviate English pronunciation problems in these areas. What's more, it is expected that this paper will be useful in teaching of English pronunciation.

Index Terms—negative transfer, mother tongue, English pronunciation

I. INTRODUCTION

In a society under the trend of English learning, English has become an indispensable part of everyone's life. There are some reasons for it. First, English is one of the major international languages in the world today. It has been the most widely used language and it will continue to be so. According to the study in 1986, the world's native English speakers are nearly 400 million, which means almost one in ten people speaks English as their native language (Liu, 2011). In addition, there are about 20 countries in the world using English as their official language or the second language, with an estimation of 800 million people. Second, English is widely used all around the world. A great number of the world's e-mail is written in English. What's more, a large proportion of radio programs worldwide are conducted in English. Meanwhile, it is one of the official languages of the United Nations. Furthermore, under the situation of globalization, English is a crucial tool for cooperation between countries in many fields.

But through observation and existing information, it is found that lots of English learners have problems in learning English, including pronunciation, grammar, semantics and so on, no matter which country they are from or what nationality they are. English pronunciation is the foundation of other aspects. This paper focuses on English pronunciation problems in different areas in China. It's unavoidable that in China, a variety of English learners in different areas can't pronounce every English phoneme or word correctly. For example, some learners pronounce vehicle [ˈvɪːəkl] as [ˈwɪːəkl]. They pronounce only [ˈəʊnlɪ] as [ˈəʊlɪ], map [mæp] as [mæpu], etc. Meanwhile, some learners can't distinguish [n] and [l]. They often mispronounce [l] as [n]. Here is a joke about English pronunciation problem. Once, a Chinese student studying abroad had a discussion with his landlord on the secrets of staying up late. The student said he would eat some snacks to keep a clear mind. But what the landlord heard was that he would eat some snakes. It made landlord feel so scared when imagining such a picture that the student kept snakes and ate them.

So why do these pronunciation problems exist? First, it's because English and Chinese belong to different language families. Chinese belongs to Sino-Tibetan language family, while English belongs to Indo-European language family (Lei, 2012). When it comes to different areas, it is the dialect of different areas that is quite different from English phonemes. Second, Some English phonemes don't exist in the dialects of some areas of China. It's easy for learners in these areas make pronunciation mistakes. Third, most learners do not have enough exposure to an English-speaking environment to acquire native-like pronunciation. So when learners learn English, language transfer occurs inevitably and all these factors influence pronunciation together. In former studies, a large number of researches focus mainly on the pronunciation problem in a certain area of China, ignoring the differences among several areas in one paper. Therefore, based on language transfer theory, through reviewing existing literature and information, this paper will analyze English pronunciation problems in Northwest China, Central China, Northeast China and Southern China—confusion with phonetic pairs, failure to distinguishing long vowels and short vowels, adding a phoneme. This paper finds reasons of each problem and gives solutions accordingly. It is expected that this paper can provide some useful reference for English learners in China and for English teachers as well.

II. METHODOLOGY

Language acquisition is one of the quintessential human traits (Friederici, 2011), because non-humans do not communicate by using language (Kosslyn, 1995). Now, most learners have to learn a second language after they have acquired their mother tongue. The process of their learning a second language is the process of second language acquisition. Second language acquisition, formally established itself as a discipline around the 1970s, refers to the systematic study of how one person acquires a second language subsequent to his native language (Dai, 2016). During this period, mother tongue will surely have an influence on second language. This is language transfer. Transfer originally is a psychological term that refers to the effect of previous learning or skills on subsequent learning or skills (Wu, 2011). Rod Ellis refers to language transfer as "any instance of learner data where a statistically significant correction is shown to exist between some feature of the target language and any other language that has been previously acquired" (Ellis, 2013). Kellerman holds the view that language transfer is "those processes that lead to the incorporation of elements of one language into another" (Kellerman, 1986). Odlin gives a more acceptable definition of language transfer based on previous definitions: Language transfer is the influence resulting from the similarities and differences between the target language and any other language that has been previously acquired (Odlin, 1989). Thus, from above, in second language acquisition, the influence of mother tongue on learners is commonplace. In the process of second language acquisition, learners' mother tongue will directly influence learners' second language acquisition. It can be divided into two parts: positive transfer and negative transfer. When two languages are similar, it will cause positive transfer. On the contrary, when two languages are widely different from each other, it will cause negative transfer (Weinreich, 1953). It is also called interference. Positive transfer can promote learners' mastery and usage of a second language, while negative transfer will interfere with learners' second language acquisition.

In second language acquisition, learners usually transfer the pronunciation habits and rules of their mother tongue to second language, which is the process of brain processing new knowledge. The degree depends on how great the similarities or differences are between mother tongue and the second language. Nowadays, English is so important that a great number of countries select it as a second language, including China. However, between English and Chinese, the similarities are much less than the differences, which can be seen in various perspectives — pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar, pragmatics and so on. As for pronunciation, English and Chinese belong to different language families. Meanwhile, Chinese is timed with syllables, while English is timed with stress. As a consequence, negative transfer of Chinese is larger than positive transfer when Chinese learners learn English pronunciation. It means when studying English, Chinese learners will be inevitably interfered by Chinese pronunciation habits to a certain extent. Most English learners in contemporary China have problems of English pronunciation, which is mainly caused by the interference of mother tongue. Consequently, it is not easy for English learners to learn English pronunciation natively. China is such a large country that it has a vast territory and huge population. Consequently, there are many different dialects in various areas. They have their own pronouncing rules. When learners in different areas learn a new language— English, they will apply the phonemes and pronouncing rules to English. But there are a range of differences between Chinese and English pronunciation. Naturally, many English pronunciation problems spring out. This paper intends to analyze different pronunciation problems in four areas of China—Northwest China, Central China, Northeast China and Southern China and offer some solutions.

III. RESULTS OF INFLUENCE OF NEGATIVE TRANSFER OF CHINESE

A. In Northwest China

Pronunciation problems are that learners mispronounce some consonants or diphthongs as other combinations of phonemes. Learners in this area can't make a clear distinction between [n] and [l], [ei] and [en], [u] and [əʊ]. The confusion between [u] and [əʊ] mainly occurs in Shaanxi Province. All these are caused by their problems of distinguishing several Chinese phoneme pairs in their dialects. Here are some examples.

Sample 1: [n] and [l]

WORDS	STANDARD PRONUNCIATION	LEARNERS' PRONUNCIATION
name	[neɪm]	[leɪm]
negative	['negətɪv]	['legətɪv]
niece	[ni:s]	[li:s]
nature	['neɪtʃə]	['leɪtʃə]

Sample 2: [ei] and [en]

WORDS	STANDARD PRONUNCIATION	LEARNERS' PRONUNCIATION
pen	[pen]	[peɪ]
hey	[heɪ]	[hen]
mend	[mend]	[meɪd]
wait	[weɪt]	[went]

Sample 3: [u] and [əʊ]		
WORDS	STANDARD PRONUNCIATION	LEARNERS' PRONUNCIATION
book	[bʊk]	[bəʊk]
good	[gʊd]	[gəʊd]
full	[fʊl]	[fəʊl]
hook	[hʊk]	[həʊk]

Therefore, in Northwest China, learners' problems are confusions with the phonetic pairs including both vowels and consonants. The dialects in northwest China surely have a significant effect on learners' English pronunciation and this problem is hard to be settled.

B. In Central China

Learners have confusion of phonetic pairs and there are no long or short vowels in dialect in Central China. As a result, learners in this area are confused with these phonetic pairs: [n] and [l], [u:] and [ʊ], [i:] and [i], [w] [f] and [v], [f] and [h]. There was once an experiment conducted by Qin. The long vowel [i:] only lasted for 0.165764s when some learners pronounced "sheep". But actually, the standard length should last for 0.241405s (Qin, 2009). The length of [i:] was cut into half. In general, the length of long vowels needs to be twice as long as short vowels. Learners' confusion with [w], [f] and [v] mainly occurs in Yiyang, Zhuzhou, Yueyang—cities in Hunan Province, as well as their surrounding areas and Henan Province. And the problem between [f] and [h] mainly happens in Hubei Province and Hunan Province. Here are some examples.

Sample 1: [n] and [l]		
WORDS	STANDARD PRONUNCIATION	LEARNERS' PRONUNCIATION
night	[naɪt]	[laɪt]
nice	[naɪs]	[laɪs]
note	[nəʊt]	[ləʊt]
natural	['neɪtʃrəl]	['leɪtʃrəl]

Sample 2: [w], [f] and [v]		
WORDS	STANDARD PRONUNCIATION	LEARNERS' PRONUNCIATION
want	[wɒnt]	[vɒnt]
find	[faɪnd]	[vaɪnd]
when	[wen]	[ven]
west	[west]	[vest]

Sample 3: [u:] and [ʊ], [i:] and [i]		
WORDS	STANDARD PRONUNCIATION	LEARNERS' PRONUNCIATION
fool	[fu:l]	[fʊl]
sleep	[sli:p]	[slɪp]
feet	[fi:t]	[fɪt]
hoop	[hu:p]	[hʊp]

Sample 4: [h] and [f]		
WORDS	STANDARD PRONUNCIATION	LEARNERS' PRONUNCIATION
who	[hu:]	[fu:]
foot	[fʊt]	[hʊt]
fill	[fɪl]	[hɪl]
full	[fʊl]	[hʊl]

These samples indicate that there are many pronunciation problems existing in this area and the reasons are variable, which increases the difficulty in alleviating the influence of negative transfer of mother tongue.

C. In Northeast China

In this area, pronunciation problems are that learners are confused with some phonetic pairs. Also, they replace short vowels with other vowels. Learners in Northeast China mispronounce [ʃ] as [s], [e] as [æ]. Meanwhile, they substitute [l] for [r]. Besides, learners in Northeast China mispronounce semi-vowel [j] as *yi* and they can't make a clear distinction between long vowels and short vowels. Some phonemes don't exist in their dialects or Chinese, which accounts partly for the phenomena. Here are some examples.

Sample 1: [ʃ] and [s]		
WORDS	STANDARD PRONUNCIATION	LEARNERS' PRONUNCIATION
sheep	[ʃi:p]	[si:p]
share	[ʃeə]	[seə]
shape	[ʃeɪp]	[seɪp]
shine	[ʃaɪn]	[saɪn]

Sample 2: [e] and [æ]

WORDS	STANDARD PRONUNCIATION	LEARNERS' PRONUNCIATION
head	[hed]	[hæd]
wet	[wet]	[wæt]
let	[let]	[læt]
hesitate	['hezɪteɪt]	['hæzɪteɪt]

Sample 3: [r] and [l]

WORDS	STANDARD PRONUNCIATION	LEARNERS' PRONUNCIATION
robot	['rəʊbɒt]	['ləʊbɒt]
run	[rʌn]	[lʌn]
crude	[kru:d]	[klu:d]
write	[raɪt]	[laɪt]

Sample 4: [ɪ] and [i:]

WORDS	STANDARD PRONUNCIATION	LEARNERS' PRONUNCIATION
it	[ɪt]	[i:t]
is	[ɪs]	[i:s]
wit	[wɪt]	[wi:t]
hit	[hɪt]	[hi:t]

As is seen, in this area, learners also have lots of pronunciation problems. Some problems are unique, which makes it more arduous to weaken the influence of negative transfer of their dialects.

D.   In Southern China

There are not many consonants or consonant clusters in the dialects in Southern China. Meanwhile, places of articulation of some consonants are different from those of English.. Therefore, in this area, pronunciation problems are that learners can't make a clear distinction between [r] and [l]. They mispronounce [r] as [l](Shi, 2013). Learners in Guangdong Province also mispronounce [v] as [w]. Here are some examples.

Sample 1: The error of adding a vowel after a consonant.

WORDS	STANDARD PRONUNCIATION	LEARNERS' PRONUNCIATION
map	[mæp]	[mæpʊ]
blue	[blu:]	[bəlu:]
please	[pli:z]	[pʊ'li:z]
blow	[bləʊ]	[biləʊ]

Sample 2: [v] and [w]

WORDS	STANDARD PRONUNCIATION	LEARNERS' PRONUNCIATION
vest	[vest]	[west]
victory	['vɪkt(ə)rɪ]	['wɪkt(ə)rɪ]
vice	[vaɪs]	[waɪs]
value	['vælju:]	['wælju:]

Sample 3: [r] and [l]

Words	Standard pronunciation	Learners' pronunciation
right	[raɪt]	[laɪt]
robot	['rəʊbɒt]	['ləʊbɒt]
reference	['ref(ə)r(ə)ns]	['lef(ə)r(ə)ns]
rote	[rəʊt]	[ləʊt]

In this area, some problems are similar to those in others areas. They have been mentioned above. But it still has its unique pronunciation problems. At the meantime, there are some other problems which still need further discovering, for what are listed are mispronounced ones.

Obviously, from these problems, we can see Chinese learners come across a lot of problems during the process of pronouncing English phonemes and words, including phonetic pairs, distinction between long vowels and short vowels, phonemes, etc. They have been shown through above examples. But we all know that mispronunciation of a certain word can lead to different meanings and sometimes even bring trouble and misunderstanding. As is shown in the above statements, there are a few similar English pronunciation problems among different areas, while the differences take up the majority.

IV.   ANALYSIS OF THE REASONS OF DIFFERENT ENGLISH PRONUNCIATION PROBLEMS IN DIFFERENT AREAS

A.   Interference of Chinese Phoneme Pairs

In northwest China, the reasons are that learners mispronounce Chinese mandarin *lei* as *nei, nai* as *lai.* And the pronunciation of Chinese phonemes *l* and *n* are the same as that of English [l] and [n]. It means if a student can pronounce Chinese phonemes *l* and *n* correctly, his English [l] and [n] won't be wrong. What's more, in the dialect of Northeast China, learners mispronounce Chinese mandarin *du* as *dou, tu* as *tou.* And in Chinese mandarin, when *en* was

after *b, p, m, f*, learners in Shaanxi Province are easy to mispronounce *en* as *ei*. For instance, learners in this area mispronounce *ben* as *bei, pen* as *pei, men* as *mei, fen* as *fei*. So it's evident that learners in Northwest China can't distinguish these Chinese phonemes clearly in their dialects or to say, it's their dialects that result in these pronunciation problems between [n] and [l], [ei] and [en], [u] and [əʊ] in English.

B.   Confusion of Phonetic Pairs and No Long or Short Vowels in the Dialects

In Central China, especially in Hunan Province and Henan Province, learners mispronounce Chinese mandarin *fan* and *wan* as *van, fei* and *wei* as *vei*. They mispronounce Chinese phonemes *v* and *w* in their dialects. This is also caused by their error between *h* and *f*. For example, they mispronounce *hua* as *fa, fei* as *hui*, etc. The confusion between [n] and [l] originates from their dialects, too. In some areas of Hunan Province and Hubei Province, learners are often required to speak such a sentence—Grandmother Liu likes drinking milk. Many people may be puzzled about it. That's because in Chinese, it is pronounced as *Liu Nainai ai he niu nai*, while learners in these areas will mispronounce it as *Liu Lailai ai he liu lai*. They mispronounce *na* as *la, neng* as *leng*, etc. And they usually mispronounce *l* as *n*, since they can't correctly pronounce *n* and *l* in their dialects. As mentioned in Northwest China, the pronunciation of Chinese phonemes *l* and *n* are the same as that of English [l] and [n]. So we can see it is their mispronunciation in their dialects that results in these problems. With regard to learners in this area who can't make a clear distinction between long vowels and short vowels, the reason is that in English, there are 20 vowels and 24 consonants. The 20 vowels can be divided into 12 monophthongs and 8 diphthongs. The 12 monophthongs can be further divided into 5 long vowels and 7 short vowels. In Chinese mandarin, there are 39 vowels that are divided into 10 single vowels and 29 compound vowels. But Chinese mandarin doesn't classify vowels according to their length. So there are also no long and short vowels in the dialects of Hunan Province. Therefore English long vowels cannot be pronounced long enough by learners in Hunan Province, as well as other places in Central China.

C.   Confusion of Phonetic Pairs and Lack of Certain Phonemes in the Dialects

Chinese mandarin, *z, c, s* are blade-alveolar, and *zh, ch, sh* are cacuminals. In Chinese mandarin, cacuminals are commonly used. But in the dialects of Northeast China, blade-alveolar occupies the majority. Learners in Northeast China mispronounce most of the cacuminals as blade-alveolar. For an instance, they mispronounce *shi* as *si, chu* as *cu, zhu* as *zu, zhong* as *zong*. Confusion between [ʃ] and [s] is also caused by confusion in their dialects. In the dialects of Northeast China, there is actually no similar phonemes to the two vowels—— [e] and [æ]. When pronouncing [e], learners' tongue is close to the hard palate and the tip of their tongue is under the tip of the teeth, with their gums half open. It looks as if they are smiling when they do it. While pronouncing [æ], learners' lips are flat and their tongues slightly rise. Meanwhile, the tip of their tongue is against their gingiva, with their gums open and soft palate rising. What' more, their lips are naturally open. As is observed and seen above, it is more difficult for learners to pronounce [e] than [æ]. As a consequence, when learners in this area pronounce words with [e], the place of their tongue is lower and more behind than standard ones. Meanwhile, the shape of their mouths is rounder. That is why they mispronounce [e] as [æ]. Furthermore, as is known to all, most northeast people own a very forthright character, which determines the pronunciation of their dialects (Yan, 2011). Their oral muscles are relaxed and robust so that they are not used to the pronunciation with both upper and lower lips tense and angulus oris protracted. But when pronouncing [iː], [i] and [e], learners need to stretch their angulus oris both left and right. Sometimes they even mispronounce [iː] as [ɪ]. If a person's oral muscles are relaxed, they can't pronounce these phonemes correctly.

D.   Lack of Certain Consonants or Consonant Clusters in the Dialects

In Southern China, learners are accustomed to adding a vowel after a consonant. The reason is that there are consonant clusters in English phonetic system, but in Chinese, the situation is opposite. There are no consonant clusters in the dialects or Chinese and the pronunciation feature is an initial consonant with a simple or compound vowel. Cantonese is a typical example. Whereupon, learners in Guangdong Province who are affected by this phenomena habitually add a vowel after a consonant. As for the confusion between [v] and [w], the reason is that in Guangdong Province, there is no Chinese phoneme *v* which is similar to English labiodental [v]. As a consequence, learners in Guangdong Province mispronounce [w] as [v]. For instance, they mispronounce *wen* as *ven*. So does the confusion between [r] and [l]. There is no such a phoneme that is similar to fricative [r] in the dialects of Southern China. They pronounce both *reng* and *leng* as *leng*. As a result, learners mispronounce [r] as [l].

V.   DISCUSSIONS OF THE SOLUTIONS TO DIFFERENT PRONUNCIATION PROBLEMS

As some of the above pronunciation problems are based on specific and unique conditions, it's impossible to get rid of them once and for all. But, something can still be done. First, learners must be aware that they have English pronunciation problems. Second, they must be persistent and spare no efforts to improve their pronunciation.

As for the mispronunciation problem which results from mispronunciation in their dialects, the best way is to use the method of phonetic contrast. As is mentioned above, learners can't make a clear distinction between English phonetic pairs. They need to alleviate their English pronunciation problems. First, starting from the beginning, these learners should relearn their frequently mispronounced phoneme pairs, both Chinese and English. During the process, they

should not only compare the difference of different phonemes, but also the difference between Chinese and English phonemes. It is the preliminary step and the most crucial step which lays the foundation for later steps. Second, learners can search for a listening material and then listen to standard pronunciation to compare the differences between their pronunciation and standard pronunciation. In most cases, learners can't understand the differences between their pronunciation and standard pronunciation so that they mispronounce these phonemes. The listening material could be BBC learning English for China. Of course, it would be better for them to choose more interesting podcast, such as 6 Minute English, Forum a World of ideas, Luke's English Podcast, etc. After all, learners also concentrate on the contents of the materials when they are listening. The best listening material should be those that suit themselves. After this, learners should carry on repeated imitation practice by following the video and make a conscious effort to correct their pronunciation problems. It requires daily practice for one to two hours at a time. No matter how much one knows about standard English pronunciation, only when he speaks it out can he make a difference. What's more, learners can also observe the pronunciation of high-level English learners. It's also a useful way to make a comparison to find the differences and imitate more acceptable pronunciation of others. In the end, it calls for constant practice by listening and following the listening material. By doing so, pronunciation problems caused by mispronunciation from dialects can gradually be lessened.

For the mispronunciation problem which results from lack of certain phonemes in their dialects or different places of articulation of two different languages, the best solution is to use the method of picture of place of articulation with teacher's help. Teachers should explain the ways how these phonemes are pronounced with the picture of place of articulation. And they should explain front vowels, mid vowels and back vowels according to the position of tongue (Wu, 2011). Furthermore, bilabial, labiodental, dental, alveolar, palatal, velar, glottal and consonant clusters can be explained according to the places of articulation. For instance, when pronouncing [v], the upper teeth touch the lower lip and speaker forces the breath out from the gap between the lips and teeth. It requires vocal cords vibrated. When pronouncing [w], the lips are protruding and pointed-rounded, with tongue rising to the soft palate and breath flowing through the vocal cords. Vocal cords also need to be vibrated. After explanation, teachers need to demonstrate the correct pronunciation and ask their students to observe the shape of their mouths. In addition, learners need to pronounce phonemes loudly and clearly after demonstration. This can make learners feel the change of their vocal organs. Therefore, they can eliminate their pronunciation problem from root.

For the mispronunciation problem which results from learners' forthright character in Northeast China, learners can use the method of cavity and face muscles training. Almost all the countries throughout the world, including China, choose British English as a second language. Most of the places of articulation of British English phonemes are widely different from the dialects of Northeast China. Therefore, these learners need to weaken the problem of flaccid cavity and face muscles. They are supposed to have some targeted cavity and face muscle training, such as piping the yeasty barrel, playing the flute or whistling. At the same time, learners can keep warm salt water or soda in their mouths and contract their cavity muscles to force the water from the gap between the teeth to the outside of teeth. After that, their cheek muscles compress the water to the back of the mouth. Having such kind of training similar to mouthwash for 5 to 6 times in the morning and evening can stimulate the muscles around the mouth and facilitate blood circulation. Meanwhile, it can increase cavity muscle tone and improve the situation of flaccid cavity muscle. Last but not least, learners in this area are supposed to breathe through mouth less and sleep with mouth closed. Because breathing through mouth makes people's cavity and face muscles more flaccid.

VI. CONCLUSION

All in all, when learning English pronunciation, it is inevitable for Chinese to understand that mother tongue will interfere with their English pronunciation. Negative transfer of mother tongue is responsible for it. After analyzing some cases, it can be concluded that Chinese learners have many problems in English pronunciation. Some reasons are presented. In this paper, many examples are shown to illustrate the different English pronunciation problems in different areas. Some solutions are put forward accordingly as well, including the method of phonetic contrast, place of articulation and cavity and face muscles training. In order to correct these problems, learners need to make a clear distinction between Chinese and English phonetic systems. At the same time, learners themselves and teachers ought to attach great importance to English pronunciation. It is strongly believed that through long-term adherence and scientific training, learners' English pronunciation will be improved.

But this paper also has some deficiencies certainly. As is known, these English pronunciation problems of Chinese learners are rooted out. Learners can only make great efforts to decrease the influence of negative transfer of mother tongue. Since this paper is just an exploratory research of negative transfer of mother tongue, more studies need to be furthered and carried out. More experiments need to be conducted to check out the feasibility of these solutions. Meanwhile, this paper only illustrates four areas of China and some representative and typical problems in these areas. Other areas and other problems are not included. It is expected that this paper can make some contribution to the study of negative transfer of mother tongue and weakening its influence on second language acquisition. Another expectation is that it could provide some implications for English pronunciation teaching. Furthermore, English pronunciation is the basis of semantics, grammar, translation, discourse, etc. The less English pronunciation problems Chinese learners have, the more likely they are to master English and put it into use.

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Balinese Hegemonic Politness in *Awig-Awig*[1] of *Desa Pakraman*[2]

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Abstract—This study is aimed at revealing the linguistic markers used in the *awig-awig* that have succeeded in generating hegemonic politeness in Balinese society. The data of this research were taken from a number of *awig-awig* documents collected based on sampling areas, which represent Balinese dialectal variations. The obtained data were triangulated through interviews with a number of *prajuru*'leaders' of *desa pakraman*. Based on the pragmatic theory it is revealed that the characteristics of *awig-awig* of the *desa pakraman* are: (1) using the imposing utterance, (2) using the maxim of wisdom and acceptance of the politeness principle, (3) using modalities, (4) emphasizing on assertive, commissive, and directive illocutionary, and (5) being consistent in applying the maxim of quantity and means of cooperative principles. All these characteristics are manifested by the direct-literal type of act in the Balinese language of *alus singgih* 'honor-high'. In association, the Balinese variety of *alus singgih* is used to honor the participants. The use of Balinese language *alus singgih* is believed to foster awareness of norms and values for every Balinese.

Index Terms—hegemonic politeness, awig-awig, desa pakraman, alus-singgih

I. Introduction

In Bali, there are two kinds of village, they are official or adminitrative village and *desa pakraman* or *customary village*. Based on the Regional Regulation No. 3 of 2001, article 1, paragraph 4, "*Desa Pakraman* is a unit of customary law community in Bali which has a unity of tradition and social interaction of Hindu society from generation to generation in the bond of *kahyangan tiga* or *kahyangan desa*[3] which has certain area and owns assets and also the right to take care of its own domestic businesses". The empowerment of taking care of the household itself urges every *desa pakraman* to have special rules (laws) that serve as guidelines for managing the life of the people. The specific rules made and applied to a *desa pakraman* are called *awig-awig*; that is the rules made by *krama*[4]of the *desa pakraman* and / or *krama banjar pakraman* which are used as a guidance in the implementation of *tri hita karana*[5] in accordance with *desa mawacara*[6] and *dharma agama*[7] in *desa pakraman* and/or *banjar pakraman* respectively (article 1, paragraph 11). *Awig-awig* is one of the cultural discourses that need to be studied so that its linguistic characteristics and social influences will be clear (Shi-xu, 2017, p. 308).

Balinese language is one of the regional languages in Indonesia. In addition, this language has a literacy and literary traditions that support the survival and sustainability of Balinese culture. Referring to these empirical and historical conditions, the Bali Provincial Government established Regional Regulation No. 3 of 1992 on Balinese Language, Script, and Literature. In Chapter III of article 5 (d), this law affirms that Balinese language and script are used in *awig-awig* of customary villages, traditional *banjar*, and other customary institutions.

Awig-awig is a written law that regulates the activities of the *pakraman/*villagers. *Awig-awig* is binding on rights and obligations. This bond may cause vertical and horizontal hegemony. Vertical hegemony is the dominance of customary

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[1]*Awig-awig* is identical with traditional law in Hindu society in Bali, Indonesia.

[2]*Desapakraman* is an autonomous traditional village. Every *desa pakraman* is built up of a number of *banjar pakraman* or traditional sub-villages, and each *banjar pakraman* consists of some *tempekan* or parts of *banjar pakraman*.

[3]*Kahyangan tiga* or *kahyangan desa* is the three main temples in Hindu society each *desa pakraman* should own. The three temples are (a) Desa temple or Bale Agung temple is a place to worship the Almighty God "Ida Hyang Widhi" in His manifestation as the creator of the earth and its content; (b) Puseh temple is a place to worship the the Almighty God "Ida Hyang Widhi" in His manifestation as the preserver; and (c) Dalem temple is a place to worship the Almighty God "Ida Hyang Widhi" in His manifestation as the destroyer.

[4]*Krama* is a community of the *desa pakraman* or *banjar pakraman*.

[5]*Tri Hita Karana* is the Balinese Hindu society concept of life t sustainably maintain relationship between Human with Gods, relationship between human and their mankind, as well as the relationship between human and the environment in order to embody harmony.

[6]*Desa mawacara* is custom or tradition of a certain society in Bali.

[7]*Dharma agama* is the obligation of Hindu devotees based on Hindu doctrine.

(collective) leadership over its people; while horizontal hegemony is the majority dominance of individuals or groups of minorities in one *desa pakraman*. Every hegemony is closely related to 'power' as a means of educating citizens with rational moral values (Patria and Arief, 2015, p. 2). Every power uses a collective language to bring about social hegemony.

In the context of *desa pakraman*, hegemonic politeness is closely related to the perception of *krama* 'people' over the use of the Balinese language. In the leadership of customary institutions, the Balinese language variant used reflects and simultaneously influences the perception of *krama* about the topic being discussed. The Balinese language variant used could create and reinforce certain values, form beliefs and even generate the behavior, motivation, desire, and 'fear' of an individual to deviate from *perarem* 'agreement' of *krama* (Thomas and Wareing, 1999). The use of Balinese language variants that are perceived by the public as a reflection of language courtesy is a 'collective persuasion' effort from, by, and for the *krama* of *desa pakraman*, which causes the whole *krama* to voluntarily comply it. The hegemonic politeness of the Balinese language used is an effort to realize the collective power of the *desa pakraman* through the consent of all people, so that every member of the '*krama*' of a *desa pakraman* willingly run the collective power (Fairclough, 1989). In *awig-awig*, hegemonic politeness is the construction of the use of Balinese variations that puts the *krama* of *desa pakraman* as the speaker in a more respectable position. This respect for social positions provides a positive pragmatic perlocutionary to the *krama* of *desa pakraman* as the speakers. The hegemonic politeness seems to be manifested by various linguistic instruments, such as diction, sentence structure and other lingual markers. This research is directed to reveal the linguistic facts. This linguistic disclosure has functional strategic value to maintain social harmony (Piller, 2016, p. 28).

Language politeness is the object of pragmatic study, while hegemony is a field of social studies. Therefore, the study of hegemonic politeness in the use of Balinese language in awig-awig of desa pakraman is based on the socio-pragmatic eclectic concept. The use of language is never free of social influence. The use of language is always tied to social facts as has been much described in the sociolinguistic branch (Scherer and Giles, 1979). Nevertheless, the study of social variables and the context of language use does not reveal the nature and factors that lead to the hegemony that is widely studied in social studies.

Hegemony is a social fact. What distinguishes the hegemonic form of a society from other societies is the underlying ideology. The concept of hegemony arises because of the realization that social control cannot only rely on physical strength. Therefore, Gramsci proposed that social control rests on the ideology of society (Patria & Andi Arief, 2015). The use of ideology touches the inner aspects of society that can lead to collective consent. Gramsci asserted that hegemony is a moral and intellectual leadership. Referring to this hegemonic concept, the compliance of the *desa pakraman* is based on an explicitly explicit ideology and moral value in the awig-awig text. The inner-ideological awareness evidently undermines the dominance of the collective power within the *desa pakraman* in Bali.

In the sociolinguistic point of view, there is no monolithic language (Sumarsono, 2007, p.7). In Balinese language, variations are triggered by social and functional variables. Socially, Balinese language has three speech levels, namely Balinese varieties of *andap* 'low', variety of *kepara* 'general', and variety of *alus* 'honor' or 'revine. The Balinese variant of *alus* 'honor' has three subvarieties, they are *alus sor* 'honor-low', *alus madya* 'honor-medium/ general', and *alus singgih* 'honor-high' (Naryana, 1983) Each social variation of Balinese language has different functions. Balinese variety of *andap* 'low' is used when the speaker expresses disappointment or anger at something or someone else. The use of *andap* 'low' variety of Balinese language is the expression of negative emotions. Balinese language variety of *kepara* 'general' is commonly used for interaction in general. The participants have the same social status, from the sudra caste. Balinese language variety of *alus* 'honor' is used to elevate the participant status. In addition, the Balinese language variety of *alus* 'honor' is also used in formal situations, customs, and religious activities to the exclusion of its participants.

Awig-awig was written using Balinese variety of alus singgih, the highest variety of respect. However, the linguistic markers used to express hegemonic politeness have never been explained. This study is aimed at explaining the markers and differences of linguistic constructions used in *awig-awig*. The explanation is not only based on the study of micro-linguistic theory per se but also on macro-linguistic, and cultural linguistic theories. Moreover, in the implementation of the theories, the study uses the techniques of substitution and lingual omission of certain elements (Langacker, 1972, p. 109). In this study, the macro-linguistic theory is used to explain the role of language outside factors in determining the syntactic options used. The syntactic option is defined not solely based on grammatical considerations, but also functional considerations. Each element of the text in *awig-awig* is believed to have a particular function. The description of the function is also based on the Hindu culture that underlies the preparation of awig-awig. The linguistic symbols used in awig-awig relate to local culture values. It requires a study of cultural linguistics to explain it (Duranti, 2001, p. 8; Shi-xu, 2016, p. 4).

The *awig-awig* text generally contains a directive communicative illocutionary, that is the speech for governing others (Bach and Harnish, 1979). The main problem lies in the illocutionary construction. The choice of locutionary is sought to avoid rejection. Careful selection of locutionary is expected to foster collective compliance. In the context of such texts, it is necessary to explain the linguistic patterns and markers used to express hegemonic politeness.

Language politeness is a form of language usage. The study of language use is the focus of pragmatic studies. In the pragmatic study, various views of experts on speech acts are found, such as (Thomas, 1995; Leech, 1983; Levinson,

1989; Grundy, 2000).Conceptually, speech act is an action that can only be done by saying; without saying, the action cannot be realized. The inevitability of the use of speech to do an action is what distinguishes the speech act with physical action. Physical acts, such as hoeing, sweeping, or hitting do not require speech production; without any physical activity it can be done well. It is not the case with a promise that will only be done well if the speaker says something to the hearer in order to ensure that the speaker will do something in the future; and the hearer has the same beliefs as speaker. So, the action of hoeing, sweeping and hitting is not a speech act while the promising action is a speech act. The implementation of the speech act is closely related to the principle of cooperation and politeness in pragmatics.

Pragmatics is seen as a study of the relation of the language elements with the language use. Since it is associated with the language use, pragmatics is closer to the performance, i.e. language-based actions that are influenced by other factors; generally, extra lingual factor (Nababan, 1987). Furthermore, the concept of hegemony is concerned with power that exists outside of human consciousness. Human will be aware of power when there is a clash with power itself (Patria and Arif, 2015). To avoid and/or resolve conflicts (if any) then every indigenous group in Bali binds itself into an agreement that is legitimized by the term awig-awig. So, *awig-awig* is the legitimacy of collective power over each individual within a community. Thus, the hegemony politeness of Balinese language use in *awig-awig* of *desa pakraman* is an eclectic study of the language use (pragmatics) in a single power framework.

Leech (1983) asserts that politeness is not just a civilized act. Politeness is a chain of cooperative principles and its relation to power and meaning. In this study, politeness of language use refers to the choice of linguistic expressions used to achieve common goals in *desa pakraman* as a customary institution. The choice of linguistic expressions in the *awig-awig* of *desa pakraman* will be explored in this study.

II. RESEARCH METHOD

This study was designed with qualitative research design. Characteristics of qualitative research are to provide an explanation of the phenomenon under study. Emphasis was placed on the deep understanding aspect of a problem. Qualitative research put each data as meaningful things. In-depth analysis was done to realize that goal (Sumanto, 1995). To support this study, data were collected from some *awig-awig* of *desa pakraman* which were triangulated with a number of informants. Based on data from the Cultural Office of Bali, there are 1.488 *pakraman* villages in Bali which spread across eight regencies and one city.The sample used in this research was determined by non-random sampling. Sampling was done by areal sampling technique (Marzuki, 1986, p.50) by considering Balinese dialectal variation. Dialectal variation is a variety of regional language within the boundaries of government administration. Balinese dialectal variations are related to cultural variables. Among the 9 regencies/cities in Bali, five regencies/ cities were taken as research samples. The five regencies/cities are (1) Karangasem Regency representing the eastern part of Bali; (2) Gianyar Regency representing the central part of Bali: (3) Denpasar City representing the southern part of Bali; (4) Jembrana Regency representing the western part of Bali; and (5) Buleleng Regency representing the northern part of Bali. In addition, the data yielded from awig-awig were conducted by document recording technique. Besides, the data were also collected from informants by conducting in-depth interview with basic tapping technique and note-taking advanced technique (Mashun, 2005, p. 116). The informants of this research were classified into *krama* 'citizens' and *prajuru* 'customary village leaders'. The general criteria of informants are (1) skilled in Balinese language, (2) understanding customs and culture, (3) understanding *awig-awig* that is applicable in his *desa pakraman*. The data were elicited and classified to obtain the core corpus category that was used as an analytical base. The core corpus was analyzed by an extra-lingual identity method, with the basic technique of extra-lingual appeal (Mashun, 2005, p. 120). Operationally, *awig-awig* text is divided into units of clauses or sentences. Each data was performed in an equalizing and differential appeal with the defining factors of the users and language usage. By this technique, hegemony politeness in *awig-awig* can be categorized.

III. RESEARCH RESULT

A. The Use of Imposing Utterance

The Balinese language is one of the regional languages in Indonesia that has language levels (speech levels). In general, the Balinese language has three speech levels, namely: *basa Bali andap* 'low variety', *basa Bali kepara* 'general variety', and *basa Bali alus* 'honor'. The variety of *basa Bali alus* 'honor' has three sub-varieties, Balinese *alus sor* 'respect-low', *alus madya* 'general/ medium', and *alus singgih* 'honor-high' (Naryana, 1983).

Awig-awig is written by using the Balinese language of *alus singgih* 'honor-high' variety. By Balinese people, *awig-awig* is often sacred through the *pasupati* process. The term *pasupati* is interpreted as a symbolic allusion to express the meaning of 'living up or living within'. If *awig-awig* has touched all citizens, it is expected to lead to the obedience of it.

Pragmatically, the use of the Balinese language of *alus singgih* 'honor-high' variety in *awig-awig* can be interpreted as a form of respect. Respect is the collective consciousness. The village institution of *pakraman* elevates the degree of every citizen beyond the limits of modern and traditional social hierarchy. Sociologically, a person will have more self-conscious and aware of the values if to him pinned honor. In sociolinguistic studies, the use of language variations that feature semantic [+ good] is a hidden prestige of its speakers (Sumarsono, 2007, p. 115). To support the analysis, the

data are presented as follows:

Rikala nglaksanayang melis ka segara, upacara lan pangilen yadnya kasangga olih krama banjar adat sawewengkon Desa Adat Mendoyo Dangin Tukad, kaemet oleh prajuru desa adat (Awig-Awig Desa Pakraman Mendoyo Dangin Tukad, pawos 2 petet 2) [1]

'When carrying out melis/purification ceremony to the beach, the ceremony and equipment are brought by all villagers of banjar in customary village of Mendoyo Dangin Tukad, led by the customary village leaders '*prajuru* '

Krama ngarep inggih punika krama sane ngamel, ngayahang tanah ayahan desa tur ngemponin salwiring pawangungan lan pangaci-aci ring Pura Puseh, Bale Agung, lan Palinggih Betara Manik Bingin (Awig-awig Desa Pakraman Menanga, pawos 5, petet ha) [2]

'The main residents are the people who control and manage the village-owned land and are responsible for the construction and ceremonies at Pura Puseh, Bale Agung, and the worship of God in the manifestation of Betara Manik Bingin'

Prade wenten wong lanang sane sampun marabian utawi durung, ngawanang anak istri lianan mobot, nanging bobotan punika nenten kapariangken: (ha) bobotan punika patut kapastika lan kabawesin antuk prajuru banjar/desa manut undagan; (na) katiwakin pamutus olih kelian desa; (ca) prade pamutus inucap tan kainutin, pamutus salantur ipun kasukserahang ring guru wisesa (Awig-Awig Desa Pakraman Penarukan, pawos 82 petet 2). [3]

'If there is a man who is married already or not yet, causing another woman to become pregnant, but the pregnancy is not recognized: (a) the pregnancy must be ensured and discussed by the village administrators, following the level; (b) a decision is made by the headman; (c) if the decision is not followed, the next decision will be made by the government'

Looking at the data [1] above, it is clear that lexical and syntactic strategies are used. Lexically, the choice of words used is entirely a high-honor vocabulary as a symbol and a tribute to all customary banjar people. In the semantic structure, citizens are positioned as actors who are accommodated with verbs of *nyangga* 'carrying', *kaemet* 'guided'. In Balinese culture, the course of an action by custom is interpreted as a belief in a duty (*ayah*) which has a high cultural value. The same is true of data [2 - 3]. In data [2] the imposing utterance is used to define the rights and obligations of main citizens. In data [3] the Balinese language of the honor-high variety is still used even though the topic of conversation is someone who violates religious and ethical laws.

Based on data analysis, the expression of imposing is presented using literal direct speech act (Wijana, 1996). The use of literal direct speech acts is related to the maxim of the way in the principle of cooperation, which stipulates that every expression must be clear to avoid obscurity and coercion. In addition, the use of literal direct speech acts in awig-awig is also intended to reveal an informative message in accordance with what is set at the maxim of quantity.

B. The Use of Wisdom and Acceptance Maxim

In pragmatic theory, there are six maxims of morality, namely: wisdom, acceptance, mercy, humility, compatibility, and inferiority (Grundy, 2000). Based on the data, it is revealed that the dominant maxim used is wisdom (tact maxim) and acceptance. This wisdom maxim requires any disconnect to minimize the 'loss' to others; or are required to maximize profits on others. The imposing utterance is believed to have a higher level of politeness so that it produces an effect of respect to the hearer, as the following data.

Swadarmaning krama desa/banjar pakraman anut satinut ring sadaging awig-awig miwah paswara-paswara desa/banjar pakraman (Awig-Awig Desa Pakraman Penarukan, Buleleng, paos 11.2) [4]

'The obligations of villagers/pakraman banjar are obedient and subject to all awig awig's contents and village agreements/pakraman banjar'

Krama sane magenah ring karang ayahan desa patut ngutsahayang kawentenan karange sami mangda lestari (Awig-Awig Desa Pakraman Penarukan, Buleleng, paos 31.1) [5]

'The people who inhabit the land belonging to the village, must try to make the existence of all the land sustainable'

Prade ring desa kahanan jiwa bhaya, patut desane ngaturang pamrayascita manut dresta tur sang mayanin katur ring ngawiwenang (awig-Awig Banjar Alapsari, pawos 27, petet 3) [6]

'If there is a murder in the village, this village is obliged to carry out the ritual of purification according to the village custom and the murderer is handed over to the authorities'

The communicative illocutionary in data [4] above is to affirm and remind the obligations of all citizens without any exception. The key diction used is *swadarmaning* which means 'noble obligation'. The perceived perlocutionary of the speech construction option is that everyone feels honored if he can fulfill his obligations; a noble is someone who can fulfill his duty. The speech act in data [5] also uses the imposing utterance with the keywords of *karang lestari* 'eternal and well-preserved land'. Referring to the concept of conversational implicature (Grice 1975), the *awig-awig* text in data [5] implies another sentence, that is "If you want to stay forever in the land of the village, so the village land must remain forever. Conversely, if the village land is not preserved, then you are not allowed to stay in that place '. In other words, the meaning of the text in data [5] is the right to use the land will be revoked if it is not preserved. Data [5] is a directive speech act, which regulates citizens according to the content of *awig-awig*. The main message in data (6) is a command to perform the ritual of purification and law enforcement. If it is examined logically, the person who should perform purification ritual is the perpetrator of murder because he is polluting the 'sanctity' of the village. Accordingly, the society accepts that responsibility. This is the maxim of acceptance. The imposing utterance is used to express hegemonic politeness.

Based on the concept, the maxim of acceptance requires speakers to enlarge losses to themselves or reduce self-gain (Nababan, 1987). The sincerity of the freedom loss is a representation of the acceptance of the diminished self-gain. This is the essence of the use of polite language, as shown in the following data.

Sahanan warga desa sane mamiara wawalungan bawi utawi banteng, patut nitenin negul utawi nglogor manda nenten ngrusak pabianan krama siosan, bilih-bilih ngletahin kahyangan (Awig-Awig Desa Adat Batur Sari, Gianyar paos 30.1) [7]

'All the villagers who raise pigs or cattle, are obliged to tie or stable so not to damage other people's garden, even to desecrate the shrines'

Prade wenten wawalungan malumbar utawi ngeleb, ngrusak pakarangan utawi pabianan krama tiosan kawara kengin kataban tur kadanda ngwaliang wit sane karusak saha naur panebas papiaran manut pararem (Awig-Awig Desa Adat Batur Sari, Gianyar paos 30.2) [8]

'If a pet is wildly released or detached, and it damages the yard or gardens of another person, so the owner is arrested and redeemed accordingly.

Prade jantos ngletehin linggih suci, minakadi pamrajan utawi sanggah, risampun kaparitatas olih prajuru, wenang sang nruwenang kadanda mabuhu agung tatebasan prayascita durmangggala utawi prayascita mauulu bebek belang kalung, prade ngletehin kahyangan desa utawi pura pamaksan (Awig-Awig Desa Adat Batur Sari, Gianyar paos 30.4) [9]

'If it desecrates the sanctuary, such as family shrines/pamarajan or sanggah, after being examined by the boards, the breeder is obliged to make caru agung 'great purification', tetebasan prayascita durmanggala or prayascita, by using dotted stripes duck, if it desecrates the village temple or one of the family'

The above data [7 - 9] explicitly employ the maxim of acceptance by all Batur Sari villagers, Gianyar. All citizens obey the shared decision. Such a sentence construction is intended to put forward the description of the terms describing the chain of causation. Thus, the use of terms and conditions constructed into a modal sentence is one of the linguistic options for the realization of hegemonic politeness.

C. The Use of Modality

In the study of philosophy of language, it is stated that the more certain something is then the more valuable it is (Sumarsono, 2004). The speech act used to declare certainty is called a commissive speech act (Wijana, 1996). In syntactic studies, the meaning of certainty is constructed through modal sentences. The modal sentence is used to express the causality relationship. A proposition relationship that requires a proposition of its consequence is absolute. To justify the truth of this concept it is worth considering the following supporting data.

Prade sang palas riwekasan kacihnan adung malih, patut: (a) nglaksanayang upacara pawiwahan malih, (b) kadanda nikel saking palase (Awig-Awig Desa Adat Batur Sari, Gianyar, pawos 55). [10]

'If the divorced then reconcile, should: (a) carry out the wedding ceremony again, (b) be fined twice since their divorce'

Yen prade mamurug sinalih tunggil kecap ring petet (6) sang mamurug wenang kadanda beras 1 kg (Awig-Awig Desa adat Rendang, pawos 53, petet 7). [11]

'If any one violates the provisions of paragraph (6), the offender should be fined 1 kg of rice'

Yening nenten mabusana seragam krama rikala ngayah, pacang kakeninin pamidanda Rp 5000,00 (Awig-Awig Banjar Pakraman Baler Bale Agung, pawos 10, petet 8). [12]

'If any of the village people does not wear a proper 'Adat Uniform' while doing community/religious job /'gotong royong', will be fined at the amount of Rp 5000,00'.

Yening desa ngamargiang yadnya atiwa-tiwa utawi ngaben ngerit, krama desa patut keni patus gung artha pangargan beras 10 kilogram (Awig-Awig Desa Pakraman Menanga, pawos 49, petet 13) [13].

'If the village carries out mass ngaben/cremation, the villagers are required to pay an amount equal to 10 kg of rice'.

Data [10 - 13] is a corpus that represents the use of the conditional term in *awig-awig*. In *awig-awig*, the syntactic construction with the prepositioning of conditional adverb phrase (partial inversion) is very common, and even dominating. The prepositioning of the conditional adverb is by no means intended to be concerned with the phrase. In fact, semantically, deleting or changing the conditional adverb phrase with other information does not reduce the delivered message. If the conditional adverb phrase in data [10 - 13] is omitted or replaced by another statement, the sentence will be generated as follows.

Riwekasan sang palas kacihnan adung malih, patut: (a) nglaksanayang upacara pawiwahan malih, (b) kadanda nikel saking palase (Awig-Awig Desa Adat Batur Sari, Gianyar, pawos 55). [10a]

'The divorced couple then reconcile, should: (a) carry out the wedding ceremony again, (b) be fined twice since the divorce'.

Sane mamurug sinalih tunggil kecap ring petet (6) sang mamurug wenang kadanda beras 1 kg (Awig-Awig Desa adat Rendang, pawos 53, petet 7). [11a]

'Anyone who violates the provision of paragraph (6), the offender should be fined 1 kg of rice'

Nenten mabusana seragam krama rikala ngayah, pacang kakeninin pamidanda Rp5.000,00 (Awig-Awig Banjar Pakraman Baler Bale Agung, pawos 10, petet 8). [12a]

'Not dressed in uniform when working together '*gotong royong*', will be fined Rp5000,00.'

Rikala desa ngamargiang yadnya atiwa-tiwa utawi ngaben ngerit, krama desa patut keni patus gung artha pangargan beras 10 kilogram (Awig-Awig Desa Pakraman Menanga, pawos 49, petet 13) [13a].

'When the village carries out mass *ngaben/cremation*, the villagers are required to pay an amount of equal to 10 kg of rice'.

The deletion of the conditional term in data [10-12] does not diminish the original message. Furthermore, in data [13], after the modalities are replaced with the time description, it also does not change the original meaning of the sentence. This syntactic fact proves that the use of modality or conditional terms in *awig-awig* is intended to state certainty. Based on the triangulation of informants, it is revealed that the text of the sentence in *awig-awig* such as the original data [10 - 13] are perceived politer than the modified sentence as shown in [10a - 13a].

Certainty is one of the communicative illocutionary speech acts. In pragmatic studies, the assertion of certainty is termed as a commissive speech act. According to many experts (Austin, 1975; Searle, 1990; Nababan, 1987; Wijana, 1996, Leech, 1997) commissive speech acts are expressed with two verbs of action, they are promise and offer. Based on the study of the *awig-awig* as a corpus, it is revealed that the verbs require it to be declared as verbs of commissive speech acts.

D. The Use of Assertive, Commissive, and Directive Speech Acts

The use of assertive speech acts is motivated by the intention to build the same belief or knowledge among the villagers of *desa pakraman*.

Sahanan karang paumahan, tegal, lan carik patut kapastikayang wates soang-soang jantos trepti nyatur desa antuk pagehan utawi tembok, sanistannyane antuk patok tur mangda wenten pamedal ka rurung utawi ke margine(Awig-Awig Desa Pakraman Penarukanpaos32 petet1) [14]

'All housing, plantation and rice fields must be clearly bordered in four directions with fences, walls or at least with pegs, and that there is a way out an exit'.

Piodalan ring Pura segara miwah Pura Taman Segara nagken dina Saniscara Kliwon, wuku Kuningan (Tumpek Kuningan). Kalasanayang olih krama desa. Indik Upacara/upakara: nista, madya, utama manut sastra dresta (Awig_awig Desa Pakraman Penarukan paos 44 petet 1.[15]

'The temple festivals in Segara Temple and Taman Segara Temple every Saturday-*Kliwon, wuku Kuningan (Tumpek Kuningan*). Conducted by the villagers. About the ceremony: *nista* (simple), *madya* (medium), and *utama* (main/great) based on the tradition'.

Paruman desa patut kawentenang sakirang-kirang ipun nagken atiban apisan (Awig-Awig Desa Adat Sumerta, paos 23 patet 1). [16]

'Village meetings must be held at least once a year'

The data [14-16] above is intended to affirm something. Data [14] confirms or warns that the boundaries or borders of yards, gardens, and fields are made clear. The data [15] confirms that the temple festival/*piodalan* at one of the temples in *Desa pakraman* Penarukan uses the Balinese Calendar system. Data [16] asserts that at least once a year the village meeting must be held. The data [14-16] is intended for all citizens to know about it. Meanwhile, data [14 - 16] is aimed at building a shared knowledge about something. Data [14-16] is an assertive speech act.

The commissive speech act is an utterance to express certainty or sincerity of the speaker to do something accordingly in the future.

Yening wenten wawalungan sane ngeleb ring karang warga sane seosan, ngantos ngrusak papuyonan, wealungan wenang kataban, nebusin akwehnyane manut prabeya sane karusak, kasaksi olih prajuru banjar adat (Awig-AwigBanjar Pakraman Baler Bale Agung*paos 18 petet2)* [17]

'If there are livestock wildly released to other people's yards then destroy the plants, the livestock must be retained, redeemed as equal to the caused losses, witnessed by the leaders of customary *banjar*'

Salah sinunggil warga banjar adat Baler Bale Agung makarya biuta:
ha. Mawicara sane singlad, majaljal keni pamidanda pacamil Rp 50.000,00.
na. Nyasar laksana (ngamaling, nyolong semara) keni pamidanda 100 kg beras utawi jinah Rp 800.000,00 (paos 19.5). [18]

'One of the Baler Bale Agung people made a commotion:
a. Talking inappropriately, disputing will be fined pecamil Rp 50.000,00.
b. Doing bad conducts (stealing, cheating) will be fined at the amount of 100 kg of rice or money Rp800.000,00'

Data [17-18] above indicates that sanctions will be imposed if one of the people acts as described in the article. One critical viewpoint that can be given to this linguistic fact is that commissive illocutionary are not only committed to promise and offer, as Searle (1969); but also to declare modal information with construction **if ... then.... Construction of modalities if ... then ... also declare certainty that will happen in the future.**

The directive speech act is an expression of speech in such a way that the speaker does something according to the speaker's intent. For speakers, the expression of directive speech act is as a reason to act or behave. *Awig-awig* becomes the reason to do or not do something according to *awig-awig* of every *banjar/desa pekraman*.

Sahanan warga desa sane sampun maperabian patut ngawit tedun makrama (Awig-Awig Desa Adat Sumerta paos 14 patet 1) [19]

'Every villager who has got married should start to be the 'adat member'.

Tan kalugra medil, nulup, nyaring minakadi salwiring pamargi ngejuk paksi sane wenten sawewengkon desa pakraman Menanga (Awig-Awig Desa Pakraman Mananga, paos 29 petet 14) [20]

'No shooting, archery, capture or catching of birds in any other way in *Desa Pakraman* Menanga'

The data [19] is the reason for ordering or requiring every citizen or anyone who has been married to be a member of *banjar*. In addition, data [20] becomes the reason for prohibiting bird catching in any way in *Desa pakraman Menanga*.

E. The Use of Quantity and Manner Maxims

Based on the data, the principle of cooperation that underlies the use of Balinese language in *awig-awig* of desa *pakraman* is the quantity and manner maxims. The application of the quantity maxim in *awig-awig* also relates to local wisdom in speaking. In Balinese society, there is one speech wisdom expressed by the proverb *liu ngomong, liu pelihne* 'More talks, more mistakes'; even in the Balinese proverbs, there is a metaphor of *liunan krebek kuangan ujan* 'more thunder, less rain' which is like a lot of talk but nonsense. Local wisdom and metaphor is a cultural foundation for the Balinese people to speak sufficiently and effectively (Arnawa, 2016, p. 62). The value of local wisdom is implemented in *awig-awig* with short but solid sentences.

Tan kalugra mabawos, malaksana sane tan rahayu sajeroning pura kahyangan. Yening mamurug yogya katiwakin dandha mrayascita pura inucap (Awig-Awig Desa Pakraman Menanga, paos 34 petet 4) [21]

'Not allowed to speak, do bad thing in the temple environment. If violate it, then they are obliged to perform the ceremonial purification of the temple'

Sane wenang maosin minakadi nulusang wicara ring desa inggih punika prajuru desa sinangggeh kerta desa (Awig-Awig Desa Pakraman Alapsari, paos 62 petet 1) [22]

'Those who have the right to talk in the village is the head of the village'.

Data [21-22] illustrates that the *awig-awig* text is structured on the principle of austerity so that the used syntactic construction tend to be short but focus on the affirmed topic. This is empirical evidence that the use of Balinese language in *awig-awig* of desa *pakraman* follows the maxim of quantity in the cooperation principle proposed by Grice (1975). Another communication strategy used is to advance the topic of speech (fronting).

In addition to the quantity maxim, the dominant use in the *awig-awig* text is the manner maxim which governs how a message should be sent. This maxim application is manifested with respect for all speech variables. The respect of speech variables is realized with the Balinese language use of *alus singgih* 'honor-high' variety. None of the *awig-awig* sentence uses the low-level Balinese language. Thus, the use of Balinese *alus-singgih* variety is a linguistic strategy for creating hegemonic politeness in Balinese society, as shown by the following data.

Sane kinucap wewalungan inggih punika sekancan buron suku pat, sekadi: bawi, banteng, kambing, kebo, misa, jaran, asu miwah sapanuggilan ipun, taler watek makampid sekadi: ayam, itik, hangsa, dolong miwah sebacakan ipun utawi sane siosan sane nyadnya kapiara (Awig-Awig Desa Pakraman paos 29 petet 1) [23]

'The so-called pets are all four-legged animals, such as pigs, cows, goats, buffaloes, horses, dogs and the like, as well as winged groups like chickens, ducks, geese and the like that are worth keeping'

Yaning wenten tetanduran ngungkulin, semaliha wastu mayanin ka pisaga patut kawara antuk paiguman ping ajeng mangda prasida sang nuwenang wit ngebah utawi notor (Awig-Awig Desa Adat Batursari, paos 28 petet 2) [24]

'If any plant exceeds until it can harm a neighbor, the owner is obliged to be reminded in a meeting to cut them down.'

The data [23-24] clearly support the analysis that the use of Balinese language of *alus singgih* is a form of hegemonic politeness. This is represented by data [23],pets and data [24] is a plantation. In general, based on the norms of Balinese social interaction, animals and plants can be expressed in Balinese varieties of *andap* 'low' or as high as Balinese language '*alus-sor* 'honor-low'. If data [23-24] is expressed in Balinese language of *andap* variety, the following speech will occur.

Ane keadanin ubuhan makejang buron mabatis papat, luwire: celeng, sampi, kambing, kebo, misa, jaran, cicing, muang ane lenan, teken soroh ane makampid luwire: siap, bebek, angsa, dolong, muah ane lenan ane pantes kaubuhin [23a].

'The so-called pets are all four-legged animals, such as pigs, cows, goats, buffaloes, horses, dogs and the like, as well as winged groups like chickens, ducks, geese and the like that are worth keeping'

Yen ada pamulaan ngungkulin buina bisa nyengkalen pisaga dadi ketaraang apang ane ngelahang ngebah wiadin notor kayune ento [24a].

'If there are plants exceeding until it can harm a neighbor, the owner is obliged to be reminded in a meeting to cut them down.'

Utterance [23] and [23a], as well as utterance [24] and [24a] express the same message. The use of honor-high variety in data [23-24] shows that in *awig-awig,* animals and plants were expressed in Balinese honor-high.

IV. DISCUSSION

Based on data analysis, it is known that the speech in the *awig-awig* discourse of *desa pakraman* in Bali, Indonesia, is characterized by the use of imposing speech, the use of wisdom and acceptance maxims, the use of modalities, the use of positive face parameters, the use of assertive, commissive and directive speech acts, and the use of quantity and

manner maxims. The use of imposing speech act is linear with the maxim of wisdom in the politeness principle. The imposing speech and maxim of wisdom is held on to the assumption that speakers consciously minimize loss to others or maximize gain on others. The imposing speech and maxim of wisdom are expressed in sentence construction which tends to be shorter than the presentation of the quantity maxim.

Awig-awig is a traditional or customary Balinese law product that regulates the rights and obligations of its people. As a rule, it contains obligations, prohibitions, orders, and penalties as sanctions. All aspects of *awig-awig* contents must be shared knowledge. To build on the same knowledge and understanding, the content of *awig-awig* is expressed by assertive speech acts constructed by direct-literal speech acts so as to avoid the coercion of understanding.

Sanctions are an integral part of *awig-awig*. Sanctions must contain certainty. In pragmatic studies, utterances that state certainty are called commissive. Many experts say that commissive speech acts are expressed by the verbs of the speech act of promise and offer. Based on the data found in *awig-awig*, it was revealed that, in addition to promises and offers, it was also required to state certainty. Therefore, the research team believes that it is a verb of commissive speech act, so this finding is the development of previous speech act theory.

Patria and Arief (2015) stated that obedience or hegemony can be developed in two ways: through power and exemplary. Power can be interpreted as the consistent application of law; meanwhile exemplary is interpreted as a demonstration of action to cause the nurturing effect for others. This theory focuses on agents or actors as the center of power and ignores the role of people. This theory emphasizes the central role of on power actor to create hegemony. Based on this theory, hegemony is only formed through external motivation. This theory ignores the inner aspects of the general population. The inner aspect is the essential element of humanity, and if it is touched it will have a real effect on his behavior. The appreciation of the inner aspect is a manifestation of respect for human beings as the subject of social change. In the *awig-awig* text, the inner aspect of the inner aspects become the focus of attention.

Based on the data analysis, it is found that respect is one of the hegemonic strategies. The honor can be realized by using the option of imposing utterance to cause public admiration and awkwardness. Respect is also a manifestation of the appreciation of the leader towards the people. Respect is a community's psychological management strategy. Respect embodied through the use of imposing utterance is a linguistic instrument to build social hegemony. The imposing utterance is a linguistic expression to manifest hegemonic politeness. The imposing utterance is a linguistic instrument to build hegemony based on awareness and internal motivation of every people. In *awig-awig*, the honor is manifested by the linguistic instrument of Balinese language speeches of *alus singgih* 'honor-high' variety. The Balinese language of *alus singgih* variety is used to give a high social status to the participants. The placement in high social status can foster a reflected social consciousness through its obedience to the written provisions of *awig-awig*. Thus, the respect presented through the use of the Balinese language of *alus singgih* is a linguistic instrument for expressing hegemonic politeness in Balinese society and culture which is linear to the pragmatic parameter of the positive face (Sumarsono, 2010, p. 156).

V. CONCLUSION

Balinese hegemonic politeness in *awig-awig* of *desa pakraman* is manifested by various grammatical, social, and pragmatic markers. The most noticeable grammatical marker is the use of modalities to state certainty. Modality always begins a sentence, although it can be grammatically positioned at the end. Prepositioning the modalities is a manifestation of language politeness in Balinese culture. In addition to the grammatical marker, it uses the social marker, that is, the use of the Balinese language of *alus singgih* 'honor-high' variety. The Balinese language of *alus singgih* is a sociolinguistic fact. This variety is used to show respect and elevate the social status of participants, especially the speaker.

The pragmatic markers used are imposing utterance; the maxim of wisdom, the maxim of quantity, and the maxim of manner. All pragmatic markers are expressed through direct-literal speech acts. Language politeness is a form of respect to the speakers. Respect to the speaker can form a person's internal obedience or hegemony. Internal obedience is a fundamental inner aspect. Respect is one way of building, nurturing, and maintaining social bonds so that awareness appears to follow the collective will that produces hegemonic politeness. Thus, the hegemony is not merely a matter of law enforcement and exemplary, but also related to respect or honor.

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An Effective Way to Memorize New Words— Lexical Chunk*

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Abstract—**Vocabulary is the basis of language, but memorizing new words has always been a hard job for all English learners. This paper was written based on the theories on lexical chunk by Lewis and other scholars, and the experiment conducted on my own teaching class. The paper explored the function of lexical chunks, types of lexical chunk, high frequency lexical chunks, the differences between lexical chunks in English and Chinese, and how to implement the method of lexical chunk teaching.**

Index Terms—**lexical chunk, high frequency lexical chunk, function**

I. INTRODUCTION

In recent years teaching methodologists have made some proposals for a lexical-phrase oriented pedagogy. The most influential one is Michael Lewis' chunking, which was defined in his book *Lexical Approach*. In this book, he raised teachers' and researchers' awareness of lexical chunk in a broad way.

Efficient communication is never simply a matter of making any grammatically right sentence. Through thousands of years of history, any language has stored quite a bunch of fixed expressions which can express meaning effectively. Communication, to a large extent, depends on having a series of fixed phrases which we can string together rapidly and efficiently.

Greaves and Warren (Greaves and Warren, 2010, P. 221) argue, "One of the central insights to come from corpus linguistics in the last thirty years is the extent to which competent users draw not only on a lexicon of individual words, but also on a range of lexicalized phrasal units which have come to known as "formulaic sequence". This reappraisal of the status of lexis is quite important. In communication, especially in the oral communications, grammar plays only a supportive role. Grammar is not involved in the creation of meaning, but rather concerned with the management of meaning. Wilkins (Wilkins, 1972, P. 11) said, "Without grammar little can be conveyed; without vocabulary, nothing can be conveyed. Lewis also argued that grammar is subordinate to lexis in creating meaning, a view captured in the oft-quoted aphorism: "Language consists of grammaticalized lexis, not lexicalized grammar".

Some Chinese researchers also made studies in this field and pointed out the importance of lexical chunk in second language acquisition. Lexical chunks are usually defined as prefabricated multi-word units stored in brain in integral form which can be extracted to use. The application of lexical chunks can effectively prevent the negative transfer of mother in the use of English.

II. FUNCTION OF LEXICAL CHUNK

A. The Importance of Lexical Chunk

It is our ability to use lexical phrases that helps us to speak with fluency. This prefabricated speech has both the advantages of more efficient retrieval and of permitting speakers to direct their attention to the larger structure of the discourse, rather than keeping it narrowly focused on individual words as they are produced.

L2 learners try to attain a native-like command of the foreign language, because the chunks can help produce stretches of discourse that sound natural to native speakers. Because their set meanings, chunks can aid fluency in speaking and reading, and improve listening proficiency with the mastering of formula expressions.

There are quite a few terms referring to multi-word items: lexicalized phrasal units, formulaic sequence, collocations and lexical chunks, lexical phrase, or lexical bundle. The different expressions should never be a problem in the research of lexical chunk in English language teaching. As Conzett (Conzett, 2000,P.85) argues, "The single most important thing for teachers, more than worrying whether or not something is a collocation, is to shift their and their students' focus away from individual words to chunks of language".

B. Lexical Chunk and Grammar

Romer (Romer, 2009) speaks of the interdependence of lexis and grammar, which have been traditionally regarded as separate.

Lexical chunk is a frequent meaningful sequence of words that may include both lexical and grammatical words. The definition of lexical chunk effectively subsumes other terms one finds in the literature such as lexical phrase, phrasal expression, formulaic sequence and lexicalized sentence stem.

Language users have a large number of half pre-constructed phrases, which are collocations and chunks in our term. The open choice principle involves direct resource to grammar and word-by-word generation of an utterance or sentence. Fluency is gained by making fewer and larger choices from the lexicon than one would make by following the "slot and filler" approach, which means word for word formation of a sentence.

III. TYPES OF LEXICAL CHUNKS

A. Different Type of Lexical Chunks

There are many types of lexical chunks in English. They are differentiated into the following types:

1. The different collocations made up of different grammatical combinations

• Adjective + noun collocation, e.g. *partial statement, resentful emotions, social status, occasional interrupt, favorable account, nasty temper, negative influence, humorous comic, persuasive presentation, tragic fate, bleak prospect.* These adjective and nouns patterns are quiet common in every passage in *New Horizon College English.* To instruct students to learn those words in the lexical chunks not only can help students to understand the meanings in contextual situations, but also help them to memorize the more words in a better way. The patterns are stored in mind for future use in oral or written English.

• Noun + noun collocation, e.g. *grammar rule, personnel interview, customer complaint, emergency ambulance, the knots in one's stomach, abdomen pain, drug addict, cherry blossom, coalition government.*

• Verb+ noun collocation, e.g. *save a document; compile a corpus, overturn one's opinion, proclaim independence, await approval, activate the alarm, aisle seat, alleviate pain, articulate thought, commit blackmail*

2. Collocation are not necessarily immediately adjacent, e.g. *drive someone crazy, wrinkle her brow, civilize the barbarian, show compassion for the victims, confer an honorary degree, and conquer the world champion.*

3. Field-specific collocations: They refer to the specific collocation that only appears in certain field.

4. Verb phrases, which are so often used, are usually considered as one word. *Look forward to, make up one's mind, put on, take off, subject to, set out, blast forth, burst into, reach for, and bolt out.*

5. Idioms: *pull one's leg, at the end of one's rope, asleep at the switch, bark is worse than your bite, at the drop of one's hat, nothing can be accomplished without norms or standards, take the preemptive opportunities, be down-to-earth, no discord no concord.*

Speaking of idioms, native speakers of English somehow intuitively know there is a connection between its meaning and the metaphor behind it. Having learners try and figure out their meaning helps them to have a deep and elaborative processing. The autonomous understanding of idioms is very hard, even with the help of contextual clues since many idioms contain content words which are multi-interpretable

B. The Importance of Lexical Chunk Recognition

During L2 class, it is the teacher's duty to draw students' attention to the lexical phrases that happen to occur in the textbook or in the classroom discussion. Students are encourage to record the collocations and other useful phrases they encounter while they are reading. So developing strategies for the recognition and the recording of chunks students encounter not only in, but also out classroom. This belief of incidental chunk uptake rests on analogy with L1 acquisition. Since most vocabulary in the native language is acquired, not taught, the ideal method of acquiring lexical chunk is to be exposed to enough suitable input, instead of formal teaching.

IV. THE DIFFERENCES OF LEXICAL CHUNKS IN ENGLISH AND CHINESE

Generative grammar used configurational and non-configurational languages to make a distinction between languages. Configurational languages, like English, have a fixed word order. The grammatical functions in the fixed expressions can be easily defined, while other languages, such as Japanese, have a freer word order, and grammatical functions are marked by other means. Since a lot of English expressions have the fixed order, it is quite important to teach the students these fixed forms in ESL class. The fixed expressions in oral and written English will make the speaker express more accurately and sometimes more precisely.

It is not easy to transfer the lexical chunks from one language to the other. Usually, a student may produce a given L2 word string without realizing that this is an erroneous word-for-word translation of L1 chunk. The translation either has the wrong meaning or no meaning at all in the L2 language. The ability to distinguish collocations from free word combinations in the L2 is also very essential in order to improve lexical chunk building in the second language acquisition.

To some extent, lexical chunks can serve as access points for raising learners' awareness of cross-cultural differences. Such as the phrases *kick the bucket, face the music*, which the students found hard to understand at first, but which to be the ones effectively learned after some contextual background is exposed to the learners. By calculation, about 15% of

the lexical chunk contain cultural information that need to be taught to the learners, so lexical chunks serve as the bridge to bring historical and cultural tips to the learners.

However, while mastering of lexical chunk is helpful in improve learners' linguistic competence, many studies have shown that it is an area of great difficulty even at an advanced level. To master more lexical chunks in this field, one needs effort and method.

English is a dependent-marking language. For example, possession is marked on the dependent word "man's, while in Chinese, possession is followed by the character "de". The differences in grammatical level put some difficulties in the study of lexical chunks in a foreign language. Between the two languages, learners and speakers tend to show certain preference to some lexical chunks. For example, Chinese students overuse some common interactive chunks, such as "*I think*", and they usually overuse the first pronoun "I". Instructors should teacher students to learn more lexical chunks that have the similar meaning with "*I think*" to replace it.

V. THE HIGH-FREQUENCY LEXICAL CHUNKS

The stocks of chunks of English is enormous. The highly-frequency chunks stand the best chance of being acquired incidentally since they are most likely to be encountered in many contextual situations. Since in the acquisition of vocabulary of a second language, the chunks are much less noticeable than an unknown word. Sometimes the lexical chunks are made of familiar words whose joint meaning is straightforwardly emergent. Students usually do not pause to think if the words in surrounding context are fixed expression unless they have met these lexical chunks many times before. It is the instructors' duty to point out for the students and asked them to memorize the words in their sequential order. So only the very high frequency appear to meet the conditions for incidental uptake through multiple encounters to become probable. For those of the medium-frequency chunks, instructors need to have explicit explanation and target in the classroom. The proficiency of English is strongly associated with a broad knowledge of chunks, not just the highly-frequent ones.

The medium-frequency chunks should be more targeted at the classroom, and there are still thousands of chunks which need explicit explanation. Because explicit explanation provides a shortcut in the learning process, since students have difficulty engaging in the mental elaboration themselves. When explaining these chunks, teachers can make students more easily understand them by elaborating from the two aspect. One is the semantic point of view, which means the meaning of a lexical term should be stressed. The other one is the form of a lexical item.

When learners learn a second language, they adopt a word-by-word process which makes it difficult for them to take in multiword sequences. Native language transfer is the factor that prevents learners to memorize the lexical chunks. Learners tend to adopt word for word translation before they learn the standard way of expressing a certain meaning, and they tend to understand the lexical chunks from their literal meaning, which sometimes may cause misunderstanding since some lexical chunks' meaning cannot be understood literally.

VI. THE EXPERIMENT

I ran two parallel controlled groups in the course of the school year. Both groups are the freshmen in my college, and they are taking English as the obligatory class. One group repeatedly engaged in chunking activities, while the other one was taught in the traditional way without emphasizing the concept of lexical chunk. The experimental group and the control group were exposed to this course during a period of 4 months, with four hours of English study for one week. They were matched in terms of input quantity, topics and communicative strategies. The text book used in the two groups was *New horizon College English* (third edition), with one teacher teaching the two groups. The instruction the experimental groups received differed from that of the control group only was in the way the teacher exploited the reading texts and transcripts of the recording. In the experimental group, the teacher intentionally put more emphasis on the lexical chunks and the syntagmatic behavior of words. During the instruction, the teacher asked the students to underline chunks and collocations. In this way, lexical chunks, rather than single words, are targeted. At the end of each class, students are asked to write at least 5 lexical chunks in their notebooks that were worth remembering. While in the control group, students' attention was drawn to the meaning and form of each singular word. Vocabulary was taught was discussed at a paradigmatic level. For example, words were compared to synonyms, antonyms, etc. At the end of each class, students in the control group were also asked to write at least 5 words that are worth remembering.

Corpus data are quite important during this process of lexical-chunk teaching, since sometimes people use their intuitions to decide what constitutes a chunk. In my study, I rely on expert L2 speakers' counts of what they considered to be chunks. They are the sequence of words which are stored and retrieved as a whole from memory at the time of use, rather than being made up of using language grammar rules.

However, the benefits of lexical approach in learning a second language are obvious. Because of the intensive language training the students received during the 16 weeks, the experimental group made significant progress in remembering the lexical chunks, and they exhibit high ability in identifying the real meanings in the listening and can express their ideas more precisely in their writing. While their abilities in oral English are not statistically different. That is to say, the usage of lexical chunks in oral English is the requirement harder to obtain. Another explanation is that they although they were exposed to the lexical chunks, they have no enough time to master them sufficiently for a

challenging real-time speaking task. So students' ability of using lexical chunks in oral communication or in the process of retelling a story is comparatively low. Lexical chunks can hardly occur to students' mind especially when they are making an impromptu speech, unless they are quite familiar with them besides, the native language has a strong negative transfer in the using of these chunks, for chunks in both languages are not equivalent both in form and in meaning. So even students try to use the lexical chunks, they have the risk of using them in a wrong way. That's also the reason why the lexical chunks should be paid more attention in the process of teaching. Teachers should not only tell students the meaning of the lexical chunks, but also there is the necessity to show them the usage of the lexical chunks in contextual situations.

In each unit I asked each student to write down at least 20 lexical chunks, and then I gave them the ones that I need them to memorize. Along with the lexical chunks, there is at least one example sentence to show how the lexical chunk is used. The next week, I have a quiz about the chunks that they remembered. I got a very interesting find from the result of this kind of tests. Students were more likely to remember the patterned phrases, so the lexical chunks that have phonological rhyme should be pointed for the students.

There is phonological effect in memorizing the lexical chunk. Such as alliteration, which means word-initial consonant repetition is especially common, such as *beat around the bush, cool as a cucumber*. Rhyme, which means word-end sound repetition consists of the other part that have phonological pattern, such as *drank as a skunk*. The study of the experiment shows that lexical chunks with the phonological repetition can be remembered easily and the students are more likely to apply them both in oral and written English.

Other studies about lexical chunk teaching also showed that the patterned ones are easier to memorize. According to the study made by Lindstromberg and Boers (Lindstromberg and Boers, 2008) experiment with the participation of a different cohort of highly proficient students. The students were asked to memorize the lexical chunks with phonological repetition or phonological rhyme and the others without these fixed patterns. The results strongly suggest that the answer is affirmative: students were statistically more likely to remember the patterned ones than the un-patterned ones.

But there is one point that needs to be cleared out. From the quantitative analysis, the experimental students' production of chunks is higher in listening and writing, but no more in speaking. We'll also consider the qualitative difference with the control group. The result shows these characteristics.

First, with more lexical chunks in mind, students can understand dialogues in listening comprehension more easily, since sometimes the most important meaning is carried by the lexical chunk. The understanding of the lexical chunks is the key point and that's usually why the examiner gives the question.

For example*: Man: You have to face the music since you have no other choice.*
　　　　　Woman: I think so!
　　　　　Question: what is the woman's feeling?

We have to know the meaning of the lexical chunk "face the music", which is the key factor in understanding the conversation. Since it has nothing to do with music, lots of students will make mistake if they understand the meaning literally. Here "face the music" means one has to face something unpleasant reality.

Second: about the effect lexical chunks to oral English. There is still some difficulties for the students to apply the lexical chunks in oral English, due to the fact that they have little time to let these chunks to recur in their mind or the fact that they are not so familiar with them. Anyway, lexical chunks could be used as an important indicator of different oral English Proficiency levels of second language. The more knowledge of lexical chunks one possesses, the better proficiency he'll have in actual performance of oral proficiency. Furthermore, the mastering and usage of lexical chunks can reduce negative transfer of the mother tongue to a large degree since the lexical chunks can express the meaning more precisely. In real communication between a second language learner and a native speaker, the use of lexical chunk can narrow the cultural gap and get favorable result in communication or negotiation.

Then about the effect of lexical chunk to writing: Students trained in pedagogical chunking are more likely to use them in a writing task and the meanings conveyed by the lexical chunks tend to be more precise. After the four-months of lexical training, drawing students' attention to chunks appears important to make students memorize more words and enables them to make correct use of these lexical chunks in context level. More lexical chunks enable students to express the meaning more accurately and they can have more replacements rather than use the same expression to express a certain meaning

VII. Teaching Method

A. Context Clues Helps Lexical Chunk Learning

Noticing alone was not sufficient for the experimental students to add more lexical chunks. In order to master these chunks and carry out the speaking tasks with the chunks, teachers need to match the lexical chunks from L2 with the exact meanings in L1, and more importantly, putting them into contextual situation is one effective way for the students to learn how to use them in real language situations.

B. Phonological Clues Help Lexical Chunk Learning

Since the phonological impact is very important, phonological repetition, especially alliteration, is pervasive not only in idioms but in all categories of chunks, for example compound *beer belly*, verb + noun collocation, *wage war*, proverbs and sayings *curiosity killed the cat*. In the classroom teaching, teachers let the students know the presence of alliteration or rhyme through their task instruction, since, most of the time, students have little inclination to notice phonological motivation on their own. Teacher's role is quite important in leading the learners to notice them and memorize them. This was confirmed by another experiment reported in Lindstromberg and Boers (Lindstromberg and Boers, 2008). In the experiment, teacher briefly alerted students in an experimental group to alliteration in the chunks they encountered in reading and listening texts during a 36-hour course, while he didn't intentionally do so when teaching the control group. The test result showed that the experimental group was much better than the control group. This suggests that the experimental students did indeed benefit from the occasional awareness-raising by the teacher. Drawing students' attention to the phonological repetition in a given chunk and perhaps suggesting that its lexical makeup might not be completely accidental is a way of engaging students in structural elaboration. This intervention is brief but nonetheless brings a measurable learning benefit.

Explicit targeting is an effective shortcut for the students to pay enough attention to the lexical chunk, and then the teacher can engage students in all kinds of mental elaboration, which they are unlikely to do on their own. Instructors can direct the students form the aspect of semantic meaning and form. By semantic point of view, it means students get a clear understanding of the meaning of the chunk. By form point of view, it means an easier way to understand and remember the lexical chunks through structural or phonological analysis.

C. Semantic Effect of the Lexical Chunks

In fact, some of the lexical chunks are teachable because their meaning and form is motivated in one way or another and the teacher can point out this motivation in order to engage students in elaboration, which is known to enhance retention. Sometimes, by revealing the imagery behind figurative chunks, semantics elaboration can be stimulated. Words tend to build partnerships with collocates with which they have semantic features in common. For example, for the word *commit* is often followed by the words which have strong meanings, such as murder, crime, manslaughter.

VIII. CONCLUSION

Targeting the lexical chunks in the classroom is the first step in helping the students understand and memorize them. To help students attain the fluency and accuracy of using these chunks, instructors need to provide ample opportunities for the students to reencounter them in different context situations. That is to say, appreciation of a chunk's rhyme and form is one thing, processing them in mind and make right application of these lexical chunks is another.

The linguistic motivation is a good way to elaborate works with very good efficiency. These methods can accelerate learning, but these methods alone cannot be sufficient by themselves to help students to learn a lot. The fluency of retrieval that is displayed by native speakers cannot easily be achieved. The understanding and memory of the chunks are the first steps of learning process, and then re-encounter and rehearsal are still considered to be the effective way to memorize them and use them in the right contextual situations.

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An Ecofeminist Interpretation of *Sons and Lovers**

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Abstract—**D. H. Lawrence is an influential figure of the 20th century in English literature, and also one of the most controversial writer. This paper mainly analyzes S*ons and Lovers* from the perspective of ecofeminism, by describing nature and female's resistance and struggle of their fates, and the decline of the males, it explores the oppression of patriarchy and with the awakening of feminism gradually shakes the male consciousness of patriarchy, it criticizes the deep influence on nature and human society by industrial civilization, so it advocates the anti-industrialization and reconstructs a harmonious society. Finally it stresses the original instinct, advocates the free development of humanity and a harmonious relations between men and nature, men and society.**

Index Terms—*Sons and Lovers*, **ecofeminism, reconstruction**

I. Introduction

It is well-known that David Herbert Lawrence was one of the greatest English novelist in the twentieth century with a repute of "one of the greatest personage history of English literature". In general, he had written a large number of works, including novels, poems and scripts. There was no doubt that he blamed the dehumanization life for the results of industrialization.

Lawrence was born in a miner family as the fourth child of Arthur John Lawrence. Apparently, his father was poor enough and always got drunk. Besides, he had a bad relation with his wife who was a former pupil teacher. Due to their poverty, she had to work in a lace factory. In his view, his mother deserved a better man instead of his father. Thus, the experience of his childhood influenced greatly on his work of creation.

Actually, *Sons and Lovers* was a semi-autobiographical novel. It was created in the period of the illness of his mother, so he demonstrated this novel relevant with a special maternal love. It told the story of the protagonist Paul Morel who had a close as well as deep relation with his mother, Mrs. Morel. At least he can get a special warm feeling from his mother beyond maternal love. What's more, he hated his farther so much that he was unwilling to see him. In fact, because of the despair and disappointment for Mr. Morel, Mrs. Morel put all her love into her two beloved sons. However, excessive love can make no sense. We find that her first son William unfortunately died, and her second son Paul could not love any more. While Paul had fall in love with Miriam and Clara, he still hesitated between spirit and sex. The fact was that Mrs. Morel had derived her sons rights of love. It was easier to see that the mother's love was absolutely deformed and diseased leading to the tragedy of her two sons. In the work of *Sons and Lovers*, the three female characters Mrs. Morel, Miriam and Clara all embodied the impacts of ecofeminism. Generally speaking, ecofeminism recently has been a popular study orientation in *Sons and Lovers*. Ecofeminism is the combination of women's liberation movement and the ecological movement.

From this perspective, ecofeminism is inevitably connected with our daily life, such as nature and human. Women gradually realized they are treated unfairly. Even though they have hard life in that age, they never give up and struggle for pursuing the rights of happiness. On the other hand, it symbolizes the awareness of new female. And Lawrence payed much attention to the working class, and young Paul's tragic fate has reveled class conflicts and gender issues. Undoubtedly, the development of industry has great impact on human and nature, breaking the balance of society in various aspects. Eventually, in *Sons and Lovers*, Paul's abnormal behaviors cause the whole tragedy. Obviously, the perspective of ecofeminism gives us a better understanding of this novel.

II. The Oppression of Patriarchal Society

Ecofeminism links natural domination and gender domination, and points out that the origin of this domination is patriarchy. The patriarchal concept occurred originally as an anthropological and sociology. The definition of patriarchy is the family pattern that men who have ruled rights dominate all the members of the family. Based on this point, patriarchy apparently became the root of oppression for nature and women. In *Sons and Lovers*, as we can see, the pits appeared all over the countryside, some of which had been made queer mounds and little black places and finally polluted and formed the environment of the village of Bestwood. The houses which miners lived seemed very decent

and stable, unexpectedly, were filled with ash-pits.

It not only brought the passive role of nature but also weakened the power of females. In many ways, males and females were treated unequally. From this novel, in Mrs. Morel's view, she did not want the third child because of the despair of life. She used to be alone and despised her husband, but she could not live without him. Sometimes she was tied of this poverty and meaningless life. Historically, Mr. Morel was the head of all powers, especially he swilled himself drunk and did nothing, showing that Mrs. Morel was accustomed to being oppressed by her husband. It was very easy to see that they have accepted the phenomenon unconsciously. In a male-dominated society, all the authoritative rights belonged to men in the fields of politics, economy, law, religion, education, military. The greatest inequality in human society was the inequality between the genders. Male power was made as an invisible hand, which made Mrs. Morel and the village disadvantaged and subordinate.

A.   Nature's Subdued Role

From the perspective of nature, it has its own charm and powerful internal value. In the long period, there used to be wooded hills and mountains, including lush forest, unique geological structure. However, nature in patriarchal society was subdued and obedient. In this novel, coal mines, as a non-renewable resource, was wanton acquisition. We found that Paul's working environment was so terrible, furthermore, as a miner, Mr. Morel had to stay in the small mines. The actual conditions of living in the Bottoms, that was so well built and that looked so nice, were quite unsavoury because people must live in the kitchen, and the kitchens opened on to that nasty alley of ash-pits. And all the villages were in a mess with same pits just like ants into the earth. Thus, the village of Bestwood was formed by these different black mines. To be honest, the contrast of environment had uncovered the difference of nature in patriarchy.

At the beginning of the novel, we know Bestwood is at its beast a mining village with rows of bungalows as its original name "Hell Row" suggests. We are more likely to imagine the dominating color of such a place is black and gray. Contrary to the common thought, we are occasionally overwhelmed by the beauty exhibited between the lines as we go deeper into the book. The front gardens give the humble miners' dwellings its liveliness. It is in the front garden that Lawrence displays his fantastic botanical knowledge of flowers and that Mrs. Morel and young Paul seeks their consolation. (Zhang, 2014: 13)

The natural environment of mankind had become the object of plunder, conquest and devastation. When Paul first found a job in a factory, the surroundings were so terrible. All the lights came from downwards and the ground floor was always night, moreover, the second floor was rather gloomy. That's to show Paul's work place was dark and insanitary which had been badly damaged, leading to the binary opposition between civilization and nature. Every time he had to come back to this unsatisfactory space without fresh air. Therefore, in the face of nature, human beings were acting on the natural world and creating an increasingly rich material wealth for themselves with unprecedented scale and speed. When the human beings are satisfied with their achievements, they have tasted the bitter fruits of human centralism. At the same time, mankind has become the slave of industrial civilization by blindly pursuing material wealth.

B.   Male's Paramount Domination

When it comes to male's domination, we usually think of the word of patriarchy. Traditionally, male plays a strong role with an absolute power in society. Patriarchy is linked with institutionalized control rather than individual sexism. The reason why female is regarded as domestic character while male is a role of outside one is to reiterate the subordination of woman in a patriarchal society. Actually, female is not recognized for many rights and suffers discrimination and oppression. They are treated as a subordinate of men. No matter in east or west, male domination always exists. The essence of male chauvinism is personal oppression of natural relationships.

At the same time, Mr. Morel, Paul's father in *Sons and Lovers*, who was only an illiterate miner marries a well-educated middle class woman, while they had different backgrounds and values, they still loved each other at first and fell in love quickly. Especially after marriage, Mrs. Morel had to surrender him. From this point, it was simple to understand that patriarchy offered an advantage to fathers with complete possession of family power. Women, no matter how ambitious and talented they are, are customarily confined to the domestic housework and are not allowed to work outside. (Ma, 2012) Even if Mrs. Morel had a well background and maybe can live a better a life with another guy, but she eventually chose Mr. Morel and became Mrs. Morel, she still could not divorce and be a housewife at home with no wish.

Besides, females and nature were both dominated by males in different aspects. In man's view, they were the king of family, and everything was up to them. For instance, Mr. Morel thought that the house was his not their collective one. He just said with a word of "mine." In other words, in most male's mind, they earned more money than females so they had privilege to abuse and scold their wife and children. In the history of patriarchy, females took serious duty to bear and bring up children. They should obey male thoroughly. The second female character Miriam, who had the similar case. Miriam was always set at nought by her brothers and refused to be approached, so at the beginning she held aloof to Paul. Last and most importantly, she still wanted to marry Paul while he would not take her. As regarded to Clara, Paul thought she was a married woman and would not suit him. In fact, it was a blatant discrimination and domination against women.

C.   Female's Submissive Status

Although marriage is what you make of it, females are in passive situation in patriarchy. Truly, pains and griefs exist in marriage, but for these females who lived in Victorian era were completely submissive. They had few rights. Despite they were one of members of family, as a matter of fact, they were sacrifices of their husbands.

It is a fact that Mrs. Morel's obedience was another representation. When Mr. Morel got drunk and quarreled with her, she still came back home. He even called her the word of "ussy" and ignored that she was his unique wife who used every energy for the whole family. They even could not sit and talk peacefully, and the house which they lived in did not belong to them and they had owed a lot of money. When she knew the fact, she just sat there, bitter and indignant. Could not divorce, she continued her disappointed life. Nevertheless, she knew him too well and felt lonely, the faith in life was shaken. To some extent, women had no right so that they ended a miserable marriage in patriarchy. It was fine for women to take care of their family, but it was definitely not a good idea to divorce because they can only depend on their husband and suffer the oppression. What's worse, women were lack of economic status.

Besides, with the traditional customs and moral principles, women were forced to be silent about their rights. Comparing with Mrs. Morel, Miriam was also another slave of patriarchy. Everyday the only thing she can do is to prepare housework and accept abuse. Actually, Miriam was very cautious about the surrounding environment. At home she tried her best to do the housework and wanted to be respected. As we all know, the most painful thing was losing oneself in the process of loving someone too much. Bur for these poor women, they had no choice but to continue in the situation. What's worse, Paul was so cruel at Miriam' religious belief which made her sad and disappointed. Miriam was astonished and painful when Paul once said their love was only friendship. She was hurt deeply but still waited for Paul's return. It was believed that women in *Sons and Lovers* were sometimes stepped with Paul. To sum up, destiny is not a matter of chance, but it is a matter of choice; and it is not a thing to be waited for, but it is a thing to be achieved.

III.   The Unbalance of Destructed Society

The novel was set before the first world war in England. Capitalist industrial civilization was just like a double-edged sword, bringing material satisfaction to the human, but making negative effects. The whole social environment and social atmosphere were bad. The capitalist industrial civilization caused the workers' misfortune, cruelty of capitalist exploitation. (Li, Guo, 2016) Lawrence revealed a stark reality to readers in *Sons and Lovers*. In the novel, Lawrence not only described the unbalance of natural ecology, but also provided his insight into the dislocated spiritual ecology of people.

Lawrence showed the reader directly the capitalist industrial civilization linked with environmental damage. The working conditions of miners were so bad as well as dirty that miners became rude and preferred to choose alcohol to relax themselves and forgot the current trouble and poverty. People started and ended with family, but in this novel, family seemed to be a prison which bounded the whole life of Mrs. Morel. It was hard for Mrs. Morel to imagine that her favorite little son killed her with his own hands. It is not incomprehensible at all to say that this state is an exhaustive unbalance of humanity. Meanwhile, males gradually lost certain believes and tended to be on the decline of their positions. Correspondingly, females seemed to understand themselves better and not afraid of male like before, this time they got more confidence on dealing with affection.

A.   Ravage of the Nature

It goes without saying that industrialization is the period of social and economic change that transforms a human group from an agrarian society into an industrial society, involving the extensive re-organisation of an economy for the purpose of manufacturing. There is no denying that this kind of social revolution results in the destruction of nature.

In *Sons and Lovers*, as what had been described, the idyllic landscape had been destroyed by the ruthless and dirty coal mines. And donkeys were used to carry these mines, together with odd black places were formed as their homes. The disgust of the serious consequences of environmental degradation caused by people blindly pursuing money. Although "Hell Row" was burned down by a big fire, new mines were ready to sink and new companies planned to operate again. Furthermore, factory life with its enforced confinement and long working hours isolated men from the natural world that was his true connection to the life force. Flowers, water, and other natural images are identified with sensuality and beauty, while the mines bury the fields in dust and darkness.

Therefore, nature was the dominant of that age. In this novel, it is understandable that the lower class do not benefit from industrialization, just like Mr. Morel who had suffered the tragic life. Machines had become important in industry, that's why Mr. Morel worked hard but earned little. All these caused the unbalanced situation of society. As for others, like the pot man who would call this village the word of "flamin and scrattlin", they were the existence of nature, and they must rely on the nature though deeply destructed. Simply, nature's unbalanced destruction was a real problem. In many cases, however, people in this novel violated natural rules and interfered with natural process which destroyed natural beauty and ecological balance, such as the air, the river, the forest and etc. Deforestation and ecological balance had been severely damaged. In other words, nature was in serious condition for their own natural revenge.

B.   Decline of the Males

The destructive power of industrial civilization had an influence on men. The important role for male in life produces

a chain of reaction, especially for male spirits. Actually, males in the *Sons and Lovers* were gradually in a decline state.

Mr. Morel was a classic character who did not enjoy a valuable life. In his family, nobody cared this poor man any more even his children. It seemed that he was an invisible man in front of his wife and children. Males like Mr. Morel always worked in a hard surrounding and made little money. Besides, he almost lost the joy of life and only used alcohol to numb himself. And he abused Mrs. Morel after getting drunk. The misfortune of Mrs. Morel actually revealed the decline of male's life. Not only did Mrs. Morel not mold him into what she expected but also destroyed him. In this marriage, he was a loser, an absolutely loser that his wife had to turn to their children for comfort. This was an inevitable as a decline of the males.

As for Paul, he admired her mom very much, but in his mind and action, he dared not to love any girl and feared to disappoint his mother. Although he loved his mother, he hated himself for his love. It can be concluded that the root of Paul's inner struggle was his male-dominated consciousness and also the awakening of feminism. But after his mother died, Paul felt sad. On the surface, Paul's inner conflict was intimate or alienated.

When he fell in love with Miriam, he never thought Miriam would pitied him. Whereas she despised him because he was blown about by any wind of authority and could not make a decision for himself. Every time Paul walked with Miriam, the only sense was bitter with biting his lips and clenched fists. Once he thought of Miriam, he had a feeling of guilty of his mother. In addition, for another female character Clara, Paul could not defeat his inner voice. In his eyes, he looked paltry and insignificant, unlike Clara's husband Dawes. At least Dawes dared to admit his failure and was a real man. Paul was almost destroyed and shamed to continue his life.

IV. RECONSTRUCTION OF HARMONIOUS SOCIETY

Because of the industrial revolution, the whole society had been in a mess. However, there definitely were better ways to arouse people's awareness of conserving. On the contrary, the nature was under great wreck. Males and females were in an unfair world. In Lawrence's view, he was in favor of sex liberation and against any violation of instinct. What's more, he advocated the equality of bisexual relations. Thus, from this part, it's very important to find the origin of nature and explore the real value of lives. From *Sons and Lovers*, it was rather easy to notice that Mr. Morel and Mrs. Morel were unhappy in their marriage, and their problem was that both of them had discrimination on genders. They couldn't respect each other and wanted too much. Obviously, women had the same rights as men, there was no difference between male and female. So did Paul's relationships with Miriam and Clara. If they all believed love can win everything, how could they lost love so easily. Overall, the value is that everything in nature is equal, we human beings should respect it, not just only for its usage. In order to reconstruct a harmonious society, it is essential to protect the environment around us.

A. Respect for the Nature

It should be acknowledged that natural respect will be a difficult process as the industrialization has been deep-rooted for thousands of years. As the improvement of technology, more and more people argue that they can control the nature. The power of nature is unpredictable. Once nature is out of control, human beings may suffer the result.

In this novel, to some degree, nature can make some differences. For example, when Mrs. Morel quarreled with Mr. Morel, the beautiful outside scenery gave her a great encouragement to stand up and keep on the unfortunate life. She began to forget everything and make the children first. Under this circumstance, the distorted love between Paul and his mother arose spontaneously.

It's necessary to treat nature with a respectful attitude. We are part of nature, and we can not live without nature. Once nature is under destruction, human is the victim. Paul enjoyed the wonderful life in the Willey Farm and soon made friends with the boys. It was nature's power that Miriam was not afraid of the religious intensity and stood again to love Paul. In Lawrence's eyes, spirit, flesh and the nature are a unified whole. And the nature plays a leading role according to its super strength, which controls our spirits and flesh, and determines the occurrence and development of everything. (Zhang, 2010) As we may find when Paul had a feeling with Clara, the shadowy land began to take life, the leaves turned distinct with a lovely beach. Everything in nature seemed so nice and dynamic, and love was produced a magic energy. However, when his mother Mrs. Morel died, the opposite was the case. Paul felt everything had gone smashed, the last painting he drew was the day of his mother. Nothing was left, the street was empty, when the first snow dropped, they did not mean anything to him. But they were something that could motivate his motion. Only the black night was his home and he could put himself in it. It's necessary to make great efforts and protect our home—the earth. So it's our responsibility to respect and return to nature.

B. Self-recognition of the Males

In regard to recognition for the males, they should have a correct self-awareness. The death of William and Paul's two failure love relations showed this point. Both of them could not realize their true value and only surrounded with their mother. As for William, he could have had an ideal job and a beautiful wife, however, he was too well-behaved to go against Mrs. Morel. Without any hesitation, he should tell his mother the real idea and follow his own heart. Unfortunately, it finally caused the sad ending of the story. And William died with no expectation.

Thus, Paul soon became the next wretched guy. It's likely that Paul's deepest love ruined the peaceful and normal life,

and he thought his love belonged to his mother. He could not learn to love himself and others, and the only goal of life is his mother. After Mrs. Morel died, Paul almost destroyed himself. His despair of life went after with his mother, the dependence of love suddenly collapsed as a substantial wall. Hence, both William and Paul were supposed to have a proper way towards their special love. Moreover, Mr. Morel had the same destiny. He lost hope for life and just wanted to get drunk, maybe the unique way to forget every annoyance and trouble. Mrs. Morel was so accustomed to Mr.Morel's crude behaviors for many years that she even won't talk about it. In that age, men had more advantages in social and economic status, while women were weak because of their natural conditions. Nevertheless, Mr. Morel did not fully take the advantages, in contrast, he preferred to complain about the plight. Because of work issues, Mr. Morel slammed the door and let her pregnant wife outside. A real man must take the responsibility of the family instead of being a passive one. The couple lived in a disharmonious family which produced negative impact on children.

C.   Reverence for the Females

Basically, the harmonious relations between men and nature or men and women are related to the reverence of the females. In the novel, the second female character, Miriam, only wanted spiritual love but escaped from Paul's sexual need. For a long time, the impassive Christianity let more people dare not to touch the topic of sex. Apart from avoidance, they often preyed in religion. But she argued that love should not be based on sexuality as it may violate the doctrine. Nonetheless, Paul wanted more than spirit, he still liked her body. For these reasons, people should have a correct attitude towards females, they are not sacrifice of sexuality for males, and males should respect females with a reverent attitude.

In terms of Clara, Paul believed that he belonged to nobody, in particular Clara. He at one time thought that she was a married woman who could be a barrier for their love relation. Actually, Clara had her own opinion and was an independent lady. She had her own job and did not depend on her husband financially. From her perspective, even though she got married, she could choose to get away her husband as he was unfaithful to her. As a woman in patriarchy, unlike Mrs. Morel and Miriam, Clara had more freedom in making choice and against the unfair restraint by males. Then she gradually realized that she never fully had him and never got the essence of his real idea. Paul only wanted her flesh and love-making, which was opposite to Clara's need. Thus, after the struggle of love, she finally left Paul and decided to come back to her husband. It was also a symbol of independent flesh. The reason why Paul could not gain the last happiness was that he divided love into soul and flesh. Not only should humans seek the equality relationship between males and females but also pursue a self-liberation.

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Students' Perceived Challenges of Attending a Flipped EFL Classroom in Viet Nam

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Abstract—**Flipped classroom is gaining more and more popularity among educators and researchers all over the world; however, its implementation in Viet Nam is still in infancy. This small-scale research project attempts to investigate students' perceived challenges when attending a flipped English grammar class. Qualitative research design was adopted to address the research question. The participants include 34 second-year students majoring in the English language at a state university in Viet Nam. The instruments consist of an open-ended questionnaire and semi-structured interviews. Thematic analysis was employed to address the qualitative data. The findings highlight that Vietnamese students encounter several challenges when attending the flipped classroom including difficulty in self-regulated learning, heavy learning workload, lack of immediate support and lack of ICT resources. Accordingly, the present research has some pedagogical implications to help address those obstacles for successful implementation of this innovative teaching mode in the Vietnamese EFL context.**

Index Terms—**flipped classroom, EFL, challenges, Viet Nam**

I. INTRODUCTION

The advance and prevalence of modern technology has affected every facet of people's lives and led to the dramatic changes in all areas including education. The traditional instructional methods which used to be dominant in the past have become outdated and the new and innovative ways of teaching have been introduced to cater for diverse needs and abilities of "digital natives" (Prensky, 2001) – a new generation of students who are born in the digital age and are entirely familiar with computers, smartphones and the Internet.

In the past decade, flipped classroom, a new pedagogical model originated in the United States of America, has gained much attention among educators from all levels and fields and become a growing teaching trend in the world (Mehring, 2017). In the flipped classroom, the lectures are moved out of the face-to-face class meetings to free up in-class time for deeper critical and active learning activities (Stone, 2012). This method has demonstrated its effectiveness in various disciplines with regards to improving students' achievement, performance, engagement, etc. and offers a variety of benefits to both teachers and students (Lopes & Soares, 2018). In addition, it is mostly reported that both teachers and students have positive perceptions towards this innovative approach (El-Bassuony, 2016).

Viet Nam, in recent years, has been trying to boost the English language education. In order to achieve that goal, new instructional methods are encouraged to improve the current English learning and teaching situation. In that trend, the flipped classroom model started to be mentioned in the mass media and has been implemented by some teachers in EFL classes (Bui, 2016; Nguyen, 2014; T. N. Tran, 2016; T. T. Q. Tran, 2017). Although studies on flipped classroom in the Vietnamese EFL teaching and learning context are in their early stage, it is reported that this pedagogical method may become a potential teaching method. Since flipped classroom is quite a new teaching mode in Viet Nam, students may encounter some challenges and difficulties when participating in such classes. Thus, this research aims at investigating the challenges that students may face when attending a flipped class. The following research question guided the current study: What challenges do students encounter when attending a flipped English grammar classroom?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Flipped Classroom

Over the past decade, flipped classroom, as a form of blended learning, has appeared as an innovative teaching method which attracts much attention from teachers and researchers over the world. The teaching model was first introduced by a professor at Cedarville University in Ohio, Dr. J. Wesley Baker when he put the PowerPoint slides on the university's computer network and asked his students to read them before coming to class. The whole class time

was mostly devoted to the application and practice of the new concepts that the students acquired beforehand through collaborative activities. The new instructional model is illustrated in Fig. 1 Baker (2000) then discovered that his students had learned a great deal through this teaching approach.
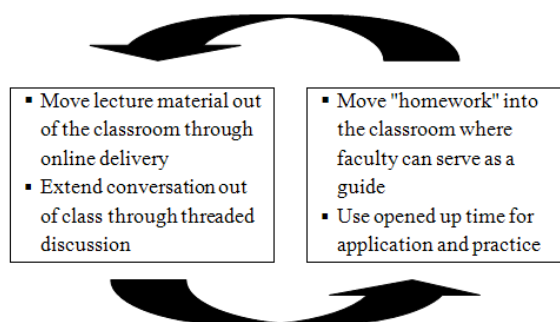

Figure 1. The Flipped Classroom Model (Baker, 2000)

Due to the rapid advance of information and communication technologies in recent years, flipped classroom has become a growing trend in education. According to Bishop and Verleger (2013), the teaching model is defined as "a new pedagogical method, which employs asynchronous video lectures and practice problems as homework, and active, group-based problem-solving activities in the classroom" (p .1). More specifically, flipped classroom gives students the opportunity to learn new contents at home before coming to class through online educational materials such as videos, podcasts or presentation slides. Students can watch the digital lessons as many times as needed to fully prepare for their face-to-face class sessions. The classroom time will then be maximized for active learning activities to apply and practice the newly-acquired knowledge at a richer and deeper scope. This teaching model, grounded in the learning theory of constructivism and active learning, helps transform the learning environment from teacher-centered to student-centered. As such, students can take control of their own learning while teachers work as facilitators to monitor, support and give feedback to their students instead of knowledge providers in traditional classes (Strayer, 2012). Besides, technology is an essential aspect of flipped classroom as it enables teachers to offer learning content in different formats, deliver digital lectures, create online activities, monitor students' progress and involvement, assess their achievement, etc. (Bishop & Verleger, 2013).

There have not been any fixed guidelines for exactly what a flipped classroom should look like so far. Albert & Beatty (2014) pointed out that flipped classroom possesses five following major characteristics: (a) educational process transforms students from passive to active learners; (b) technology facilitates the approach; (c) class time and traditional homework time are inverted so that homework is done first; (d) content is given in real-world context; and (e) class activities engage students in higher order of critical thinking and problem solving or help them grasp particularly challenging concepts.

B. Benefits of Flipped Classroom

Flipped classroom is reported by many researchers to be highly beneficial for students of different disciplines. The benefits include more efficient use of classroom time for active learning activities, the improvement of students' learning outcomes and achievement, increased teacher-student and student-student interactions during class meetings, the promotion of the student-centric learning environment, and the address of multiple learning styles. In addition, the flipped classroom approach enables students to learn anytime, anywhere and at their own pace, access course materials continuously, personalize their learning process, advance their learning engagement and ownership, develop their reflective abilities and generic skills, improve their self-discipline and self-regulation skills, promote their learning autonomy, etc. (He, Holton, Farkas, & Warschauer, 2016; Yang, 2017). The majority of research studies indicate that both teachers and students have a positive and favorable attitude towards this innovative instructional model (Doman & Webb, 2015). In comparison with some other existing pedagogical models, this approach offers numerous benefits which are extremely appealing to administrators, educators, students, and parents.

C. Challenges of Flipped Classroom Implementation

Despite numerous benefits, it is identified that students encounter some challenges when attending the flipped classes. Missildine et al. (2013) pointed out that the increased amount of out-of-class preparation time may negatively influence students' satisfaction levels. The heavy workload of pre-class activities may overwhelm students' time at home. Similar findings made by Strayer (2009) indicate that the students' new roles in the flipped classroom give them a much higher demand. They may feel more pressure to complete the pre-class activities, and therefore become uncomfortable with the in-class practices. As such, the flipped classroom would not be effective at all.

According to some researchers such as Chen (2016) and Simpson and Richards (2015), one big challenge is related to students' resistance to a totally new teaching mode. Students have become familiar with traditional lecture methods and find it initially struggled to adjust to an innovative teaching style with new routines, responsibilities and expectations.

Milman (2012) indicated that students may not view the full lesson videos or may not fully comprehend the video contents and therefore be unprepared for the learning activities during class meetings or difficult to keep pace with their classmates. Besides, she added that the conditions under which they watch the videos may not be the best for learning new concepts. Students have to be responsible for their own learning but the fact that there are many distractions with the online session of the flipped class may lead to the lack of concentration. Students often get distracted by other websites or social networks and the surroundings, which make them unable to fully focus on watching the video lessons. In another study, Lopes & Soares (2018) mentioned such challenges that students might face as their attendance fluctuation, some lack of a responsible attitude towards knowledge construction, some difficulty in coping with the continuous leaning pressure in the before-class session. Also, Bhagat et al. (2016) included lack of instant help or out-of-class supports as one other challenge. Some students lament that they cannot ask their questions immediately during pre-class activities. Lo & Hew (2017) categorized the above-mentioned challenges as student-related ones.

Since the flipped classroom approach heavily relies on homework and technology use, Missildine et al. (2013) identify several operational challenges related to infrastructure, classroom availability and limited high-speed Internet access. Some students might not have Internet access at home while others might have no laptops or mobile devices to view the digital lessons.

The aforementioned challenges in the flipped classroom implementation process are all reported in study fields excluding foreign language education, especially in the Vietnamese context.

D. Previous Studies on Flipped EFL Classes

With regards to EFL education, although research reports on flipped EFL classrooms are not abundant in the literature (Hung, 2015; Webb & Doman, 2016), this instructional model demonstrates its potential effectiveness and success in teaching language knowledge and language skills.

Hung (2015), a pioneer in applying flipped classroom in EFL teaching context, found that both teachers and students have positive perceptions and favorable attitudes towards this pedagogical approach. His research also revealed that flipped classroom helps improve students' academic performance in general. Several other researchers (e.g. Başal, 2015; Engin, 2014) echo his findings when concluding that the approach has positive impacts on students' performance and proficiency levels in different EFL areas.

According to Al-Harbi & Alshumaimeri (2016), flipped classroom helps tackle some common problems of English language learners including lack of participation, communication and interaction opportunities, lack of sufficient feedback, low proficiency levels, etc. Additionally, this instructional model maximizes the in-class time for communicative activities.

Within the Vietnamese EFL context, although studies related to the flipped classroom approach are still limited, some authors such as Bui (2016), Nguyen (2014), T. N. Tran (2016) and T. T. Q. Tran (2017) started to discuss the potential adoption of the flipped classroom approach. As reported by these researchers, this teaching mode can be a promising instructional method in EFL education, especially in addressing the issues related to the local teaching context. The approach proves to be effective in improving students' academic achievement and gets positive feedback from them. However, no empirical studies on the challenges of flipped classroom have been found in the existing literature. Therefore, it is hoped that the findings of the current study will make a modest contribution to the successful implementation of the flipped classroom approach in the Vietnamese EFL teaching and learning context.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Research Design

Unlike the quantitative approach, qualitative research helps explore and interpret the meanings of socio-cultural, economic and political issues and challenges (Creswell, 2009). Therefore, the current study was based on a qualitative research design to address the research question. Thematic analysis was employed to identify the themes related to the challenges students faced.

B. Participants

The participants included 34 second-year students, majoring in the English language at University of Foreign Language Studies, the University of Da Nang, a state university in Viet Nam. They were enrolled in the course of English Integrated Skill B2.4 which included four language skills and grammar knowledge in the second semester of 2018. Most of them are female, aged between 19 and 21, which reflects the normal ratio of male and female students majoring in foreign language studies in Viet Nam. Their English language proficiency is considered at the lower-intermediate level.

C. Instruments

Qualitative data were collected to address the research question. To identify the students' perceived challenges in a flipped classroom, a questionnaire containing open-ended questions was administered to all participants in which students were asked to give responses about the challenges they encountered in the flipped class. Besides, a semi-structured interview with guiding questions and prompts developed beforehand was conducted with 10 participants

selected from the class to obtain in-depth information concerning the challenges. Both of the instruments were piloted before the actual study.

D. Data Collection and Analysis

The participants attended a flipped English grammar class in ten weeks as part of the course of English Integrated Skill B2.4 in which there were ten grammatical points to be taught, one point per week. In a weekly flipped class, students were asked to watch a lesson video containing one grammar point before coming to class. The videos created by the instructor were posted on a Moodle e-learning platform for the students to view. Besides, the students had to take a short online quiz after watching the videos to check their understanding of the lesson. During the 50-minute class meeting, after a short review of new grammatical points by the instructor, most of the time was devoted to active learning activities through which the students applied what they had learned at home in communicative practice.

After ten weeks of attending the flipped class, the students were delivered an open-ended questionnaire to complete. Ten out of 34 participants were then randomly selected for the semi-structured interview. All the interviews were audio recorded. The students gave responses to the open-ended questions in the questionnaire and the interviews in Vietnamese since they felt more confident in their first language.

The interview recordings were transcribed verbatim. The responses to the open-ended questions in the questionnaire and the interview transcripts were translated into English. The qualitative data were then coded and analyzed manually. Thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006) was adopted to identify the themes with sub-themes related to students' perceived challenges.

IV. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

As emerged from the qualitative data, there are four core themes which represent the challenges perceived by the students when attending the flipped English grammar class (as illustrated in TABLE 1). Most of the identified challenges are consistent with the findings from previously reviewed studies.

TABLE 1.
VIETNAMESE EFL STUDENTS' PERCEIVED CHALLENGES WHEN ATTENDING A FLIPPED CLASS

No.	Major Themes	Sub-Themes
1	Difficulty in self-regulated learning	A) Distracted by social networks and entertaining websites B) Distracted by the surroundings C) Forget to do pre-class activities
2	Heavy learning workload	A) More time devoted B) More efforts
3	Lack of immediate support	A) No immediate feedback B) No immediate responses to queries
4	Lack of ICT resources	A) Low Internet speed B) Lack of Internet access at home C) Lack of laptops or mobile devices

A. Difficulty in Self-regulated Learning

Difficulty in self-regulated learning is one major theme deduced from the students' responses in the open-ended questionnaire and the interviews. Since students must acquire the new knowledge ahead of time so as to apply it in more engaging activities, the flipped classroom much depends on the pre-class activities. However, some participants mentioned that they found it difficult to take responsibility for their own learning at home because of many distractions which may cause them to lose concentration. As two students explained:

"I faced the challenge regarding concentration. While I was viewing the lesson videos, it was hard to keep me away from other things like using Facebook, watching online football matches or listening to music. So, I couldn't totally understand and concentrate on the lessons. When I studied in coffee shops, the people surrounding me sometimes made noise and broke my concentration."

"I think the biggest challenge for me is associated with self-regulated learning. In order to achieve success in the flipped classroom, I must be seriously studious. But sometimes I felt lazy, I didn't want to do online activities. In addition, there were numerous websites and social networks that distracted me while I was learning on the e-learning platform."

Besides, remembering to do weekly out-of-class activities is not an easy task. One student confessed in the interview:

"This approach requires students to take high responsibility for their own learning. But sometimes, I forgot to do the pre-class activities."

Students then may not view or fully understand the instructional videos and therefore be insufficiently prepared for active learning activities during class time. This is consistent with the findings of Milman (2012) in that it is hard to control the students' learning at home. Similarly, Chao et al. (2015) indicated "it is difficult to ensure that students had truly previewed the video" (p. 524)."

B. Heavy Learning Workload

Another noticeable challenge which many students mentioned is heavy learning workload. The flipped classroom model requires students to do out-of-class activities such as watching instructional videos and doing online quizzes before coming to class. Hence, the students voiced that they had to work more in the flipped classroom. Also, they had to devote more time to the course at home. For example, one student complained in the interview:

"It occupied me a lot of time compared to the traditional classes. In the past, I didn't have to do anything before class meetings. But now, you know, I must spend time on a lot of homework including watching the videos, doing the quizzes…"

Interestingly, two students revealed the reasons why it took them much time at home with the flipped class:

"I was frequently attracted by other entertaining websites or social networks like Facebook during my online learning. And, of course, I had to take much more time to fully understand the online lessons and complete the quizzes."

"Sometimes, low Internet connection hindered me from doing pre-class activities. Well, it was quite time-consuming to load the lesson videos to watch with the low Internet speed."

Many studies in the literature (e.g. Missildine et al., 2013; Strayer, 2009) support this result when indicating that students must devote more preparation time to pre-class activities; and consequently learning in flipped classes is more demanding than in traditional ones.

C. Lack of Immediate Support

One further challenge that students perceived in the flipped classroom is associated with the timely support and feedback from their teachers. In order to effectively participate in a flipped class, students had to watch the video lessons at home as a preparation for their class meetings without their teachers' help. Students then complained that when watching the digital lessons, if they had any queries regarding the content, they could not ask their teacher immediately as in traditional lectured classes. The challenge is detailed in the following comment from an interviewee:

"I couldn't talk immediately to my teacher when I had any query about the video lessons. It's a challenge for me."

Two other students expressed similar ideas:

"Sometimes, I didn't fully understand one grammatical point when watching the lesson videos or doing the quizzes. I couldn't get timely feedback from my teacher as I did during the lectures of traditional classes."

"At times, I was unclear of a grammatical point but I couldn't get immediate responses from my teacher, so I had to search Google to tackle the problems."

This challenge is aligned with the report by Bhagat et al. (2016) when he showed that lack of instant help from teachers can be an obstacle for students in a flipped class.

D. Lack of ICT Resources

A final common theme of challenges is related to the inadequate ICT resources such as the Internet or mobile devices. ICT technology plays a crucial role in the flipped classroom. Interestingly, no students reported IT illiteracy as a challenge and found difficulty in using the Moodle e-learning platform. The reasons may be that students are now all good at IT skills and the LMS Moodle is easy to use. However, echoing the findings of previous studies by Missildine et al. (2013) and Chen (2016), lack of ICT resources is perceived as a hindrance to the implementation of a flipped classroom. Students have to do all the pre-class activities out of class with the help of ICT technologies, but their conditions are not the same. Some students stated they had no laptop, while others reported the technological issues including no Wifi access and low Internet speed. In the interviews, the participants mentioned this challenge in more details. For example:

"I live in a small rented room. And one challenge I faced is the unavailability of Wifi. I couldn't use my laptop or smartphone to do the online activities in my room. So, I had to go to coffee shops or the university library. It is quite an obstacle for me."

"I sometimes have problems with the Internet access such as disconnection or low speed, which causes many difficulties in attending the flipped class."

Two students talked about the lack of laptops:

"I don't have my own laptop. It's a bit difficult for me to watch the online lectures and do other activities."

"One time, my laptop was broken down and I found it hard to do the online activities. I had to wait for one day to borrow the laptop from my friend."

As can be seen from the research findings, all of the identified challenges are concerned with the pre-class session of the flipped classroom where students have to be responsible for their own learning with the aid of educational technology. It is also interesting to note that the challenge of students' initial resistance to adopt the flipped classroom approach was not mentioned by the students as reported in several studies (e.g. Chen, 2016; Simpson & Richards, 2015). Probably, the students were well informed of the new pedagogical approach at the beginning of implementation. Once they become perfectly aware of procedures and benefits of the approach, they will be willing to actively participate in the flipped class. Hence, thorough preparation is considered as the key to flipping the classroom successfully and limit the challenges (Adnan, 2017).

V. RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

The present study attempted to explore the challenges that obstruct the successful implementation of the flipped classroom approach as perceived by the students. The main identified obstacles are difficulty in self-regulated learning, heavy learning workload, lack of immediate support and lack of ICT resources. If the aforementioned challenges are tackled, flipped classroom will soon become an effective teaching model in the Vietnamese EFL context.

In order for students to deal with such challenges, it is suggested that some measures should be taken by both teachers and students. First of all, pre-class activities, especially the instructional videos, should be kept short enough to avoid distraction, and well planned to make content readily digestible (Adnan, 2017). They should also be created in an interesting way in order to fully gain students' concentration. The design of online quizzes should be strictly stuck to the contents taught in the videos so that students are able to do them once fully watching the videos. Besides, after posting a lesson video or any learning activities on the platform for students to do at home, teachers should send emails and messages to remind them. In the classroom, there should be one or two computers available in case some students forget to view the digital lessons at home to ensure that all students acquire the new knowledge before doing the in-class activities. Next, teachers should design the out-of-class learning activities as short as possible to lessen time burden and ease the heavy workload on students. The instructional videos should be kelp short in length and other activities such as quizzes or forum discussions not too complicated. In this way, students would not be frustrated because of the extra workload (Lo & Hew, 2017). In addition, an online forum should be open on the e-learning platform for students to post any questions related to the lessons and teachers should try to reply back as soon as possible. Also, students are encouraged to online discuss the lesson contents with their peers. Last but not least, for students who do not have any computers or other devices to do pre-class activities, teachers can work with the university to offer them those resources in the library and computer rooms or even equip the classroom with some computers for their own use. In some cases, students are suggested to share with their friends. The online platform should be designed for all different kinds of computing devices to be able to access. Students are encouraged to go to the university library or public places where the Internet is available.

This study still has some limitations due to the fact that it was conducted with a small group of participants from only one university in Viet Nam. Additionally, the research was merely based on the qualitative data, which lacks the triangulation from other data resources. Given the small sample size, the generalization is limited. Nevertheless, the research findings can serve as a valuable reference for teachers when implementing this innovative approach in EFL classes. Further research using different types of data and involving a larger sample size need to be carried out to shed more lights on the issue in the future.

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Vocabulary Learning Assisted with Smart Phone Application

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Abstract—**Plenty of study has been done about the Mobile Assisted Language Learning (MALL), which still hasn't found its way into the English vocabulary learning. This empirical study aims to explore an effective way of vocabulary learning through the APP of WeChat on smart phones which are prevalently used among college students. 30 students participated in a WeChat group and were given word tests before and after the research respectively. A questionnaire survey was done a month later. The empirical result shows that it is easy for students to accept this new way of learning and most of them could follow the schedule. They have enhanced their self-regulation study ability and are encouraged to explore various methods to improve their study via smart phone Apps.**

Index Terms—**vocabulary learning, WeChat, smart phone**

I. INTRODUCTION

Smart phone is prevalently used among Chinese university students as it becomes an indispensable part in people's life. It is small in size, portable and powerful in function. It can not only communicate in real time, receive information but most importantly enables people to complete tasks in daily life and work that used to be done on computers. How to apply smart phones in people's learning efficiently is still under research by teachers and educators. As English words learning is difficult for college students, many scholars and teachers at home and abroad have done experimental studies about English words learning with mobile phones. Many of them are proved to be effective. However, with the rapid development of communication technologies, people have deepened their understanding and usage of mobile phones (smart phones) in their life. Smart phones become increasingly important in people's life and study. Thus, it is necessary to study how to enhance the application and improve its efficiency in English words learning. In the past decade, with it people could only send and receive messages or emails when used in words learning, while today, as it is equipped with a lots of Apps, people could download learning material, share webs and so on.

This paper is going to do a study of words learning with WeChat APP on smart phones and try to evaluate the efficiency of smart phones in words leanings and provide opinions for research activities and pedagogical practice in this field.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

For English words learning assisted by smart phones, this paper will review self-regulated learning (SRL), mobile learning and English words learning respectively.

A. Self-regulated Learning

According to the requirements of China's Education Ministry (2007) for college English teaching, the advanced communication technologies should be applied into teaching and learning. These new trends in teaching reforms encourage students to choose their own learning materials, finding their own way of learning, and gradually develop their self-regulated learning abilities with necessary instructions.

Self-regulated learning generally refers to "learning that is guided by metacognition, strategic action and motivation to learn". Self-regulated describes "a process of taking control of and evaluating one's own learning and behavior"(Butler, D. L. & Winne, P. H., 1995, p.245). Contrast to teacher-centered traditional learning which always takes place in classrooms, self-regulated learning is student-centered and much more free for students to set what they learn and where they learn. Paul R. Pintrich and Elisabeth V. De Groot (1990) has mentioned three components for self-regulating learning: One is metacognitive strategies for planning, monitoring, and modifying their cognition; the second is students' management and control of their effort on their tasks and the third is the actual cognitive strategies that students use to learn, remember, and understand the material. So learners should be responsible for their planning, monitoring and modifying in the process of self-study. According to Ormrod, Jeanne Ellis (2009) self-regulated learning has its characteristics as self-efficacy, self-monitoring, self-regulation and collaboration between teachers and students. Zimmerman (1989) suggested three stages of self-regulated learning process: preparing, performance control and self-reflection.

As for the application of self-regulated learning in teaching instructions, Zhou, Y. G. & Sang, Q. S. (2007) has put forward three models. The first one is personal interaction oriented teaching model which emphasizes the equal status

and opportunity among students and teachers so to improve their learning initiatives. The second is meaning construction oriented teaching model. With the assistance of teachers or friends and necessary equipment, learners participate in learning activities such as group discussion, self-study, self evaluation etc. to further or deepen their understanding or learning. The third one is self-regulated learning oriented teaching model since people hold that success learning depends on learners' ability to regulate their learning strategies and process.

Scott G. and Alison H. (2001) believe that the past decades have seen the transition from in-classroom to out-classroom. In-classroom practice involves literacy instruction, cognitive engagement, and self-assessment. And out-classroom application includes self-access center, Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL), distance learning, tandem learning, and self-instruction (Sun M, 2013). It is evident that in recent years, more efforts are spared on out-classroom activities.

We have to admit that there are many factors hinder students from improving their self-regulated learning abilities. The dominant one is that students don't have goals or motivations for learning. Improper learning materials and strategies is the second important reason. Even in students' self-regulated learning, teacher plays a role of supporting and scaffolding in it, thus teacher is important and demanding in it. However, teachers are easily to be bounded by the traditional teaching models and their performance assessment rules. (Zhao T.L., 2013)

B.   Mobile Learning

With the development of information and technologies, mobile devices have evoked innovations in educational activities. Mobile phones (smart phones) are gaining more and more importance because they have provided great advantages for people's living, learning and working. Recently, smart phones are less expensive, lighter and more powerful and they have been trying to find its way into language learning. Some schools and universities have done experimental researches with mobile phones in teaching and learning. Even though studies about the use of mobile phones in language learning are recent and limited, results show that they have positive effects on the learning process. A Cyber University in Japan, founded in 2007, has provided online mobile courses with smart phones. They are free to students. Pui Ching Middle School in Hong Kong Special Administrative Region launched teaching programs with smart phones to promote interaction among students and teachers. Shanghai TV University developed a "Mobile English Learning System", through which students get English words test on their phones everyday and answers and explanations the next day. ("The Development of CALL at Home and Abroad" 2015). The study of mobile learning has been changing with the development of technologies,

"The early research in relation to the concept of mobile leaning was closely related to devices and the potential for enabling lifelong learning. It soon became clear that rather than focusing on the device, research should be on the mobility of the learner. Mobile assisted language learning characterizes the use of personal, portable devices that enable new ways of learning, emphasizing continuity or spontaneity of access and interaction across different contexts of use." (Hu Z. N., 2012)

In *An Analytic Study of English Vocabulary Learning with Smart Phones*, the author (Lei Z. M., 2017) has classified it into four types. They are: "devices study, material study, effectiveness study, and application of software study" (pp138-139). Son Jeong-Bae (2001) has reviewed the CALL research on vocabulary learning and found two important ways of vocabulary learning via computer. One is the development of lexical CALL programs and the other is the use of on-line lexical resource.

With regard to the research of English vocabulary learning with smart phones, researchers have made a lot of attempts to prove the effectiveness of it. Zhang, H. S., Song, W. & Burston, J. (July 2011) and Glenn Stockwell (June 2010) did get positive conclusions in their experimental studies.

However, most of them have not been put into practical teaching and learning. Particularly, with the quick development of communication technologies and mobile technologies, many of them have become out-of-date even before being put into practice. What's more, there are some limitations about the researches for some reasons or others. First, though many researches about the effectiveness of words learning with mobile phones turn out to be positive, still little has been done about how fast words learning will become and how many words people can learn in a specific time. In other words, the most concerned issue about words learning is not studied yet. Second, much less studies have been done about the materials fit for words learning on smart phones. Should we just move what is on the text book to smart phones or make some new materials? Third, the technologies of smart phones change quickly and the APPs function powerfully. Traditionally people study in classroom while new APPs on smart phones can enable people to study at any place and any time. As much research of CALL has been done about text messages, photos, pictures etc.in the past, exploration of words learning with new Apps is little. As a result, more researches about how to improve students' vocabulary with smart phones needs to be furthered.

C.   Studies of Vocabulary Learning

The importance of vocabulary learning can not be overemphasized. However, vocabulary learning is difficult for many students. The reasons may include: First, most students memorize English words by the way of reading and writing repeatedly; Second, they don't have techniques to memorize new words; Third, they don't get into good habit of reviewing words regularly; Forth, much less reading of English magazines, books, newspapers, etc. (Ma C. D., 2007).

In order to promote words learning and teaching, we need to have a comprehensive understanding of words learning.

Two points should be mentioned concerning vocabulary learning. They are: Firstly, the goals of words learning, that is, how much vocabulary do learners need to know? According to the requirements of China's Education Ministry (2007) for college English teaching, the basic requirement is 4795 words and 700 phrases, a higher requirement needs 6395 words and 1200 phrases, and the highest requirement is 7675 words and 1870 words. Among these words, some are high-frequency words and some are low-frequency words. It is evident that the two should not be given equal importance in teaching and learning.

"There is a small group of high-frequency words which are very important because these words cover a very large proportion of the running words in spoken and written texts and occur in all kinds if uses of the language. The high-frequency words of the language are clearly so important that considerable time should be spent on them by teachers and learners. The time spent on them is well justified by their frequency coverage and range. There is a very large group of words that occur very infrequently and cover only a small proportion of any text. Many low-frequency words are proper names." (Nation, I.S.P., 2001)

Teachers should have different teaching strategies with high-frequency and low-frequency vocabulary. According to Nation, I.S.P.(2001), high-frequency words should get attention over a long-term English program in the form of "direct teaching, direct learning, incidental learning, and planned meetings with the words" (p16.). And for low-frequency words, "teachers should train learners in the use of strategies to deal with such vocabulary including guessing from context clues, using word parts to help remember words, using vocabulary cards and dictionaries". (p20.) Secondly, how can we say learners know a word? Nation, I.S.P.'s (2001) definition has included "its spoken form, written form, word parts, connecting form and meaning, concepts and referents, associations, grammatical functions, collocations, constraints on use and item knowledge and system knowledge" .(p23.) When learning words, college students who aim to pass CET4 (College English Test Band 4) pay more attention to the writing form than spoken form, and more to concepts and referents than associations, collocations, etc..

Given the importance of vocabulary learning, the studies of vocabulary can be categorized into two directions. One is about vocabulary learning strategies, the other is learning assisted with technologies. The English vocabulary learning among college students usually involves eight strategies. They are: 1. using dictionaries; 2. taking notes; 3. writing down words while reading aloud; 4. synonym and antonym; 5. stems and prefixes; 6. homonym and association; 7. context; 8. singing English songs(Li D. &Zhou X. L., 2007). What's more, there are still many students never using any strategies in their learning. As the technologies advance, more and more researchers turn to modern-technology equipment such as computers, mobile devices, etc. to facilitate vocabulary learning. Previously CALL-based vocabulary learning applications mainly center on multimedia packages, written texts and vocabulary programs (Glenn Stockwell, 2007, cited in Ma &Kelly, 2006). However, technology has changed people's way of living and learning greatly compared to a decade ago. As a result, it is sensible to find an innovative way combined with smart phones to overcome the difficulties in their words learning.

III. RESEARCH DESIGN

A. Research Questions

The ultimate goal of this research is to find out the acceptability of learning with smart phones, that is, how much the students like to learn words with it, and the effectiveness of learning after a short term of practice. And then a questionnaire was conducted to find out how they learn vocabulary with their smart phones and what their attitudes are towards vocabulary learning assisted by smart phones. A short questionnaire involved the following research questions was conducted:

Do they want to learn English vocabulary with smart phones or not?

Of papers and smart phones, which would they prefer to use when learning words?

How do they view vocabulary learning assisted by smart phones?

How do they learn vocabulary with smart phones?

B. Participants

A class of 30 students participated in this project. They are freshmen from non-English major. They have to take English lessons twice a week for four terms and all of them have to pass CET 4 (College English Test band 4) during the four years of their college life. It is important for them to promote their vocabulary, improve English level and pass CET 4. It is particularly important for those who want to further their study after graduation.

C. Design

This study is designed to adopt WeChat as a tool for learning and communicating the new vocabulary items. WeChat, a free software provided by China mobile, is applied in this empirical studies. The teacher set up a WeChat group and invited all the students into it and chose one student as an online anchor each time to host a discussion or questioning-and-answering program of the new words which are chosen from the CET4 vocabulary books. These words totaled 300 were all high-frequency words chosen by the teacher and presented to the students in advance. Students should prepare 20 words for every two days according to the requirements of teacher. And at a fixed time—from 20:00 o'clock to 20:30 for every two days, the teacher would randomly choose one student to host the discussion. For the

word teacher gave includes the spelling and explanation in both Chinese and English, the collocations if any, examples, etc. , students could make sentences or provide Chinese sentences for others to translate it, or seek pronunciations and explanations of those words. Students could voice or type their answers. The experiment has lasted for a month and the learners were asked to respond to a questionnaire survey. The first section of the survey covers the learners' personal information and the second section is about the smart phone use with regard to language learning. The third section addresses learners' perception of the smart phone learning experience.

IV. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

A. Learner's Willingness to Learn Vocabulary with Smart Phones

In the questionnaire section with regard to willingness to learn with smart phones, 92 percent said yes, while as for the choice between papers and smart phones, 54 percent chose smart phones and 46 chose paper. This may indicate for the one hand the potential of smart phones in the application of learning, and on the other hand learners don't know how to learn English words with smart phones, that is, there is no popular and effective words learning methods or applications with smart phones. As for learners' attitude toward vocabulary learning assisted by smart phones, learners were required to choose one from the five scales (1=strongly disagree, 2 slightly disagree, 3=neutral, 4= slightly agree, 5=strongly agree). The overall response to vocabulary learning assisted by smart phones was significantly positive. The majority of the learners favored smart phones for vocabulary learning with average scores of 3.9. This indicates that learners have strong desire to use this new mode of vocabulary learning. All these findings prove that the learners' overall attitude toward this new mode of vocabulary learning is positive. These results show they look forward to new ways of language learning as smart phones but do not know how to do. This presents challenges both to the smart phone soft ware developers who have to take into consideration how to meet the needs of learning for learners of all levels and teachers who have to design learning activities and give them guidance to learn with this new medium of smart phones.

B. Learner's Methods of Vocabulary Learning Assisted with Smart Phones

In the questionnaire with regard to the methods of vocabulary learning assisted with smart phones, among the four given choices, 65 percent chose learning with vocabulary applications on the smart phones, which indicates the major way of vocabulary learning on phones, and 30 percent chose the way that teacher may send them words through messages or Apps like QQ group or WeChat group regularly. Five percent chose others. However, in the designing of vocabulary learning assisted with smart phones, given the importance of regulating learning, combining the vocabulary learning strategies, the author chose WeChat group to assist vocabulary learning. The learner receives 20 new words from the teacher every two days via the WeChat group and downloads on their smart phones. They may read and learn them at anytime and any places as they like, for example, they can memorize the words when they are on buses or when they are in queue. Due to its portability and accessibility, smart phones create opportunities for them to make use of such fragmented time. During the discussion online in WeChat group, each learner gets them involved in it actively while the teacher should also appear each time and correct the misuses or errors they made when necessary, gave praises to those who have good performance, and even push the live broadcast on when silence appears.

Almost all the participants could participate in the vocabulary learning activity each time and most of them have memorized the given words before the discussion. From the feedback of students, they have increased their vocabulary quickly during the period of experiment and this way of learning is proved to be effective in the steady increase of the words number in 30 days. Fig. 1 has shown 10 of those words chosen from the words list whose correct rate is under 10 before test have increased their correct rate dramatically after the learning activity. However, the words they memorize still were focused on their pronunciation and spelling forms, and seldom concerning the usage. For example, they could easily speak out the meanings of the words but hard to give an explaining of them or make sentences with them, not even make differences between synonyms. It is evident that due to the limitations in traditional learning and teaching methods of vocabulary, students have difficulty in creative learning and using of English vocabulary. For the question how they view this way of learning, some students don't like the way they are forced to answer questions and some even recommend a QQ group of English learning in which they just read after a movie clip passively and don't have to interact with others. In short, this method of vocabulary learning assisted with smart phones is seemingly efficient in expanding vocabulary while not so much in its context using.
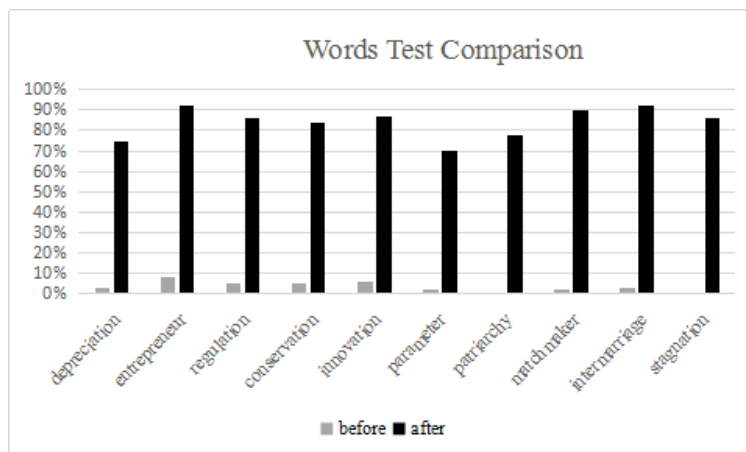
Figure 1

C. The Advantages of Vocabulary Learning via Smart Phones

Both in words preparation and online broadcast, learners have their freedom to learn and express. They are given a more relaxed context in which they can follow their own wills without burdens of embarrassment, particularly in the discussion they don't have to express themselves face to face with their classmates, eliminating worries and anxieties that often trouble them when in classroom.

Most learners found this way of words learning as a reminder for self-regulated learning. They think this program can remind them of vocabulary task when they lack the initiative to learn the new words. This program could not only inspire them to study English words autonomously but also encourage them to compete with each other since they get the self-confidence and the sense of achievement if they perform well in the live broadcast.

As non-English major students have a lot of subjects to study and the time they could spend on English learning is much less, smart phone, a portable and light device with powerful functions, was singled out among all the mobile devices to assist with the learning of vocabulary in that it can take best advantage of the learners' fragmented time. In this way, it can not only save their time but increase the learning efficiency.

The reasons why smart phones are chosen in this program are: Firstly, the popularity of smart phones among students makes it possible for learning via smart phone. In addition to communication, smart phone is also a major source of information for most people in the daily life. It becomes an indispensable part in people's life and more and more a learning device. Secondly, smart phone technology has the potential to sustain lifelong education which is taking place and will be popular in the future with the globalization of economies, cultures, etc. During the information age, people always need to renew their knowledge reservoir and obtain new things that are necessary for their life and work or that can make them keep with the the time. In that case, since school learning is not always accessible to people, self-education becomes an very important way of learning for them. Smart phone can meet the need of lifelong education for its convenience, particularly the using of fragmented time without affecting their normal life and work.

D. The Deficiencies of Vocabulary Learning via Smart Phones

Though this experiment shows the effectiveness of vocabulary learning via smart phones in increasing its quantity, a lot of problems are exposed to be solved in the future. Firstly, students have strong willingness to apply smart phones in their vocabulary learning yet they could hardly find any good ways or Apps to support their learning. The most commonly done is memorizing words with some Apps such as Shanbaywords, which provides vocabulary for all levels' English tests, Baicizhan with vivid pictures or animations illustrating meanings of words, and Happy Word Game (Kai Xin Ci Chang) on Hujiang network characterized by a game in which learners need to pass through barriers one after another to unlock more and more difficult words. All these Apps require persistence for a long time, which is usually the weak point for most students. What's more important is that the memory of these words could not last long for they are isolated from the context in which they are used. As a result, these Apps are useful when learners need to enhancing their reading ability while in writing and speaking, they could do little help. Therefore, the vocabulary App developers need consider how to improve and perfect words learning Apps so that it will fundamentally facilitate the learners to master the words.

Secondly, in this experiment the students shows unfamiliarity with this way of learning. The reason is that for them smart phone is more of a communication tool with entertainment functions than a device of learning. 46 percent of students in questionnaire choosing "on paper" instead of "on smart phone" to learn vocabulary is an indication in case of it. This dose not mean the attempt of this practice has no significance, rather teachers should give them guidance to explore functions of smart phones in learning. The problem of how teachers should do is critical. Basically the principles that teachers should follow in designing learning activities should be based on self-regulating learning, mobile learning and vocabulary learning requirements. On the other hand, students should be encouraged to develop self-regulating learning consciousness and to explore new ways of study with smart phones.

V. Conclusion

In conclusion, the research findings show that most learners do have a strong willingness in learning via smart phones due to the convenience, portability and accessibility of the smart phones. During the experiment, learners participated in the activity and expanded their vocabulary effectively. What's more, this way of learning is never an isolated activity behind the doors though it does encourage self-regulated learning. Learners have to compete with peer members in discussion, which may put pressure on them and remind them to study regularly. In addition, learners could follow the requirements of this experiment and improve their vocabulary continuously. The evidence from this study suggests the potential application of smart phones in vocabulary learning. However, due to the short time period and deficiencies of the experiment, there is still much room to be improved. Therefore, the findings of the current research provide not only for teachers, educators and software developers information they need in the potential application of the mobile technology but also additional insights into the vocabulary learning via smart phones.

In all, vocabulary learning via smart phones can facilitate English learning to some extent for it takes advantage of more fragmented time and effectively increase students' vocabulary by autonomous learning regularly. This empirical study proves the vitality of vocabulary learning via smart phones, explores the potential of smart phones for lifelong learning and provides perceptions for the research of mobile learning.

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Evolution of Language from the Perspective of Historical Cognitive Linguistics—Connotations of Chinese "Dog" and English "Dog"

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Abstract—**Language, as part of culture, is the most essential communicative tool and the main expression of human beings. Like all forms of life, it goes through the process of birth, development, decay, and continuity rather than being static. Chinese and English, occupying prominent positions in the world, exactly have different evolution which emerges in words, phonemes, grammar, syntax and so on. The study of evolution of language has become one of the hottest topics that experts and scholars attach great importance to. This thesis collects traditional and modern connotations of Chinese "dog" and English "dog" by referring to authoritative dictionaries and other relevant resources. From the aspects of formation of civilization, folk custom, myth and legend as well as value, it analyses traditional and modern connotations of Chinese "dog" and English "dog". This thesis verifies that evolution of different languages has their respective characteristics and features.**

Index Terms—**evolution, traditional, modern, dog**

I. INTRODUCTION

Language is a system of arbitrary vocal symbols used for human communications (Dai& He, 2002). Among all languages, Chinese and English have prominent positions in the world. Chinese accounts for a fifth of the world's population. English is the most widely spoken language and has the third largest number of native speakers in the world, just second to Chinese and Spanish. Besides, both Chinese and English are the official working languages of United Nations. Hence, it is of practical significance to study evolution of Chinese and English from the perspective of historical cognitive linguistics.

Both Chinese and English have undergone a long period of evolution. The history of English can be generally divided into three periods: Old English, Middle English and Modern English. Old English refers to English from 450 to 1150 years, known as the language of full inflections. The language used from 1150 to 1500 was known as Middle English. Compared with Old English, the inflection became greatly reduced and it was constantly known as the period of leveled inflections (Baugh & Cable, 2012). The language after 1500 is called Modern English. By the time, a large part of the original inflectional system has disappeared entirely. Therefore, this period is also known as the period of lost inflections (Baugh & Cable, 2012).

Evolution of Chinese is much more complicated. Based on phonological criteria which has been used by many linguistics as the foundation for the periodization (Dong, 2014), the history of Chinese can be generally divided into Old Chinese, Middle Chinese, Early Modern Chinese and Modern Chinese (Wang, 1958). The language used from 12th century BC to 3rd century AD was known as Old Chinese. In this period, vocabularies were dominated by monosyllabic words with some polysyllabic words. From 4th to 12th centuries AD, the language was known as Middle Chinese. In this period, the number of polysyllabic words increased greatly by borrowing. Early Modern Chinese was used from 13th to early 20th centuries AD. Chinese after early 20th century is called Modern Chinese.

Considering above, it is safe to say that language evolution has been extensively taking place in different linguistics levels. Meanwhile, the evolution that is constantly going on in a living language can be conspicuously seen in its vocabulary (Baugh & Cable, 2012).

The dog is the first species to be domesticated by humans. During the long process of human history, the dog has been closely associated with humans, known as "man's best friend". Dogs are given different connotations by humans with commendatory, neutral or derogatory sense. As a result, there is no doubt that Chinese "dog" and English "dog" can be representative to reveal the evolution of Chinese and English by comparing their traditional and modern connotations.

II. METHODOLOGY

A. Historical Cognitive Linguistics

The 10th international conference on cognitive linguistics in Poland Krakow in 2007 has established two branches of cognitive linguistics: cognitive social linguistics and historical cognitive linguistics. The publication of historical cognitive linguistics, edited by Winters et al (2010), marks the official publication of historical cognitive linguistics.

Historical cognitive linguistics is a branch of cognitive linguistics, combining the theoretical framework of cognitive linguistics and research methods of historical linguistics. Consequently, it focuses not only on the synchronic study but also diachronic study, opening a new research field of language evolution. Generally speaking, through categorization, metaphor, metonymy, ECM (Event-domain Cognitive Model), conceptual fusion and other cognitive linguistics theories and methods, it attaches much importance to explore the process and causes of language evolution, which marks that language research under the bridge of cognition enters the stage of panchronic study (Wang, 2012).

B.   Synchronic Study and Diachronic Study

Language evolution is a course of time (Bloomfield, 2002) and it exists in time and evolves in time. The description of a language at some point of time in history is a synchronic study; the description of a language as it evolves through time is a diachronic study (Dai& He, 2002). Generally speaking, everything that relates to the static side of science is synchronic; everything that has to do with evolution is diachronic (Saussure, 2011). Cognitive linguistics mainly analyzes linguistic phenomena from the perspective of categorization, which determines that it focuses on the current language usage and advocates synchronic study. While historical linguistics, also called diachronic linguistics, is the scientific study of language evolution over time, attaching much importance to diachronic study. Under the theory of historical cognitive linguistic, the thesis combines synchronic and diachronic study to reveal the evolution of Chinese "dog" and English "dog".

C.   Metaphor

Metaphor is a very important cognitive model and a hot spot. According to Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English, metaphor is a way of describing something by referring to it as something different and suggesting that it has similar qualities to that thing. Later, linguists George Lakoff and Mark Johnson put forward the theory of conceptual metaphor and regarded metaphor as a linguistic phenomenon. In their opinions, metaphor was defined as understanding one conceptual domain in terms of another conceptual domain. In addition, it is device of the poetic imagination and the rhetorical flourish---a matter of extraordinary language (Lakoff & Johnson, 2003). Thus, due to the dog-based metaphors, there are various connotations in both Chinese "dog" and English "dog". This thesis investigates the connotations of Chinese "dog" and English "dog" with particular attention to metaphorical uses.

III.   ANALYSIS: TRADITIONAL CONNOTATIONS OF CHINESE "DOG" AND ENGLISH "DOG"

The connotations of a language are semantic effects that arise from encyclopedic knowledge about its denotation (or reference) and also from experience, beliefs, and prejudice about the contexts in which the expression is typically used (Allan & Keith, 2007). Generally speaking, it is an imaginative or metaphorical way of describing something by referring to something else which is the same in a particular way. That means it can help people to understand or experience abstract and vague concepts from their own existing experience in concrete, tangible and visible entities.

Thus, "dog" in Chinese and English do not simply refer to a kind of animal that exist objectively, but to show experience, prejudice and beliefs about the contexts. After consulting Merriam-Webster dictionary, Cambridge Dictionary and other relevant information, traditional connotations of "dog" in Chinese and English can be illustrated as follows.

A.   Traditional Connotations of English "Dog"

1.Commendatory Items
(1) Refer to people

EXAMPLES	CONNOTATION	DATA SOURCE
Lucky dog	A lucky person	Oxford English Dictionary
Top dog	The most important person or organization in a particular situation	Cambridge Dictionary

2. Neutral Items
(1) Refer to people's state or their behavior

EXAMPLES	CONNOTATION	DATA SOURCE
Love me, love my dog	If you want to be in a relationship with me, you must be willing to accept everything about me.	Cambridge Dictionary
Dog-tired	Very tired; exhausted	Merriam-Webster Dictionary

(2) Refer to soldier

EXAMPLES	CONNOTATION	DATA SOURCE
Dog tag	A small piece of metal that US soldiers wear round their necks with their names and number on it	Merriam-Webster Dictionary
Dog tent	Shelter tent, pup tent	

(3) Refer to objective things---Competition, time or weather

EXAMPLES	CONNOTATION	DATA SOURCE
It's raining cats and dogs.	It is raining heavily.	Cambridge Dictionary
Dog days	The hottest days of the summer	Merriam-Webster Dictionary

3.Derogatory Items
(1) Refer to people's mood

EXAMPLES	CONNOTATION	DATA SOURCE
Hang-dog look	Unhappy or ashamed look	Cambridge Dictionary
A dog's life	A very unhappy and unpleasant life	

(2) Refer to objective things

EXAMPLES	CONNOTATION	DATA SOURCE
A dog of film	A film of poor quality	Oxford English Dictionary
Go to the dogs	To get into a very terrible situation	Cambridge Dictionary

B. Traditional Connotations of Chinese "Dog"

1. Commendary Items
(1) Refer to people's characters

EXAMPLES	CONNOTATION	DATA SOURCE
The heart of horse and dog	loyalty with full heart	New Age Chinese-English Dictionary
A dog never shuns its owner's house however shabby it is.	A person is sentimentally attached to another person or a place.	Chinese Proverb Dictionary

2. Neutral Items
(1) Refer to people's state or their behavior

EXAMPLES	CONNOTATION	DATA SOURCE
Drowning dog	A person who has lost favor or power	New Age Chinese-English Dictionary
Dogs eat dung	One falls flat on his face	Oxford FLTRP English-Chinese Chinese-English Dictionary

(2) Refer to objective things

EXAMPLES	CONNOTATION	DATA SOURCE
Dogs have uneven teeth	Things are zigzag. Things are arranged in crisscross pattern.	New Age Chinese-English Dictionary
The dog's teeth are uneven and are bound to each other.	Face each other across a zigzag font	

3. Derogatory Items
(1) Refer to people

EXAMPLES	CONNOTATION	DATA SOURCE
Every dog is a lion at home	A person who is incompetent	Chinese Proverb Dictionary
A wolf's heart and a dog's lung	Someone who is brutal and cold-blooded, heartless and ungrateful	Oxford FLTRP English-Chinese Chinese-English Dictionary

(2) Refer to products of inferior quality

EXAMPLES	CONNOTATION	DATA SOURCE
When the mink is not enough, take the dog's tail to replace it	Make wretched sequel to a fine work	Oxford FLTRP English-Chinese Chinese-English Dictionary
Dog shit barrier	Unreadable rubbish	

(3) Refer to extreme contempt or hatred.

EXAMPLES	CONNOTATION	DATA SOURCE
The leg of a dog	A henchman	Oxford FLTRP English-Chinese Chinese-English Dictionary
Running dog	A lackey; a servant	

C. The Comparison of Traditional Connotation of Chinese "Dog" and English "Dog"

Connotation plays an important role in the conceptualization of emotion which is vague and abstract. Thus, in order to express this abstract emotion vividly, people often use concrete objects to express emotions, especially the animal words.

As the expression vector to reflect various emotions of Chinese and westerners, traditional connotations of Chinese "dog" and English "dog" exactly differ from each other. Firstly of all, they account for different proportions of commendatory, neutral and derogatory items. Based on the scientific survey, the connotations of Chinese "dog" are mainly derogatory, while the proportion of commendatory and neutral items is relatively large in English. Meanwhile, the emphasis of traditional connotations of Chinese "dog" and English "dog" is different. Traditional connotations of Chinese "dog" are usually used to describe persons or their behaviors with derogatory sense. Connotations of English "dog" are more used to metaphor a state or situation rather than a person. Last but not least, compared with westerners, Chinese are better at expressing abundant connotations and emotions with metaphors due to profound cultural background.

While in the process of evolution of Chinese and English, owning to different formation of civilization, folk custom, myth, legend as well as value, Chinese "dog" and English "dog" have distinct connotations. Nevertheless, the dog, as the same entity, exhibits the same or similar patterns, behaviors, and characteristics. As a result, there are still some similar connotations of "dog" in Chinese and English. In addition, both connotations of Chinese "dog" and English "dog" involve commendatory, neutral and derogatory items, accounting for different proportions.

IV. DISCUSSIONS

The causes of different traditional connotations between Chinese "dog" and English "dog" are explored from 4 main aspects: formation of civilization, folk custom, myth and legend, as well as value.

A. Formation of Civilization

Formation of civilization is affected by many factors, especially geographical conditions and historical environment. Undoubtedly, China and the West, as different countries, have unique civilizations with their own national characteristics. From the perspective of origin, owning to the different modes of production and lifestyles, Chinese civilization originated from the agricultural civilization, while the western civilization came from the nomadic civilization (Chen, 2005). Consequently, under different civilizations, the dog has different status and functions which are reflected in the traditional connotations of Chinese "dog" and English "dog".

Western civilization originated from nomadic civilization, so most westerners made their living by fishing and hunting. They can easily find and catch preys under the help of the dog's sensitive sense of smell and its agile body. As a helper and friend in dull grazing and hunting life, the dog enjoys higher status and is also widely kept as a pet. As a result, in the English dog-word group, connotations of "dog" have more neutral and commendatory items than in Chinese.

In primitive times, Chinese made a living by fishing and hunting. Dogs were in high social status as labors and production tools. But after settling down, Chinese began to enter the era of agricultural civilization. With the development and dominance of agriculture civilization, dogs' function as hunting gradually diminished. Then, a large group of connotations gradually appeared with strong derogatory sense. On the other hand, Chinese agricultural civilization emphasized a sense of belonging. Therefore, some connotations of Chinese "dog" included the meaning of being sentimentally attached to a person or place.

B. Folk Custom

Some Chinese and English words which are related to "dog" derive from folk customs and have special meanings of the ethnic cultural background. China is made up of 56 nationalities. Each ethnic group has its own unique customs and habits. These customs and habits create unique cultural characteristics, with no exception to "dog culture".

In western folk customs, dogs are regarded as the best friends of human beings and the best partners for work and life. Hence, in most western countries, people do not eat dog meat. Meanwhile, westerners are keen on dog racing which leads to a series of words related to dog and enriches the connotations of "dog".

In Chinese folk customs, eating dog meat is the traditional activity of winter solstice, which is one of the biggest conflicts between Chinese and western customs about "dog". Additionally, during the feudal society, the tributes used in the sacrificial ritual were strictly graded due to the serious social hierarchy. For sacrificial ritual, dogs can only be substitutes and have lower status compared with cattle, sheep or pig. On the contrast, the custom of Ninigou ("mud dog"), originating with Fuxi (a person who created humans from mud) is held to imitate the mythical activities and memorialize remote ancestors (Yang, 2005). Dog, as one of Chinese zodiac, has its unique symbolic meaning and historical position in the profound Chinese culture, which usually represents good luck.

C. Myth and Legend

Western myths and legends mostly originate from the Bible, ancient Greek mythology and ancient Roman mythology. "Dog" in the Bible refers to the unsaved, unholy and uncured wretch. In ancient Greek and ancient Roman mythology, dog is also considered to be vicious and venomous. For instance, Cerberus, the monstrous dog that guarded the entrance

to the Underworld, ensured that those who entered never left (March, 2001). Nevertheless, dog is sometimes endowed with the image of a hero. Ares was the Greek god of war, regarded as the embodiment of martial spirit. His favorite animals: vulture and hound, show heroism in the battle and friendship with each other.

While, in Chinese ancient myths and legends, dog is often endowed with the image of power and auspiciousness. For example, Pangu is the god of earth with a dog head and a human body. Pan Hu, a divine dog in Chinese myth, is said to have been born from the ear of Di Ku's wife. In the tales, Pan Hu helped Di Ku to cut the head of his enemy and became a hero. In return, Di Ku's daughter went away with Pan Hu and became his wife (Roberts, 2004). In another tale, Feng Bo is the wind god whose appearance varied greatly among different accounts. In the text of Yuan dynasty, he was described as a man having the head of a dog, red hair, the shape of ghost, the hips of panther, and red trousers. He stood on a cloud and carried on his back a sack full of wind (Yang, 2005). From above, it can be inferred that, at the very beginning of human creation, the dog has a high status and is the object of human worship. Nevertheless, the role and status of "dog" in people's production and life gradually declined until the human society changed from the nomadic civilization to the agriculture civilization.

D. Value

People's values are formed unconsciously by the long-term subtle influence of culture, formation of civilization, folk customs, and myth. Hence, there is no doubt that westerners and Chinese have unique values.

First and foremost, western culture emphasizes individualism, which not only respects the value of human beings, but also the value of other individuals. Driven by this kind of values, westerners treat dogs as human friends with respect and kindness. Chinese focus on highly politicized kinship system, a strong institution of ancestral ritual and a vast continuum of writing tradition (Lee, 2008). As a result, it emphasizes the social value of human beings as part of the group. In addition, it attaches much importance to the group identity, in which the individual interests should make sacrifices for the collective interests. Under the influence of this collective concept, people often make perceptual judgments to protect the interests of the collective. Consequently, no one is willing to go out of their way to admire and honor dedication of the dogs.

Western education focuses on people's independent spirit. They will leave their families and live on their own when they become adults, which weakens their family affection. Thus, westerners often raise a dog to overcome personal feelings of loneliness and build relationships with dogs to compensate for the lack of family affection. Nevertheless, Chinese have been deeply influenced by Confucianism since ancient times, emphasizing family ethics and the position of everyone in society and family. Meanwhile, Chinese traditional society is tied by blood family. Consequently, Chinese stresses family values and cherish affection with family members as well as relatives. Based on the principle of the supremacy of blood relations, it is impossible for the Chinese to establish social relations with dogs or treat dogs as friends or family members equally.

Last but not least, in western culture, the idea of democracy, freedom and equality is the mainstream of social thought. Influenced by the idea of equality, dogs are regarded as independent individuals and should be entitled to rights. China is influenced by Confucian culture which has lasted for two thousand years, contributing to the social hierarchy. Under this circumstance, dogs cannot enjoy equal status with people.

V. Analysis: Modern Connotations of Chinese "Dog" and English "Dog"

From the opinion of Ferdinand de Saussure, time changes all things: language should not escape this universal law. Therefore, influenced by formation of civilization, folk customs, value, myth and other factors, language like all forms of life, goes through the process of birth, development, decay, and continuity rather than being static. Additionally, in modern society, with the rapid development of science and technology, new things are springing up all the time. Hence, connotations of "dog", as part of language and a mirror of the times, are also evolving due to various effects.

A. Modern Connotations of Chinese "Dog"

In modern time, connotations of Chinese "dog" develop to refer to the people with specific emotion of helpless self-mockery or love towards something. In particular, modern connotations of Chinese "dog" are used to describe people's certain profession, identity, specific hobby, characteristic and states with certain structures --"×dog" or "×into dog". After consulting the research of network language, modern connotations of "dog" in Chinese can be illustrated as follows.

(1) Refer to people with self-mockery

EXAMPLES	CONNOTATION	DATA SOURCE
Program dog	Those who write computer programs	The internet
Single dog	People who remain single	

(2) Refer to people's states

In this structure, the "x" in this combination is used to describe a certain situation, which has a negative connotation. After the addition of "dog", the degree is deeper and the negative color is stronger.

EXAMPLES	CONNOTATION	DATA SOURCE
Crying into a dog	Burst into a rage of tears	The internet
hot into a dog	Feeling very hot	

(3) Other items

EXAMPLES	CONNOTATION	DATA SOURCE
Sprinkle dog food	To Show off affection	The internet
Feed the dog food	To feel the love of another couple	

B. Modern Connotations of English "Dog"

The development of the internet technology has greatly facilitated modern people's work and life, and at the same time it has also affected the connotations of English "dog". As "man's best friend", English "dog" is endowed with the modern connotation of meme to express people's emotion. People use "dog" and other words to synthesize new words to refer to objects. After consulting Cambridge Dictionary and other relevant information, modern connotations of "dog" in English can be illustrated as follows.

EXAMPLES	CONNOTATION	DATA SOURCE
Brodog	(A combination of a brother and a dog) A young man who watches sports and hangs out in bars with other similarly-minded young men.	Cambridge Dictionary
Hamdog	(A combination of a hamburger and a hot dog) A kind of food	
Doga	(A combination of a dog and a yoga) Yoga for dogs	
Doge	An Internet fad or meme typified by an image of a dog of the Shiba Inu breed accompanied by very short phrases that humorously represent the dog's imagined thoughts and use the wrong modifiers or shortened word forms, as "such dignified" or "amaze."	

C. Comparison of Modern Connotations of Chinese "Dog" and English "Dog"

As is shown above, the modern connotations of Chinese "dog" develop into people with neutral and commendatory sense instead of derogatory sense, reflecting the great improvement of dog's status in China. In particular, "dog" is closely related to human life and connected with people's profession, identity, specific hobby and so on, becoming an indispensable part of human life. Meanwhile, there is a structural solidification in the words containing Chinese "dog" with the modern connotations. "Dog" in Chinese has a fixed position and strong word-formation ability, which can form "X dog" and "X into a dog" in the front with disyllabic words. Thus, a variety of words about Chinese "dog" are created, showing ever-changing and complex connotations. As for English "dog", owning to great influence of internet, English "dog" is endowed with the modern connotation of meme to express people's emotion online. Words containing modern connotations of English "dog" are built mainly by compounding to refer to people or objects. Nevertheless, compared with modern connotations of Chinese "dog", modern connotations of English "dog" mainly refer to objects and only few modern connotations emerge. As a result, the main difference between English and Chinese "dog" in modern time is how they build words to indicate their different connotations. Moreover, compared with modern connotations of English "dog", modern connotations of Chinese "dog" are more complicated and fluid, both in terms of types and quantity.

As for similarities, in modern time, both Chinese "dog" and English "dog" are closely connected with people, becoming a part of life. With the progress of society, "dog" plays an increasingly important part in people's mind and enjoys high status.

Compared with traditional connotations of Chinese "dog" and English "dog", modern connotations of Chinese "dog" and English "dog" embody era characteristics. The internet becomes an indispensable tool which not only affects people's life but also language. Consequently, it can be verified that both Chinese and English have been evolving instead of being static. On the other hand, the evolution of Chinese is more complicated and changeable than English.

VI. RESULTS AND CONCLUSION

Traditional and modern connotations of Chinese "dog" and English "dog" have been systematically investigated, with the aim to verify the evolution of Chinese and English. Meanwhile, the evolution of different languages precisely has the characteristics of their respective regions owning to different formation of civilization, folk custom, value, myth and legend. "Dog" in Chinese has gradually become a kind of affix with various connotations, especially referring to person. Connotations of English "dog" are mainly about specific situations or states. In particular, there are commendatory, neutral and derogatory items in both Chinese "dog" and English "dog" with different proportion.

In this thesis, only typical words and proverbs have been selected rather than the whole due to the limitation of author's level and resources. Additionally, there is no further analysis of the connotations of English and Chinese "dog". There are lots of words in English and Chinese that have evolved in different social and historical contexts. Evolution of language is variation over time in phonemes, grammar, syntax and other linguistic levels. Different aspects of the language evolve at different paces (Dong, 2014). Future research will consider other animal words in both Chinese and

English, with the view to verify the evolution of different language. Consequently, evolution can also be investigated from the aspect of phonemes, grammar, syntax and other grammatical levels in the future.

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Language Learning Strategies Based On Gender

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Abstract—Gender as an individual characteristic has been proved to affect the use of strategies in learning a foreign language but how gender affects the use of strategies in learning a local language where the people in the community speak a national language is not explored yet. Some studies show that female students employed language learning strategies more often than male students (Oxford & Nyikos, 1989; Awang Hashim & Syed Sahil, 1994; Green and Oxford, 1995; Dreyer & Oxford, 1999). The present study was aimed to identify how gender affects the use of strategies in learning a local language in the environment where people in the country have a national language. A Non–probability sampling was used to collect data. With the Cronbach Alphas ranging from .79 to 82, mean scores of the use of language learning strategies the male and female students reported using were compared. In the present study it was found that metacognitive strategies were the strategies mostly used by female students and cognitive strategeis were the strategies mostly used by male students. This means that male students are likely to be more dependent on memorization than female students. Cognitive strategies which are characterized at least with memorization or rote learning in the present study tend to be used by male students.

Index Terms—cognitive strategies, gender, language learning strategies, local language, metacognitive strategies, social strategies

I. INTRODUCTION

Human beings have the capacity to acquire another language. The acquisition process cannot be separated from the types of input available in their surroundings. Within the scope of SLA research, input data have most typically comprised recurrent linguistic features of speech and, in some studies, written texts, addressed to learners, as well as the function in assisting learners' comprehension, supplying feedback on their impreisions, and guiding them toward more accurate production (Pica, 1991, p. 187). The input available to learners not necessarily becomes comprehensible for them to process. It involves the so-called *input processing* (Van Patten & Sanz, 1995, pp. 170-171). In this process, input is converted into intake. From this process learners must still develop an acquired system; it means that not all intake is automatically fed into the acquired system in Krashen sense, and there are still some other processes that learners have to do before input becomes output such as the conversion of input to intake and encoding linguistically. Because it deals with individual processes, many variables are automatically involved in the process and different individuals will use different processes. Even though they receive the same input, at the end of the learning process, they may have different levels of second language quality in their output. The differences in output cannot be separated from the role of individual differences.

Second (foreign) language learners can differ in many ways. Skehan (1989, p. 4) states some of the individual differences of learners include age, intelligence, aptitude, motivation, attitude, personality, and cognitive styles while in the process of learning the learners may differ in *strategies*. A study by Ehrman (1996) indicates that individual differences correlated with language learning. In her study individual differences in motivation proves to be significantly correlated with language learning. Individual variables, such as bilinguals/multilingualism (Nayak et al., 1990 & Klein, 1995), attitude, gender (Oxford & Nyikos, 1989; Green & Oxford, 1995), ethnicity (Politzer & McGroarty, 1985; Grainger, 1997; LoCastro, 1994), proficiency level (O'Malley, 1985; Green & Oxford, 1995) and motivation (Setiyadi, Sukirlan & Mahpul, 2016) have been investigated in relation to language learning strategies.

Related to gender, the result of the study by Green and Oxford (1995) shows that female students used 14 strategies more frequently than did male students. The the study has uncovered important information on gender-related language strategies. The present study continued to explore different strategies used by female and male students and relate the strategies in learning a local language in the context where a country has a national language.

Some studies show that female students employed language learning strategies more often than male students (Awang Hashim & Syed Sahil, 1994: Dreyer & Oxford, 1999; Green & Oxford, 1995; Oxford & Nyikos, 1989). Oxford and Nyikos (1989) also describe that gender differences in using conversational input elicitation strategies or reflecting strategies. In their study, conducted in Puerto Rico, Green and Oxford (1995) show that women performed more

frequently than did men the six categories of SILL: memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, affective and social strategies. Another study on the different uses of language learning based on gender was conducted by Graham and Rees (1995). Their study, which involved children, showed that in learning a language, female and male students prefer different learning strategies but their study did not investigate different amount of strategy use between the two groups of students. Their study also suggests that anxiety related to peer-group judgement is more common among female students, although they acknowledge that their finding contradicts the findings of other studies that suggest boys are reluctant to speak out in the public arena.

Many studies have been conducted to relate second /foreign language learning with individual characteristics (Jacobsen & Imhoof, 1974; Bialystok & Frohlich, 1978; Wen & Johnson, 1997), but only a few associated individual variables with language learning strategies. Awang Hashim and Syed Sahil (1994) also report that gender affects the uses of language learning strategies. The result of their study, which used Oxford's SILL as a strategy measure, showed that female students used affective strategies more often. Their study was inspired by that Oxford and Nyikos (1989). They also suggest the same reason why female students employed language learning strategies more frequently than male students in the Malaysian context. However, the trend towards female students' greater use of metacognitive and deep level strategies and less use of surface level strategies in this study would need a different explanation.

Gender as an individual characteristic has been proved to affect the use of strategies in learning a foreign language but how gender affects the use of strategies in learning a local language where the people in the community speak an national language is not explored yet. The present study is aimed to identify how gender affects the use of strategies in learning a local language in the environment where people in the country have a national language.

II. METHODOLOGY

A Non–probability sampling was used to collect data. The population of the present study were learners who have been learning a local language at school and the subjects came from different school. In Indonesia the students generally speak Indonesian language as the national language. The students were briefed before the data were collected and confidentiality was confirmed. They could use as much time to complete the questionnaire. The reason of choosing the subjects was that they spoke the national language at home and learned a local language at school.

The data in the present study were collected through a questionnaire, which has been modified from Setiyadi (2001; 2004). This questionnaire, which is called Language Learning Strategy Questionnaire (LLSQ), consists of 80 items. In the questionnaire of the language strategy use, language learners were provided with statements with five possible answers which were arranged in an ordinal variable. The scores of the choices are 1 for *never* on and 5 for *always* (see Appendix). The questionnaire was given in in the mother tounge of the learners. The LLSQ includes 4 categories of learning strategies: speaking strategies, listening strategies, reading strategies and writing strategies and each category consists of 20 items. In total the LLSQ has 80 items and each category has learning strategies that are grouped under cognitive, metacognitive and social strategies.

III. RESULT AND DISCUSSION

Cronbach Alpha coefficient for each scale was computed. As shown on Table 1, the scales of the scales were internally consistent; the Cronbach Alphas show satisfactory to good reliability, ranging from .79 to 82. Table 2 provides evidence that the items of the questionnaire had high correlation with their constructs so that the items developed in the present study was considered valid. In general, the items had high correlation with the constructs of each category so that the items of the questionnaire was considered valid, as shown on Table 2. Therefore, all of the criteria of the constructs were met in the present study.

TABLE 1:
RELIABILITY OF THE MEASURES

Scales	Items	Cronbach's alpha
Listening Strategies	20 items	.79
Speaking Strategies	20 items	.80
Reading Strategies	20 items	.82
Writing Strategies	20 items	.70

TABLE 2:
VALIDITY OF EACH ITEM WITH THE CONSTRUSTS

Constructs	Item number and the validity
Listening Strategies	1)0,739, 2)0,728, 3)0,720, 4)0,741, 5)0,789, 6)0,773, 7)0,719, 8)0,734, 9)0,738, 10)0,711, 11) 0,741, 12)0,764, 13)0,736, 14)0,815, 15)0,717, 16)0,751, 17)0,725, 18)0,719, 19) 0,743, 20)0,706
Speaking Strategies	1)0,639, 2)0,721, 3)0,770, 4)0,641, 5)0,719, 6)0,721, 7)0,732, 8)0,744, 9)0,722, 10)0,721, 11) 0,733, 12)0,732, 13)0,743, 14)0,811, 15)0,722, 16)0,741, 17)0,735, 18)0,729, 19) 0,721, 20)0,716
Reading Strategies	1)0,739, 2)0,733, 3)0,670, 4)0,711, 5)0,722, 6)0,735, 7)0,755, 8)0,741, 9)0,754, 10)0,763, 11) 0,737, 12)0,744, 13)0,757, 14)0,711, 15)0,732, 16)0,723, 17)0,744, 18)0,781, 19) 0,735, 20)0,718
Writing Strategies	1)0,745, 2)0,744, 3)0,723, 4)0,741, 5)0,722, 6)0,741, 7)0,737, 8)0,731, 9)0,782, 10)0,777, 11) 0,751, 12)0,732, 13)0,754, 14)0,751, 15)0,777, 16)0,761, 17)0,735, 18)0,726, 19) 0,722, 20)0,711

TABLE 3:
MEAN SCORES OF LEARNING STRATEGIES BY GENDER

	Metacognitive strategies	Cognitive strategies	Social strategies
Female	3.63	3.11	3.18
SD	.63	.46	.48
Male	3.31	3.52	3.05
SD	.66	.51	.61

Note: SD = standard deviation

For the purpose of comparison between the strategies used by female and male learners, mean scores of the use of language learning strategies the students reported using were compared. Table 3 provides empirical support for no significant differences between female and male students' use of language learning strategies. In general there was a trend that female students employed language learning strategies more often than did male students. The mean score of metacognitive strategeis by female students was higher than the mean score of the same strategies by male students. Male sudents used cognitive strategies more often than female students and the mean score of cognitive strategies of male students was the only mean score which was higher than female students.

IV. DISCUSSION

In the present study it was found that metacognitive strategies were the strategies mostly used by female students and cognitive strategeis were the strategies mostly used by male students. The use of social straegeis of two groups was relatively equal. Even though female students and male students used the three groups of strategies in different frequencies, the two groups did not show that the differences in using the strategies were not significant. That there was no significant difference between male and female students in using strategies in the present study is in line with the findings in a study conducted by El-Dib (2014), which was conducted in Kuwait. The findings of El-Dib's (2014) study reveal that female students use more cognitive strategies more than male students do even though his study was also not in line with his previous study (1999), which provides contradictory evidence that there was no significant difference in using learning strategies between male and female students. He also suggests that the use of learning strategies between male and feemale students was cultural context.

This finding of the present study supports to some extent those of previous studies (Oxford & Nyikos, 1989; Green & Oxford, 1995) that female students employed language learning strategies more often than male students (see also Dreyer & Oxford, 1999. However, the findings of the present study was not in line with a study by Park (2011). The study which was conducted in Korea showed that male students more learning strategies than female students, espesially in using memory strategies of SILL (Park (2011).

The extended model of student learning developed in a study by Meyer, Dunne and Richardson (1994) may be used to contextualize the differences between male and female students in using language learning strategies. They suggest that competitiveness, versatility and a dependence upon memorization are of less importance in characterizing individual differences among female students than they are in characterizing individual differences among male students. This means that male students are likely to be more dependent on memorization than female students. Cognitive strategies which are characterized at least with memorization or rote learning in the present study tend to be used by male students. However, the greater likelihood of female students to use metacognitive may be hard to explain although a notion suggested by Graham and Rees (1995, p.18) may be relevant. Their study indicated that female students feared a negative evaluation of their classmates, and performance in oral work was bound up with how one might be viewed by others as a person, rather than just from the point of view of language proficiency. Their fear to be evaluated by others seems to produce self-monitoring, self-evaluation and self-correction. These strategies are classified under metacognitive strateies in the present study.

V. CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTION

Gender as an individual characteristic may affect the use of strategies in learning a local language. In the present study male students rely more on cognitive strategies while female students use metacognitive strategeis more in learning a local language. It is suggested that language teacher may provide their students with learning opportunities so that female and male students may use language learning strategies differently which are appropriate with their gender characterics. Hopefully, by providing students with a variety of learning oppotunities, the Lampungese students can produce greater frequency of learning strategy use which contributes to the success of learning a local language.

APPENDIX. LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGY QUESTIONNAIRE

Directions
You will find some statements about learning Lampungese. On the separate worksheet, write the response (1, 2, 3, 4, or 5) that tells HOW TRUE OF YOU THE STATEMENT IS.
1. Never or almost never true of me
2. Usually not true of me

3. Somewhat true of me

4. Usually true of me

5. Always or almost always true of me

In Listening

1. I try to guess what somebody is saying by using grammatical rules.

2. I learn Lampungese by watching Lampungese TV programs.

3. I learn Lampungese by listening to Lampungese songs or other listening scripts.

4. I try to understand what somebody is saying by translating into Indonesian.

5. I draw an image or picture of the word in order to remember the word.

6. I connect the pronunciation of the word with the Indonesian word which has a similar sound.

7. I concentrate on the grammar rather than on the communication.

8. I try to understand the idea by referring to previous experiences I have had.

9. I try to guess by using a word (s) that is familiar to me.

10. In Listening, I take notes to remember ideas.

11. I try to understand every individual word to understand the passage.

12. I listen to what I say to practice my listening skill.

13. Before practicing my listening skill, I prepare a topic, pronunciation or grammatical rules which give me the greatest trouble.

14. I try to remember a sentence(s) spoken face-to-face or on cassettes and analyze them by myself.

15. After a listening practice, I check and recheck my understanding.

16. I correct the mistakes that I produce orally.

17. I try to be aware of which sounds give the greatest trouble. In this way I can pay special attention to them while I listen and practice.

18. If I cannot understand what somebody is saying, I ask him/her to slow down or say it again.

19. Listening to what somebody is saying improves my listening skill.

20. In a group discussion, my listening skill is improved.

In Speaking

1. I use rhymes to remember new Lampungese words.

2. I try to remember new Lampungese words by pronouncing them.

3. I speak a word or a sentence several times to remember it.

4. I try to learn a new pattern by making a sentence orally.

5. I try to translate Indonesian sentences into Lampungese sentences and produce them orally.

6. I try to remember what the Lampungese word equivalent to Indonesian word is.

7. I tape record the sentences I produce.

8. I mix Indonesian words and Lampungese words if I do not know the Lampungese words.

9. I put words into rules that I know in speaking.

10. Before I respond orally to questions, I write out the answers.

11. I try to correct my mistakes that I produce orally.

12. I try to speak with myself to improve my speaking.

13. I try to evaluate my utterances after speaking.

14. I notice my Lampungese mistakes, and use that information to help me do better.

15. I prepare a topic or grammatical rules in speaking practice.

16. I ask somebody to correct me when I talk.

17. I practice speaking with my friends or my teachers.

18. I practice Lampungese with native speakers.

19. I ask questions in Lampungese.

20. If I cannot think during a conversation in Lampungese, I use gestures.

In Reading

1. To understand unfamiliar Lampungese words while I am reading, I guess from available clues.

2. I learn Lampungese by reading Lampungese books or magazines.

3. I connect the spellings of Lampungese words with similar Indonesian words to understand the meanings.

4. I try to understand sentences by analysing their patterns.

5. I try to translate word for word.

6. I try to understand the passage by using my general knowledge and experience.

7. I use the key words to understand the whole ideas.

8. I read the passage aloud.

9. I take notes to remember the ideas.

10. While I read a text, I try to anticipate the story line.

11. I read a text more for ideas than words.

12. I correct my mistakes by rereading the text.

13. I choose a topic or certain materials for my practice.

14. I check and recheck my understanding after reading a passage.

15. If I cannot understand a reading passage, I try to analyse what difficulty I actually have.

16. In reading, I pick out key words and repeat them to myself.

17. I try to be aware of which words or grammar rules give me the greatest trouble. In this way I can pay special attention to them while I read and practice.

18. I discuss reading passages with my friends.

19. If I do not understand the content of a reading passage, I ask my friends or my teachers for help.

20. I improve my reading skill by reading letters from my friends.

In Writing

1. If I do not know how to express my ideas in Lampungese while writing, I keep writing using certain rules that I know.

2. I write what I am thinking about.

3. I keep a diary.

4. I try to remember the meanings of words or the patterns by writing them.

5. I write sentences to apply certain rules.

6. I try to translate word for word.

7. I mix Indonesian words and Lampungese words in writing.

8. I write the main ideas first as a guideline.

9. I use Indonesian words if I do not know the Lampungese words.

10. I use Indonesian patterns to keep writing in Lampungese.

11. I consult a dictionary to find out the meanings of words.

12. I write out new material over and over.

13. I try to memorize the meanings of words.

14. I rewrite my composition by correcting the mistakes that I notice.

15. I choose a topic to improve my writing skill.

16. I read my writing and correct the mistakes.

17. I try to be aware of which words or grammar rules give the greatest trouble, this way I can pay special attention to them while I write and practice.

18. I write a message to my friends in Lampungese for practice.

19. I write letters in Lampungese to my friends.

20. I ask my friends or my teachers to correct my writing.

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On the Reflection of Naturalism in the Main Character in *The Call of the Wild*

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Abstract—**Jack London is one of the most outstanding and celebrated critical realists in American literature in the 20th century, he is well recognized in his artistic creation of literary works with the feature of naturalism. *The Call of the Wild* is one of his naturalistic works filled with adventure and fighting spirit. The main character of the novel is a dog named Buck. By concentrating on Buck's gradual reversion from a civilized pet to a primordial beast, Jack London demonstrates the power of heredity and environment in determining and shaping one's mind and behaviors. Naturalists believe that mankind is the product of environment, the power of heredity and force of environment are greater than the will of human beings. It is not the strongest of the species that can survive, but the one most responsive to changes. Humans have to adapt themselves to the environment for survival. In *The Call of the Wild*, the principle of literary naturalism is mainly reflected in the effects of the hereditary and environmental factors on the fate of the main character, Buck.**

Index Terms—**naturalism, adaption, survive**

I. INTRODUCTION

The Call of the Wild is one of the representative works of the America literary naturalist Jack London. Under the influence of the literary tendency from France, Jack London makes use of naturalistic writing techniques to interpret the reality of American society through the call of wild to Buck and convinces us that man has been predetermined in birth and thus has little free control over his own fate under certain circumstance, it reveals the social truth of the United States at the end of the19[th] century.

Buck, the hero of *The Call of the Wild*, is a dog. His fights and struggles against both the exterior severe natural environment and the interior instinct make up the main frame of the story. In the retrogression in life from the enlightened world to the wild one, Buck has been treated in much cruel and brutal way and has to adjust his beliefs and living ways to adapt himself to the changed and worse living condition for survival, no matter how hard and challenging the experiences are. Finally, he survives the challenge through both his intelligence and strength.

But Buck is more than a dog. He is the embodiment of the strong man in the American industrialization era. Buck struggles in the bottom class and fights against odds for basic rights to survival. He is in an extremely difficult environment full of challenges, and has to constantly overcome them. Buck becomes stronger and stronger by constantly changing himself, he finally adapts himself to the surroundings and survives. Eventually, Buck becomes the leader of the wolves.

Through Buck's life experience, we can clearly understand the hard life of the people at the bottom in the United States in the late 19th century. The metamorphosis of Buck shows us a truth that only those who are endowed with strength and aggression can defeat their opponents and gain the right to survival and wealth. The process of growing up of Buck has reflected the cruel reality of capitalism and an objective rule----survival of the fittest.

A. The Introduction of Jack London

Jack London was born in San Francisco in 1876. He grew up in extreme poverty, experiencing profoundly the struggle for survival that most other writers and intellectuals knew only from observation or books (Xiaofen Zhang 2010). Due to the hardship in life, for the people he met, and the books he read, he believed in the inevitable triumph of the strongest individuals. His fighting spirit, a deeply felt commitment to the fundamental reality of the law of survival and the will to power, is dramatized in his most popular novels, such as *The Call of the Wild(1903) and The Sea Wolf(1904)*.

Jack London is a resolute and stubborn man. He prefers an adventurous life to a settled one. He regards adventure as a pleasure and sees risk as a joy. Most works of Jack London are masculine, doughty, aggressive and energetic. He likes to record his own personal experiences in his works. His works are not only welcomed by ordinary readers, but also appreciated by scholars. Some people believe that Jack London's works are full of vitality and optimism, others think that it is the combination of civilization, spirit and courage. Jack London's works are praised as highly original, he has a great fame and lofty status in modern American literature and also world literature.

B. The Introduction of The Call of the Wild

The Call of the Wild is written by Jack London and published in 1903. Today, it is taken as a short adventure story set in Yukon, Canada. It mainly concerns the terrible life experience of the central character, a dog named Buck, and it

works as a mirror to reflect the scene of the historic events—the 1890s Klondike Gold Rush. At that time, a large number of people are so mad with gold that they rush to Canada with food, equipment and other necessities drawn by carriages and sled dogs. Much demanded as dogs are, Buck is stolen from his master and his respectable home in the south, and sold into service as a sled dog in Alaska. This way, He starts to live in a different place, a much harsher environment, far away from civilization, where he is forced to fight to survive.

In the novel, Buck is an anthropomorphic dog, not an ordinary dog in its common sense, but a dog with life, courage, power and pride. In the depiction of Buck, Jack London attributes human quality (thoughts and insights) to Buck, he has much love for life, pride in his power and pursuit for his own identity that he earns respect and admiration from readers.

In the characterization of Buck, Jack London follows the theory of literary naturalism proposed by European writers such as Émile Zola, and explores the themes--the role heredity and environment play in the development of one's character.

London lived in Yukon for a year and collected much material for the book through close observation. After the story was published in the summer of 1903 the book brought great popularity and success to London.

C.   The Introduction of Social Condition

In the late 19th century, the United States was in the period when pursuit of money was extremely fierce after the Civil War. The whole country was overrun under the law of jungle. Everyone competed with each other in a cruel competition for survival, status, honor and wealth. In the fall of 1897, people found gold when they groped in the Arctic darkness, and thousands of people rushed into the Northland. This new find intensified the social unrest in the United States. The author placed Buck in an extremely difficult environment when he was creating Buck. Buck had to withstand the test of nature, starvation and cold, even he had to defeat enemies to survive in the primordial forest. Buck's position was exactly the same as that of some Americans at that time. Moreover, before Jack London created *The Call of the Wild*, he had experienced as a gold digger. In July 1897, Jack London left San Francisco and came to Dawson. He had a deep impression of the natural landscape of Dawson and conceived the basic plot of *The Call of the Wild* during his life in Dawson.

II.   THE DEFINITION AND DEVELOPMENT OF NATURALISM

According to Webster's New World Dictionary, Naturalism in literature and art refers to the principles and methods held by a group of the 19th century writers, including Emile Zola, Gustave Flaubert, Guy de Maupassant who kept faithful adherence to nature and believed that the writer or artist should apply scientific objectivity and precision in his observation and treatment of life without idealizing, imposing value judgments, or avoiding what may be regarded as repulsive. It   was first proposed and formulated by a French novelist Emile Zola, and it was introduced to America by an American novelist Frank Norris (Zhang Xiaofen, 2010). It was spread to America from the late 19th century to the early 20th century. Then a generation of writers arose whose ideas of the workings of the universe and whose perception of social disorders led them to take naturalism, a new and harder realism (Wu Weiren, 1990). American literary naturalists attempted to achieve extreme objectivity and frankness, presenting characters of low social and economic classes who were dominated by their environment and heredity (wu Weiren, 1990). The power of heredity and environment are greater than the will of human beings. Mankind is the product of the environment, there is no way to resist but to adapt to the environment. *The Call of the Wild* is a typical naturalistic work and objectively reflects the Americans' life through Buck's life. We can't find obvious critical views of the author between the lines, but the novel sends a voice of the author's dissatisfaction with the society. The naturalism in *The Call of the Wild* mainly reflects the dual effects of genetic and environmental factors on the fate of Buck.

III.   LITERARY NATURALISM IS REFLECTED IN *THE CALL OF THE WILD*

Naturalism is often considered to be part of realism, but American naturalists tend to illustrate law of nature in a scientific and objective way. Naturalists are likely to focus on the dark side of human society, take people in low class for an object of study and explore the root causes for their misery ad hardship. In research for the solution to social problems, naturalists emphasize that gene and environment have a far-reaching impact on the fate of animals and humans(Zhang Xiaofen, 2010). In this essay, focus is mainly put on the role that heredity plays in the life of the main character and the effect of environment that is produced on the character.

A.   The Role That Heredity Plays in the Life of the Main Character

As one of the elements of naturalism, heredity plays an important role in Buck's life. Heredity determines the dog's physical build and strength. Buck's good bloodline gives him a superior intelligence quotient and strong body, superior adaptability and fighting skills. In this novel, hereditary factors are mainly reflected in the following aspects.

1. Buck's strong build

The outstanding intelligence quotient and the strong body of Buck are connected with his excellent blood relationship, which shows the power of heredity. The excellent blood relationship makes him an excellent dog. He is tall, big, strong, sturdy, intelligent and quick-witted. He is a dog of one hundred and forty pounds in weight. This comes from his farther, a huge St. Bernard, and his mother, a Scotch shepherd dog. St. Bernard is a kind of rescue dog in the Swiss Snow

Mountains, while Scotch shepherd is a kind of dog that has to fight with the wolves. Both of them are sturdy, tough, tolerant and huge. The superiorities of Buck's body are inherited from his parents. As an honorable dog, Buck's huge body plays an important part in his surviving and becoming a leader in the harsh north. Buck's body is a main thread that runs through the whole text.

In the fall of 1897, thousands of dragged men were stroke to Klondike from all over the world for a new find—a yellow metal. People wanted to grope in the harsh north where they needed strong dogs with pretty muscles to work and furry coats to protect them from the frost. Unfortunately, Buck is a kind of dog they needed. For this reason, Buck was abducted from the south to the north, from civilization to the primordial. Also, that is why Perrault (Buck's first master) chose Buck and took him to the north.

Buck lived in a savage environment after he was abducted to the north. He had to fight with other dogs inevitably if he wanted to survive. Without his strong body, Buck could not win the fights or could even lose his basic right to survive. When Buck toiled in the north, he had to try to get food for himself through working hard. There were dogs dying of a heavy job, but Buck was different from those weak ones. He is strong enough to fight against the hard environment. Buck was increasingly good at this and did very well in his work and in his later leadership.

2. Buck's adaptability

It is not easy for Buck to adapt itself to the harsh north suddenly. What Buck has to get used to is not only the cold in the north, but also the life that fills with savagery, brutality and violence. Life is in peril every moment. What enables Buck to survive is his good genes and great adaptability.   Both of his parents are sturdy and live in the snow. Buck is brilliant and strong, and knows that in order to adapt to the cold north, he has to make some changes, both mentally and physically.

For Buck, this is a cruel world. He has to toil under the sled every day in order to get food. The ration for dogs team was gave out by their master. Buck was so ravenous that a pound and a half of ration seemed too limited to satisfy Buck's need. Moreover, other dogs might rob him of his ration sometimes. Therefore, Buck has to give up the fastidiousness and daintiness in which he used to keep. Buck belonged to the snow although he was born in the sunshine; his nature and instinct are still in his blood.

Another adaptability in Buck is reflected in the degradation of his morals. Buck steals a piece of bacon from Perrault, which means he can adjust himself to the change of the environment. Buck knows that the civilization and love he followed before are not applicable here, and he has to make some changes to adapt to the new situation. Buck does that cunningly, so cunningly that he escapes suspicion from Perrault and others. Buck's cunning is inherent from his ancestors.

Toiling in the trace day in and day out, Buck's muscles become hard as iron and he feels nothing for ordinary pain. His soft and tender feet become hard and massive and he could trek in the snow for a long time. Buck is not a king in Judge Miller's place anymore, that is to say, he has to work here and throws his old habits away to adjust the new life.

3. Buck's fighting skills

Under the threat of loss of life, Buck has to keep constantly alert. Buck was born with fight in his blood which was inherited from his ancestors. After abducted to the ruthless north, the instinct that slept in Buck's body is awakened inch by inch. His memory goes back to the youth of the breed in a vague way. He remembers the way that the wild dogs range in packs and hunt in the primeval forest, he remembers the way that they fight and hunt by cut and slash. It is unnecessary for Buck to learn to fight, this is a gift given by his ancestors in his blood. The instinct of Buck is alive again, that is to say, his domesticated generations disappear after Buck's animal nature is awakened.

Spitz is the first enemy of Buck when Buck just comes to the north. Buck does not like Spitz at all. He keeps silent first, then he takes off Spitz's coat cunningly, finally he kills Spitz. When they confront each other, Buck feels he has seen this scene before. Buck's fighting skills come from his ancestors, his intelligence comes from his mother. In this fight, Buck wins Spitz by using his skills and intelligence.

Buck goes deep into the forest to seek the call from the forest. He runs, hides, jumps and kills in the primeval forest as his ancestors do. Buck meets the most formidable opponent-- a huge moose of six feet high and seven feet wide leading a team deer with a score of moose. Guided by that instinct which comes from the old hunting days of the primordial world, Buck separates the bull from the deer and kills him.

Buck finally returns to the primeval forest after his last master died. When Buck runs in the forest he meets a pack of wolves. Buck confronts with the wolves alone and in peace, bravery and power, Buck fights like a beast and defeats the wolves. Finally, Buck stays with the wolves and becomes the leader of the wolves.

4. Buck's loyalty

Buck's loyalty is also a sign of gene determinism. Buck is saved by Thornton, his last master when he is at death's door. During the time he stays with Thornton, the loyalty in the depth of Buck's heart is awakened. Thornton takes care of Buck as his own child, and Buck feels deeply grateful to Thornton as a son to his father. Buck is well known for pulling a sled which is filled with one thousand pound of flour and which should be pulled by a team of ten dogs. Buck earns sixteen hundred dollars for Thornton so Thornton could pay off his debts. Buck builds quite a good relationship with his master though he is drawn away from civilization. Unfortunately, Thornton is killed by some Yeehats. In revenge for Thornton, Buck attacks them like a Fiend incarnate. Each summer days, Buck crosses the timber land and comes down into an open space among the trees where Thornton was killed. Buck muses for a while, howling long and

mournfully, and then he departs. He keeps Thornton in his memory as a friend and shows deep gratitude to his master.

B.   The Effect of Environment on the Character

As one of the most important factors of naturalism, the effect of environment on Buck can be seen in the whole works. The change of environment turns Buck into a leader in the wild from a pet of civilized society. Buck has life experiences in three different environments: living in the south before abducted, living in the north after abducted, returning to the primeval forest after Thornton died. Buck's destiny changes with the change of environment, which proves the theory of Charles Darwin-- It is not the strongest of the species that survive, but the one most responsive to change.

The process of adapting to the social environment also reflects the environment determinism. Buck is inferior in front of the humans armed with clubs, he chooses to compromise and accepts the fate, but at the appropriate time he will fight back. This is the influence of social environment on the psychology of Buck.

1. A King of the House in the civilized society

There is a big house named Judge Miller's place, seated in the sun-kissed Santa Clara Valley. Buck was born and grew up like a noble right here. Obviously, at the beginning of the novel, Buck belongs to the civilized society where he is a polite dog with "human nature". Judge Miller's place is a symbol of a civilized society where Buck is taken as a king and spends all day on swimming, hunting, playing and taking adventures with the Millers, where Buck utterly ignores others for he is the king over all of the animals. In the winter, he lays down before the roaring library fire. In the summer, he plunges into the swimming tank to play. Such a good living enables him to carry himself dignity and a royal fashion.

In the general civilized south, Buck grows up into a gentleman, elegant, kind and friendly, until the gardener's helper gets a chance to abduct him, thus all is different.

2. A primordial beast in the wildness

After abducted to the cold north, Buck has suffered great changes to adapt to the living environment where he masters many skills for survival. At the beginning, he even does not know how to sleep in the world of ice and snow, but he learns to lie under the snow and curls into a warm ball quickly. The manner of eating is no longer gentlemanlike as before and he even robs and steals from others. The cruel living environment changes Buck so much.

In the wilderness, the only principle is "the law of club and tooth" (Jack London,1903). When Buck realizes that he is in such a "to kill or to be killed" wilderness, savagery and brutality no longer leaves any room for the code of polite behavior and morality, therefore, he must adjust himself to adapt to the cruel life. He is used to living in the south where it is full of sunshine, warmth, friendship and love. Opposite to the south, there is no peace but endless work, savages, dangers and fights. Buck is no longer the king at all, but a labour. He has to toil for food and struggles for survival. He changes his habits and the rule of behaviors. He replaces dignity with indecency, innocence with cunning, civilization with wildness and elegance with rudeness.

Under the force of the environment, Buck retrogresses soon and he gets rid of the southern civilization on him. The dominant primordial beast in him becomes increasingly stronger and the hidden wildness is awakened gradually, the instincts of their ancestors returns unwittingly.

3. A Head in the primeval forest

During the period of toil in the north, Buck's wild nature is awaking gradually and he is always attracted by a call in a familiar way from the forest (Jack London,1903). He can't help following the call and goes deeply into the primeval forest. In the end, Buck becomes a completely cunning primitive animal in the forest. The challenge there is more dangerous than that in the north and the rivals are stronger and more formidable than those sled dogs.

Buck has a lesson that only the fiercest and wildest dog can control his own destiny. After Buck returns to the primeval forest, he meets a score of moose and a pack of wolves. Buck fights like a jungle king, as if he was born to fight and then takes an upper hand in the battles against his rivals. Finally, Buck lives with the wolves and becomes the leader of the wolves.

To take leadership finally over the other dogs partly comes from his natural endowment-strong physical build, partly from his firm determination, his courage, his pride--not to be defeated and conquered. In this aspect, Jack London attributes Buck with human unyielding spirit, especially, the west spirit in America.

IV.   Conclusion

The image of Buck in *The Call of the Wild* is a true reflection of literary naturalism. It is an illustration of the dominating effect of hereditary and environmental factors on the fate of animals and humans. Buck's quick response to the call of the wild and new environment is much determined by the genes passed down from his ancestors. Buck's final regression from a civilized pet to a head over the wild dogs is a proof to the role of environment in molding one's character.

The image of Buck in *The Call of the Wild* is also an embodiment of the recognized law of jungle advanced by Darwin: "the survival of the fittest".—humans or animals have to compete against any odds or any rivals in harsh living condition in order to survive. Such a law echoes the "to kill or to be killed" rule in the far and savage animal world though it rebels against the generally accepted high morality in modern human world. To Buck, to survive is to fight in

a bloody battle where there is no rule, no mercy, no negotiation but fight and survival.

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Interpretation of Possible Worlds of *The Buddha of Suburb* and Its Multi-themes[*]

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Abstract—The article attempts to use cognitive poetics' possible worlds theory to explore how the novel The Buddha of Suburbia narrates stories with its unique skills and how readers participate in the reading process and form possible worlds about the novel so as to understand such multiple themes as identity, racial discrimination and features of the times in it.

Index Terms—cognitive poetics, possible worlds theory, The Buddha of Suburbia, multi-themes

I. INTRODUCTION

Possible worlds theory is a very important category in cognitive poetics, this theory in literary works, the internal structure, character, plot and theme has certain advantages, this article will attempt to use possible worlds theory to analyze the novel *The Buddha of Suburbia*'s unique narrative techniques, discusses how the readers participate in text reading and form the possible worlds, and then analyze how multiple themes like identity, racial discrimination and features are reflected in the novel.

II. A BRIEF INTRODUCTION TO THE BUDDHA OF SUBURBIA

The Buddha of Suburbia is written by Pakistani immigrant descendant Hanif Kureishi who was born in 1954 in Kent county, the UK, and he majored in philosophy at university, he was usher in the royal theatre, later he became the theatre's resident writer, to a certain extent, he is one of great Asian writers having a significant achievement effect on the literary in the world after Salman Rushdie. In 1990, *The Buddha of Suburbia* won Whitebread prize for literature. The novel tells the story of leading character Karim in the form of a semi-autobiographical way. Karim was born in London, but his father was migrated from Pakistani descent, is not the same as her mother, she is from England. The writer Hanif Kureishi focuses on the growth of description of the leading characters Karim and his father Haroon in the novel to reflect their unique identity, at the same time, the work also depicts the growth of the protagonist, father's lover Eva's influence on the process of Karim's pursuing and achieving his plans and dreams, Eva's son Charlie, and important director like Parker and other important characters, and it also describes Karim's relationship with father, uncle and aunt, the close relatives who are immigrants and their descendants are also from Pakistan, but now they are living in London, the UK facing survival, life experience and the opportunity, which reflects the identity crisis that has happened to them in the post-colonial Era in the UK, racial discrimination, class inequality and experience of change the Era.

III. THE POSSIBLE WORLDS THEORY OF COGNITIVE POETICS

A. An Overview of Cognitive Poetics

The earlier famous research about cognitive poetics is from Reuven Tsur at Tel Aviv University. In 1992, he published theoretical works on Cognitive Poetics -- *Toward a Theory of Cognitive Poetics* (the first edition). After 2002, Stockwell Peter published another book, *Cognitive Poetics: An Introduction*. In 2008, Tsur Reuven also published his book *Toward a Theory of Cognitive Poetics* the second edition of the cognitive poetics theory. In recent years, the domestic scholars have gradually introduced and studied the cognitive poetics, and analyzed the literary works by some methods of cognitive poetics. Stockwell Peter (2009) believes that Tsur Reuven is the "inventor" of cognitive poetics which is regarded as a scientific research method by Tsur. In Reuven Tsur's the second edition of the book *Toward a Theory of Cognitive Poetics*, he pointed out: "cognitive poetics is an interdisciplinary analysis method and cognitive science is believed to provide the basic theoretical research, the aim is to explore the understanding and information processing is how to limit and influence of poetry language and form, or the critic reviews." That is to say, the cognitive theory provided by cognitive poetics is about how to systematically explain the relationship between the structure of literary text and its effect. Stockwell Peter (2002) argues that cognitive poetics is a fundamental way of thinking about literature. In addition, and Gavins Steen (2003) clearly states that cognitive poetics is not only a branch of cognitive

science, but also a new poetic form. Reuven Tsur attaches great importance to the cognitive poetics which is used in analyzing or interpreting of poetry. But Peter Stockwell attachs more importance to poetics concept of modernity, the composition of the system theory. But no matter it is Reuven or Tsur Peter Stockwel who focuses on the effect analysis of the cognitive poetics and regards it as a method of literary analysis of the effect. However, Peter Stockwell values it more. In his 2002 book *Cognitive Poetics: An Introduction*, Peter Stockwell thinks that cognitive poetics is not only influenced by cognitive science but also by some of the concepts and methods which are used to analyze literary text, a special chapter in his book discusses some basic problems of literature, such as literary nature, literary function, character types and number of literature basic category such as mimesis imitation, texture, discourse, ideology, emotion, imagination and so on. (Semino,1997) Application of cognitive poetics is not only a concept from the cognitive linguistics. It uses the cognitive psychology, stylistics, literary narration, the traditional literary criticism and other disciplines method. For example, in Steen and Gavins' (2003) published book *Cognitive Poetics in Practice* which is treated as the companion book of *Cognitive Poetics: An Introduction*, they discussed the script, mode, fable, world theory, thought, emotion and imagination. These concepts or propositions do not belong to the category of cognitive linguistics, but they are beyond cognitive linguistics research. At present, domestic scholars are inclined to agree with Peter Stockwell that cognitive poetics is a kind of new literature theory and is not only a kind of analysis method, but it is indeed the methodology innovation foundation based on the "cognitive" analysis of features of literature criticism theory – is not a sort of literary theory but criticism theory. (Semino, 1997)

B.   The Theory of Possible World

Possible world concept is firstly put forward by the German famous logician Leibniz (1646-1716), he defined "possible world" as that there is no possibility of contradictory propositions, that is to say, the logical consistency. If the combination of state or thing is illogical, then the combination of state or this thing is possible, this may be the combination of the "possible world". Steen and Gavins think that possible worlds theory was originally developed by philosophers and logicians in order to deal with logical problems, such as the truth values of propositions and the ontological status of non-actual entities. The possible worlds of logic are abstract, complete and consistent sets of states of affairs conceived for the purpose of logical operations. In contrast, the possible worlds of fiction are 'furnished', incomplete, and potentially inconsistent constructs conceived by interpreters in their dynamic interactions with texts (Stockwell 2002a, for example, adopts the term 'discourse worlds' when applying the notion of possible worlds to text analysis) (see also Eco 1989; Semino 1997). In fact, narrative scientists who are devoted to the possible worlds theory may mention the role of background knowledge of readers in reading the novel in the process of mental modification of the fictional world. And, in some cases, they try to solve the problems of the construction of the fictional world from the text level. However, in general, the novel analytical approaches of a possible world of the novel focus on what we can call "products" which is regarded as our understanding of the novel, namely, after a series of complex process of understanding, the readers gain and characteristics and structure of fictional world. The advantage of this method in the cognitive poetics is that it attaches great importance to big problems in novels, such as the definition, the fictional world of the internal structure, differences of various types, the development of the plot and the plot of the aesthetic potential, etc.

Later scholars gradually analyze and explain this theory in literary works. As an important theory in Cognitive Poetics: a study of "possible world" in Stockwell Peter's book *Cognitive Poetics: An Introduction* has been discussed in the seventh chapter. In this book, the author classified the "possible worlds theory" into a concept or proposition of cognitive poetics. "A possible world (even the actual possible world) is not the same as the rich everyday world we experience around us. A possible world is a philosophical notion, constituted by a set of propositions that describe the state of affairs in which a sentence can exist. It is a formal logical set, not a cognitive array of knowledge. This means that possible worlds theory has little to say about the worlds of literary reading. However, the approach can be adapted so that we can speak of discourse worlds that can be understood as dynamic readerly interactions with possible worlds: possible worlds with a narratological and cognitive dimension." In accordance with the theory of possible world, "each might be and each might have been is a possible world, because they have some kind of internal consistency and logic." (Girle, 2003) According to the "possible worlds theory" Elena Semino proposes three levels, the readers in the process of understanding discourse will form mental representation in their brains about the discourse no matter whether the discourse is fictional or real. This kind of mental representation is called "text worlds" in cognitive poetics. Usually, analysis of understanding of the text world begins with dividing the discourse into three aspects. The first one is discourse world which contains two or more participants are involved in a language event. The participants in this event may involve either face-to-face or long-distance conversation, or written communication of any type. With the development of the discourse world, each participant constructs a mental representation, or text world, by which they are able to process and understand the discourse at hand. This world forms the next level of a Text World Theory analysis. Once the text world is constructed and developing, countless other worlds which depart from the parameters of the initial text world may also be created. These departures form the final layer of Text World Theory and are called 'sub-worlds' or 'possible worlds'".

Based on Elena semino's views, Xiong MuQing (2011b) enriched and developed the main roles of the possible worlds theory in cognitive poetics to seven aspects: In particular, possible worlds theory provides a useful framework for the definition of fiction, the description of the internal structure of fictional worlds, and the differentiation between

different genres; is also useful in describing the internal structure of the textual universe, and in accounting for the development of the plot, text analysis of the multiple narrative layer and narrative point of view; text analysis of the multiple themes and meaning, excavating aesthetic potential in text. The theory of possible world does not bring us a ready-made model of text analysis, it inspires us to examine more things in works. Because of this, we take *the Buddha of Suburbia* as the object of study to find out not only description of the "identity theme" of the novel, but by reading the novel, the readers can have their thinking and understanding of the novel text world, then analyze and create more possible worlds so as to focus on the novel's multiple themes including character identity, race discrimination and the era's characteristics.

IV. MULTIPLE THEMES IN THE BUDDHA OF SUBURBIA

A. Hybrid Identity

The Buddha of Suburbia tells the story of the leading character Karim by using the method of semi-autobiographical type, Karim, the Pakistani immigrant descent born in the UK, "His experience, to some extent, is the metaphor of racial discrimination and identity confusion of the second generation Asian group in the UK, but Karim's identity crisis was resolved through performing effectively on the stage, he came from the edge of society to the mainstream of it." Stuart Hall (2000) pointed out, "Cultural identities has its source and history. Just like everything has a history, they experienced a constant change. They will never be perpetually fixed in a past history but to succumb to the nature of change." At the beginning of the story, the protagonist Karim introduces himself as follows:

My name is Karim Amir, and I am an Englishman born and bred, almost. I am often considered to be a funny kind of Englishman, a new breed as it were, having emerged from two old histories. But I don't care—Englishman I am (though not proud of it), from the South London suburbs and going somewhere. Perhaps it is the odd mixture of continents and blood, of here and there, of belonging and not, that makes me restless and easily bored. (Hanif Kureishi, 2007)

When the readers read such a self-introduction about the protagonist Karim, they will construct "text world" in their brain, imagining what the UK is like, where the protagonist Karim was locally born and bred in order to recreate the scene in their brain, in addition to looking for clues from reading and understanding the text, the reader need to know and be familiar with all kinds of background knowledge of British social life at that time. And along with the readers' reading, development of the plot, further understanding of the text, if the protagonist Karim's description of his identity makes us believe that they are possible, then one possible world will be set up in the reader's mind, that is the protagonist Karim's own identity blur and confusion: such as introduction of "almost I am often considered to be a funny kind of Englishman" shows that Karim is not certain about his identity, and also highlights Karim's ambivalence about his own identity. And then the Karim says, "I am often considered to be a funny kind of Englishman, a new breed as it were, having emerged from two old histories", "But I don't care—Englishman I am (though not proud of it)". What can be inferred from this is that Karim wants to show such a fact that "I'm British", and thus we could believe that the possible world of the description about Karim does exist by combining narration about his father and mother, background knowledge, life experience and the author's background in the following parts of the novel. Then the readers will form the possible worlds about Karim's parents' identity, Karim's parents' identity and Karim's relatives' identity. Karim's father is an Indian man who was expected to study in UK in the 1950s, Karim's mother is white British. Based on the "reality" of the novel text, since that day when Karim was born (although he was born and bred), he was destined to dual mixed identities, namely, Pakistani British. When reading the novel, the readers find that Karim could realize the fact that his own identity is full of particularity, uncertainty and absence, so he loves white British Charlie—Eva's son, and tried to be close to him, and to imitate him, hope to be able to become him, to change his identity of uncertainty. Karim says, "Because I love him more than myself, I'd like to change into him, I have a longstanding obsession with his intellect, appearance and demeanor, I want all things that belong to Charlie transferred to me." (Hanif Kureishi, 2007) In the later narration of the story, Karim does not give up his pursuit of determining his own identity, he contacts some directors, and performs identity in the directors' plays. The author of this novel build "real text world" for the protagonist Karim who is eager to get self-identity, namely Karim has confusion about his identity in the novel, and he attempts to change his identity of combination and uncertainty in a number of ways with great efforts and struggle, Logically it is not untrue, which accords with people's cognitive characteristics, the readers believe that in Karim's efforts and struggle are real. And Karim is trying to solve his identity crisis, to get rid of the uncertainty of identity, such as imitating Charlie, performing theatrical multiple roles in the director's plays, want to be white person or a person who has a determined identity, which belongs to Karim's wish worlds (wish worlds, mainly refers to the ideal, hope, desire) . Karim dreams of waking up to become white person like Charlie, this is obviously Karim's fantasy universes (fantasy universes, mainly refers to the dream and illusion, etc.) Gavins Steen (2003). Finally, with his own excellent performance moving forward step by step, it helps him to eliminate his identity crisis, and to achieve his wish world, namely, the possible world.

In fact, it is not only the protagonist Karim who has such uncertain identity problems in this novel, Jamila, daughter of his uncle Mr Anwar, also has the same as problems. Karim is obsessed with his awkward fuzzy hybrid identity, which also draw the outline of the possible world about Jamila for the readers:

Yes, sometimes Jami (Jamila's nickname) and I were French, sometimes African Americans, but the reality is that we should be English, but for the British people, we have been the only persons in the Middle East, Africa, or Pakistan and

other similar fellows. (Hanif Kureishi, 2007)

Thus it can be seen that the writer of *The Buddha of Suburb* narrates the story mostly by using "I"—the protagonist Karim, the readers are presented with possible worlds of Kerim who is on behalf of the descendants of immigrants of India and Pakistan to tell us confusion about their mixed identity.

B. Racial Discrimination

Before or during the process of reading the novel *The Buddha of Suburbia*, the readers will find out personal information about the novelist Hanif Kureishi, but also concern about the creative background of the novel. The readers will find in conjunction with their knowledge and experience that the author Hanif Kureishi of *The Buddha of Suburbia* reflects his own personal growing experiences by the protagonist Karim, then the protagonist Karim of the novel is, to some extent, the author Hanif Kureishi's portrayal. The protagonist Karim's father is a Pakistani, his mother is English, so is the author Hanif Kureishi. Therefore, Hanif Kureishi is more concerned about survival and living conditions of immigrants of India and Pakistan, so there is no exception in his novel *The Buddha of Suburbia*. "The Buddha of Suburbia is such a piece of work; it is descriptions of race, class, sex, identity, pop culture, fashion, drugs and sex under the multicultural conflicts and the prospect of integration." (Hanif Kureishi, 2002) The creative background of the novel is the British society of 1960s and 1970s when the racial problem was very serious. In fact, the readers can have better understanding of the novel through background knowledge, not difficult to find that the author Hanif Kureishi also has similar experiences of racial inequalities as the main character Karim, and continue to construct the possible worlds about the main character and the author Hanif Kureishi, that is, whether they are in real life or in the possible world, they may belong to ethnic populations, India and Pakistan, who have experienced unfair racial discrimination. Hanif Kureishi admitted, "From the very beginning, I tried to deny my identity in Pakistan, I would like to get rid of a curse like it, I would just like to everyone else." (Hanif Kureishi, 2002) The protagonist Karim also has a similar idea and desire that he wants to change the situation in which he is regarded as part of the India-Pakistan who suffered racial discrimination in the UK. He introduced himself at the beginning of the novel, "I am an Englishman born and bred, almost." But "I am often considered to be a funny kind of Englishman", after reading these sentences the readers can not help asking a question, what kind of people the protagonist Karim belong to? And in the readers' mind, Karim's image and his possible worlds will be outlined: black skin, but not too dark, a descendant of India and Pakistan. In his life experience in the outskirts of London, Karim often feels racial discrimination. Local white British superiority is extremely obvious, especially discrimination against blacks, they do not want to contact with the group of descendants of immigrants from India and Pakistan, just as the white girl Helen's father put, "No matter what negroes do, we do not like. We keep in touch with whites only." In school, Karim was also subject to racial discrimination, and therefore he wanted to leave the suburbs where he has been living for a long time to the city center. Later Karim came to London urban to develop in entertainment business, either the director Chadeville or the director Parker felt that Karim was particularly suited to play the role of blacks, so Karim could not escape the fate of being discriminated by whites at that time. "In fact, in the eyes of the white people, as long as you are not white, you are black." (YinXiaoxia, 2014)

Karim's father Haroon, as one of the first-generation immigrant representatives of India and Pakistan in the novel, he was often subject to British whites' discrimination because of his long-term in the post-colonial area where white people have "British Empire Pride", "white superiority" of mainstream society. So he began to confine himself in a small circle of life, but he also got lost when he goes out. "Dad came to Britain in 1950, it has been more than 20 years. In recent fifteen years he lived in South London, but he will go the wrong way, just like disembarked Indians who newly settled in the United Kingdom…" (Hanif Kureishi, 2007) Later, Haroon was strongly trying to get rid of the shadow of racial discrimination, studying eastern philosophy and Buddhism thoughts in order to meet British curiosity and desire about oriental wisdom and to help the British white people solve spiritual problems, and thus Haroon got so-called "suburb Buddha" for himself who then found "recipe" to get rid of the shadow of racial discrimination.

Therefore, when the readers read this part of the novel, they will combine the natural background and fiction novels describing the descendants of immigrants from India and Pakistan with "real experience", and in their brain form scenes of being discriminated about ethnic minorities and Karim's father Haroon and other groups in London, the readers will think descriptions of descendants of immigrants Pakistan suffering racial discrimination in the text is real and credible, and then build the possible world about racial discrimination. In this possible world, Karim and his father Haroon made great efforts in order to achieve the ideal world of the mind (wish world)—keeping away from the racial discrimination suffered by themselves, which also further promote the development of the novel plot.

C. The Characteristics of That Era

The novel describes the situation of social life in London in 1960s and 1970s when is the period of the rapid development of punk culture, the novel is full of music, sex, drugs and other characteristics of the times elements. The readers will continue to be exposed to this kind of time in the process of reading and interpreting the novel to feel characteristic elements of changing times, the article will take one of the most representative contemporary features of the novel— pop music for example to illustrate the main characters in the possible worlds of the novel. Haroon's lover Eva was keen on music of The Rolling Stones and Third Ear Band, every time when Karim goes to Eva's home, she would ask him to choose and play some of her favorite pop music. Eva's son Charlie, a white man, is also Karim's good friend who is Karim's object of imitation. Charlie has affection for rock music more than anyone else. He secretly plays

rock music at school, "at home there are piles of records, and there is a photo of four members of the Beatles during Sergeant Pepper on the wall, they are like God" (Hanif Kureishi, 2007). Thus, Charlie "tried to imitate the new trend to get rid of the features of suburbs to transform himself into a punk hero when he first arrived in central London; after arriving in the United States, he became the rock star by relying on 'Englishness' and the trafficking of British fashion." (YinXiaoxia, 2014) Charlie's career flourished in this process because he has a special idea for his future, and later he matured and planed his future, the process presents the readers Charlie's hope, that is called wish world in which he wish he was about to glory, to be successful and to become a pop star. Finally one day, Charlie made realization of these aspirations: "Charlie naturally appears on television and in newspapers all of a sudden, you would not be able to escape him and his flourishing career, and he succeeded..." (Hanif Kureishi, 2007) In fact, Charlie's success plays an important role on Karim's construction of his identity, and his success is apparently inseparable from his keen sense of the trend of the times and the ability to adapt society. When the readers read these parts, they will in their own minds construct the possible world of British society changes and cognitive development about the 1960s and 1970s, and the novel reproduces the characteristics of the times when it was post-colonialism and pinnacle cultural trends. The readers combined relevant background knowledge with their experience to believe that popular music reflecting the times is possible and that the characters of the novel including Karim, Eva, Charlie and so on loved and imitated the popular music, then the possible worlds about the features of British era is set up so that the readers can better understand and appreciate the novel.

V. CONCLUSION

The Buddha of Suburbia describes survival and living status of the India-Pakistan immigrants and their descendants in London in the post-colonial era. After trying to explore internal structure of the novel, that is, analyzing the wish and fantasy worlds of the main characters in the novel and plot development (the conflicts between wish or fantasy world and the real world), the author of this article finds that in the process of reading the novel the readers can construct the possible worlds of the protagonist Karim who is a representative of the Indian immigrants encountering such multiple themes as identity confusion, racial discrimination, characteristic elements of the era.

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The Effect of Corpus Assisted Creative Writing Sessions on Intermediate Learners' Writing Skills at the Arab International University

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Abstract—This paper aims at investigating the progress achieved by a group of intermediate English language learners in creative writing sessions. The main tool used for assessing learners' writing was the online British National Corpus. The learners were trained to use and consult the BNC in a couple of sessions. Then, they were asked to write two descriptive excerpts of a natural scene; one without consulting the BNC and the other one was done with the aid of the BNC. When comparing the two excerpts, several developments were noted with regard to the learners' use of vocabulary and grammatical structures.

Index Terms—BNC, creative writing, grammar, intermediate language learners

I. INTRODUCTION

Introducing technology in to language classrooms has proven to be highly effective. With the lapse of years, linguists and lexicographers have managed to create on line linguistic storage of the English language. This on line storage includes hundreds of various examples of different structures, vocabulary and contexts. In addition, users of this storage could easily get to the original text of any example since it already exists as part of the storage. This storage, known as corpora, has been used in language classrooms for different purposes. It is worth noting that introducing corpora to foreign or second language learners, even language instructors, has been of great benefit. It has helped in developing learners' linguistic skills and aiding language instructors in their language classes (Chambers and Bax,2006; Chambers, 2007).

The importance of using corpora in the language classroom:

Training to use corpora would enhance the concept of "language learners as researchers". This is due to the fact that learners would be dealing with corpora as a resource that will help them look up solutions for the mistakes in their writings (Kennedy and Miceli, 2010). There are numerous valuable linguistic benefits offered by online corpora. Working with a corpus could develop learners' process oriented view of language learning (Gabrielatos,2005; O'Sullivan, 2007). In addition, learners would value the relation between form and meaning when examining concordances and would pay much attention to the relation of words and context (Aston, 2001; Gaviol, 1997; Milton, 1999). Furthermore, the use of corpus would raise learners' grammatical consciousness as they receive systematic feedback and examples (Cobb & Gaskell, 2004; Johns, 1991). It is also worth noting that constructivist theories of developmental psychology stress the fact that using corpora would turn language learners in to more active participant in the learning process. In this case learners would construct their own personal meaning of a given experience (Williams and Burden, 1997). Moreover, the use of corpora offers much learning gains beside the linguistic benefits as it requires an increased cognitive work (Cobb, 1997).

Using online corpora in writing classes:

Online corpora have been introduced by many language instructors to learners in writing classes due to its various benefits and uses. Thus, language instructors have tried to familiarize learners with corpora for consultation. This would give their writing a more natural-native-like aspect (Cobb and Gaskell, 2004). On the other hand, experience has shown that the use of dictionaries would not produce natural linguistic structures. However, with proper training sessions on using on line corpora; learners would be able to search and make use of the search results in their writings. It would be possible for them to correct their writing mistakes and pick lexical structures and collocations (Cobb and Gaskell, 2004).

Using corpora in creative writing sessions:

The benefits of using a corpus could be especially noted in creative writing sessions which are the concern of this paper. Using a corpus in creative writing sessions would raise learners' awareness to the importance of phraseology, encourage them to venture beyond their existing repertoire of multi word patterns, and help them adapt the content of their search results and use the offered patterns in a way that fits and serves their writing topics and objectives (Granger and Meunier, 2008; Kennedy and Miceli, 2010; Milton, 1999). On the other hand, using a monolingual corpora (in this case an English one) would help learners improve three main linguistic techniques in writing: pattern hunting, pattern defining, and finding an equivalent in English for their intended ideas (Kennedy and Miceli, 2010). Novice writers could start by looking for an equivalent in English for their ideas. Then, as they get more experienced; they could try the

pattern hunting technique. In later stages, writer would use a pattern defining technique to check the grammatical and lexicographical accuracy of their writings (Cobb and Gaskell, 2004; Kennedy and Miceli, 2010; Milton, 1999).

The British national corpus:

In 1990, the BNC was first created by a number of known dictionary producers e.g. Rooms, Longman, The British library, and the research centers of Oxford and Lancaster universities. The project was funded by The Science and Engineering Research and the British government (Aston & Burnard, 1998). Back at the time, there was so much debate of the use of word processors and developing them. Back then, the fastest personal computer would be that of a 386 Microsoft Intel processor. While the largest disc space wouldn't exceed 50 Mb. Thus, all the work on such a project like creating an online corpus would require a fully equipped laboratory with much more developed systems such as Unix (Ibid, 1998). It is also worth mentioning that back at the 1990 the idea of a World Wide Web was still something unfamiliar and somehow ambiguous to most people. However, the notion of creating a corpus was well known at least to those in the field. The three pioneers of the art of corpus creation were Cobuild publishers, the brown school, and the Birmingham school This was also a time at which the notion of computerized (electronic) dictionaries emerged (Clear, 1993). It is worth remembering that the project of creating the BNC cost about 1.5 million at that time and the payment was done over a period of three years. Universities who have contributed to this project were fully aware of its importance in the academic field. Amongst those who contributed to the project were professional lexicographers who took part in the creation of famous dictionaries like Collin Cobuild dictionaries. The project was of priority to the British government because of its potential to bring in to the light a notion of "a UK language engineering industry". On the other hand, the British library considered it a kind of new media in the world of knowledge and a competitor to the newly born digital library (Ibid, 1993). Those in charge of the creation of the BNC, had clear aims in mind. They aimed at creating a rich big corpus that is available for free. Another aim was creating a language bank of spoken and written varieties of British English which are modern and synchronic. In addition, the design of the corpus should focus on mentioning word class and include any necessary relevant information like antonyms or synonyms. However, the indirect aims for those commercial partners like dictionary makers, was to improve their products (Ibid, 1993).

How does the BNC work?

When you launch your internet browser to the British National Corpus site, you will basically see a blue interface with some basic information about the BNC and how to use it. If you click on the (search the BNC) button, you would get a search box with some filters and options. Those filters define how many words do you need to see accompanying the word you are looking up whether before or after, these are called collocations. First, you would get the main list of collocations out of context and you would see which of them is the most frequent. By clicking on each of the collocates in the list, you would get new lists with hundreds of examples of strings taken from different contexts. To the left of those lists, is a link to the name of the original source. Clicking on that link would get you to the complete original text or excerpt out of which the example in the results was taken. Furthermore, you could ask for an annotated list of results. This means all the words in the sentences mentioned in the lists of results would be defined by their parts of speech. The BNC website has made it easy for its users to print the list of results in order to be used for different purposes. The BNC could also be downloaded an used offline. However, this requires special information saving devices with certain storage capacity.

The current research context and back ground:

The foreign languages center at the Arab International University, where this research took place, offers remedial English courses. These courses teach the four basic linguistic skills (reading, writing, listening and speaking) as integral elements of each course. As for the writing skill, learners start by acquiring the basics of writing and gradually develop new techniques as they move up to advanced levels at the FLC. Learners enrolled in pre-intermediate levels (level zero and one) are instructed to write simple one idea paragraphs with two supporting details and a conclusion. In intermediate levels, (level two and three) the learners are instructed to write purposed paragraphs (descriptive, opinion, persuasive and cause & effect). Then they are required to develop their paragraphs, as a second step in level three, in to complete purposed essays of five paragraphs. When learners finish all four levels, they have to enroll in the academic writing and research course. In this course, learners are instructed to write academic essays of different purposes and to use quoting and referencing techniques.

Research rationale:

Learners enrolled in the remedial English courses at FLC usually find it difficult to develop their writing skills. Most learners would avoid the writing section whether in the text book activities or exams. Thus, the researcher came up with the idea of holding corpus based creative writing sessions to assist learners in their writing, motivate and encourage them to write. In addition, these sessions aim at reducing learners' fear of attempting writing tasks which stands as the main reason for holding creative writing sessions and not ordinary or typical writing. The researcher believed that holding creative writing sessions would help learners feel at ease while writing since this kind of writing is not necessary bounded by any standard format as it mostly depends on learners' own personal style. Learners could just go about expressing their minds without being restricted to certain steps, ideas or format. It is usually easier to express and describe one's feelings rather than describing or discussing other general knowledge topics. Furthermore, the researcher resorted to using on line corpora as the main instructional tool in the sessions in order to facilitate the writing process

for the learners. On line corpora would help them pick up the necessary expressions and vocabulary to finish their excerpts.

II. METHODOLOGY

Instrument:

The researcher depended solely on the online British national corpus in the writing sessions. The sessions were conducted in a computer lab and each learner used a separate computer.

Participants:

Twenty learners, who were registered at the FLC remedial English courses, took part in the current research. The learners belonged to the (18-20 years old) age group. It is also worth mentioning that the learners were of different majors, mostly Business administration and information technology engineering.

Procedure:

The learners had to attend four sessions of 45 minutes each. The first session was dedicated to free descriptive writing. The second session was an introduction to the BNC and its uses. The third session was allocated for writing along with corpora's assistance. The fourth session was dedicated for comparing learners' writings pre and post using corpora. Each session would be further detailed in the coming sections.

The first session:

On the first session, the learners were asked to write a description of a natural scenery using their own imagination. No limits were suggested for the number of words, the kind of details, ideas or the format of writing (essay/paragraph) to be used. At the end of the session, the learners handed their excerpts to the researcher. It is worth noting that the learners were neither guided nor instructed on how or what to write. However, the researcher has also encouraged the learners to write freely without worrying about structural or grammatical issues in order not to stop the flow of their ideas.

The second session:

On the second session, the learners were introduced to the BNC (British national corpus). The researcher familiarized the learners with the parts, sections, and the specific functions of the built in buttons of the corpus. In addition, the researcher explained the benefits of using an online corpus for checking word synonyms and collocates, picking expressions, and checking grammatical structures. The learners were mainly instructed on how to look for word collocates using the search box and how to limit the number of pre and post collocates of a word. Furthermore, the learners were guided on how to check the original texts of the corpus results they get after searching for collocates.

The third session:

On the third session, the learners were asked to rewrite the same descriptive excerpts of the natural scenery which they have written on the first session. However, they were not allowed to look back on their old excerpts. But, they were allowed to repeat or use the ideas which they can recall. This time, the learners were asked to consult the BNC before writing any sentence. In the end of the session, the learners handed in their excerpts.

The fourth session:

On the fourth session, the learners were handed back both of their excerpts. Then, they were asked to compare between the expressions, structures, and mistakes in both excerpts. It is worth noting that both excerpts of each learner were analyzed by the researcher and the results would be fully detailed in further sections. On the end of the session, the learners were asked to provide their feedback and overall evaluation of attending the corpus assisted creative writing sessions. The feedback and the evaluation would be provided in the results analysis section.

In class observation:

During the third session, while the learners were using the online BNC, several observations were made. First, most learners were looking for collocates of the following words: river, tree, sky, grass, breeze, flowers, birds and sun. Second, the learners have limited the number of word collocates to one post collocate only. Third, the majority of the learners have only made use of the first fifteen concordances (lines) in the results. Finally, a few learners have asked to print out the first two pages of each search results in order to use them.

III. RESULTS ANALYSIS

Analysis of learners' excerpts:

Pre-corpus consultation:

When comparing the learners' pre-corpus consulted excerpts to post corpus-consultation excerpts, it was found out that the pre-corpus consulted excerpts had a variety of grammatical and structural mistakes. There were mistakes in using subjunctive pronouns and choosing suitable vocabulary and adjectives e.g.

1- (Us of subjunctive pronouns): When I and Sami were walking.

2- (Use of vocabulary): a- We looked to the trees and floors.

                              b- I watched to the trees.

                              c- .. cut my time.

3- (Use of adjectives): a- Walking in the sported city.

Other mistakes had to do with verb forms, tenses, prepositions, word order, definite articles and spelling e.g.

1- (Tenses): Speaking about a past experience: a- It is very nice.

2- (Prepositions): a- We started looking about us.

b- I watched to the trees.

3- (Word order): a- We must go to the course English.

4- (Definite articles): a- .. the few of people.

5- (Spelling): a- .. clod area.

b- .. new bron.

c- .. specule sound.

It is worth adding that these excerpts (50%) are short (15 words only) in general, simple, and depict the learners' personal experiences. Nevertheless, these were error free. The shortness of the excerpts could be explained by the learners' fear of extending their writings lest they commit mistakes.

Post- corpus consultation:

The post-corpus consultation excerpts have fewer mistakes and are longer than pre-corpus consultation ones. The excerpts are generally longer and some (25%) are distinguished with a poetic or novel like style which did not exist before corpus consultation e.g.

a- He looked to the moon. "Where is it?"

b- When he looked to the sky.

This could be explained by the learners' attempt to imitate some of the original texts of the results in the concordances. In addition, the excerpts with the poetic style were 50% off topic e.g.

a- Even the dark night could't cover her beauty.

However, their originality is still attributed to the learners. Furthermore, the learners who submitted short error free pre-corpus consultation excerpts (50%) have submitted well written post-corpus consultation excerpts. They managed to extract complete expressions from concordances and put them together in perfect coherent sentences without adding any other sentences of their own e.g.

a- As the sun rose higher in the cloudless sky.

b- Bright spring yellow flowers crowding front gardens.

c- I opened my curtains that morning,I saw the sun shining in a cloudless sky.

The last group of learners (25%) submitted post- corpus consulting excerpts with incoherent expressions which mostly do not fall in a logical order e.g.

a- We used to play cricket, football, marbles and pitch card and the trees in the park misted over young green.

These learners have added a few sentences of their own in the introduction of their excerpts e.g.

a- In the morning I wake up.

b- I open my house door to go to school.

Add to that some spelling, subject-verb agreement, word form, and verb form mistakes were spotted as well in the extracted expressions e.g.

1- (Subject--verb agreement): a- There are a fruit tree in my garden.

2- (Spelling): a- ... becouse I saw the sun.

3- (Word form): a- This is a great natural.

b- I see this natural every day.

4- (Verb form): a-. . to beginning a great day.

IV. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

Results discussion:

After analyzing the results of the current research, it could be said that corpus-assisted creative writing sessions have different influences on different learners. Some learners (25%) were able to modify their writing style to the extent of upgrading it almost to a literary level. In addition, those learners have managed to avoid a good number of grammatical mistakes. On the other hand, other learners (50%) have only used their logical skills in extracting the right expressions and linking them coherently without adding any sentences of their own. Finally, the last group of learners (25%) have only managed to select (extract) suitable expressions without being able to link them coherently.

Students' feedback on using corpora:

The participants ,who attended the corpus assisted creative writing sessions, were interviewed at the end as a means of eliciting their own evaluation of the usefulness of the sessions. Thus, after analyzing the total feedback of all the participants, the following results were obtained:

1- 80% of the learners confirmed the usefulness and convenience of using and consulting corpora.

2- 78% of the learners stated their tendency to look for verbs more than vocabulary in the corpus.

3- 73% confirmed their full comprehension of the search results.

4- 70% admitted checking only about 5 pages of the results sheets and using the first convenient example they find.

5- 60% attempted picking up whole phrases when they find them convenient.

6- 40% only consulted their search results in the corpus to correct their mistakes.

7- 45% stated that using corpora is demanding time consuming.

Conclusion:

It could be concluded that corpus assisted creative writing sessions might have several benefits if they are well designed and carried out carefully. Corpus assisted writing would be used to train learners' logical skills in discerning the right order of ideas and the right use of cohesive devices. This could be set as an early training for beginner writers. On the other hand, more experienced or trained writers could make use of online corpora by adopting and adapting different styles and techniques.

Research limitations:

There are some limitations spotted in the current research. First, more sessions could have been allocated to training on corpus use. In addition, it would have been of more benefit to increase the number of the writing sessions and make them more task-oriented. For instance, more varied writing tasks could be done during the sessions.

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The Operation of Translation Norms in the English Version of *The Great Ming Code*[*]

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Abstract—The Great Ming Code **is one of the most influential codes in Chinese history, and its English version by Jiang Yonglin is undoubtedly counted as a new milestone in the study concerning with translation of Chinese legal classics. This research, based on the English translation of** *The Great Ming Code*, **is intended to show that the various norms in the source and target culture have a significant role to play during the translation process due to the fact that readers' reception is the priority for translators. It is also found that such translation catering for the target readers without leaving the exotic culture out is very likely to be accepted and even welcomed by the target reader for the translation fits the readers' expectation in the target society.**

Index Terms—The Great Ming Code, **translation norms, expectancy norm**

I. INTRODUCTION

The Great Ming Code, also called The Great Ming Code with Commentaries Attached by Regulations, has a far-reaching significance in Chinese legal history. It was enacted in the war period and finally completed in the Hongwu Period when law and regulations were attached great importance. The Hongwu reign was, to a large extent extent, regarded as one of the most important time in Chinese legislative history, during which period plenty of Chinese influential regulations and codes were enacted and then further promulgated. However, none of these regulations have been attached greater importance than The Great Ming Code and it was accordingly functioned as the basic law of the Ming dynasty in China. Zhu Yuanzhang looked at *The Great Ming Code* as a holy institution. The law compilers put forward that The Great Ming Code was the rule for ongoing generations. The judicial officials counted it as the enduring code of ten thousand generations. *The Great Ming Code*, as the law of the whole Ming dynasty, supplied basic principles and rich remedies about approaches to solving the legal problems of the land and provided significantly judicial regulations for activities during the year of the Hongwu reign. Thus, it is well acknowledged that The Great Ming Code, the basic law of the Ming dynasty, is embodied through its holistic feature and its place in the comprehensive legal system of the Hongwu reign in ancient China. Inheriting the historic merits of ancient Chinese legal codes of previous dynasties before Ming dynasty, The Great Ming Code gave a comprehensive summary of ancient Chinese laws by regulating social relations with dividing crimes into six broad categories according to the six major branches of the central government: personnel, revenue, rites, wars, justice, and public works, which signified a great change in Chinese legislative history. In addition, the code lays a solid foundation for the legislation of Qing dynasty and provides valuable references for the legal construction of modern China. As an important code of Chinese feudal society, *The Great Ming Code embodies* its own feature, such as the briefer regulations than Tang Code and more strict spirit than Song Code and so on, showing its development and creation in form and content. The translation, known as *The Great Ming Code (Da Ming Lü)*, was completed by Jiang Yonglin in 2005. It was the first time *The Great Ming Code* had been translated into a European language. The translation played a significant role for western scholars and legal researchers to gain insights into the Chinese legal system in Ming dynasty. Due to the increasing interaction between culture, society and law, understanding of Chinese legal foundation was undoubtedly a great urgency for western countries to promote trading access into China. Even if *The Great Ming Code* is in form exclusively a criminal code, its translated version is also able to provide certain crucial information about ancient Chinese society, culture, and law and so on.

It has often been claimed that translational norms are common at a given time and within a certain society, which, more often than not, governs the selection, production and even the reception of translation acts (Schäffner, 1999). Admittedly, norms are indispensable elements of the every act of translating process. In the long history of studies on Chinese classics translation, much thought has been devoted to the contrastive study different translations under various

conditions. Nonetheless, becoming aware of the norms and their operations is undoubtedly significant in this filed to broaden the research perspective and uncover the myth or the underlying implications behind the translation. Therefore, a close investigation of the translator's plural and dynamic habituses is necessary for the study of English version of *The Great Ming Code.*

II. METHODOLOGY

Example-based and norm theory-driven qualitative methods are embodied in the research, coupled with inductive, documental and comparison in the analysis of Jiang Yonglinb's subjectivity in translation of *The great Ming Code.*

A certain range of examples are evidenced by those accessible strategies of domestication and foreignization when translating so as to maximize the relevance of communication for the intended readers/receptors. Meanwhile, Jiang Yonglin's expectancy norms and professional norms are especially illustrated and probed into so as to reveal the translator's translation objectivity and further foster the understanding of the translated text.

III. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

Translation Norms

Norm is initially a social concept applied in the the filed of translation studies by Jiri Levy (1969 [1963]) and James S Holmes (1988). Norms are essential and central to the every act of translating process. Norms are said to be a category for descriptive analysis of translation phenomena (Toury, 1988), that is to say, norms are the translation of general values or ideas shared by a certain community as to what is right and wrong, adequate and inadequate in to specific performance-instructions appropriate for and applicable to specific situations (Toury, 1980). Norms can be divided into three categories: (1) preliminary norms, which govern the translation strategy and the selective source text; (2) initial norms, which decide the translator's choice whether to cater for the source readers or the target readers and (3) operational norms, which influence the translators' actual decisions while translating (Toury,1980). Bartsch (1987) regards norms as the social reality of correctness notions. It is well acknowledged that there are some regulations that are counted as appropriate or right to guide people's behavior and expectations about the products, in particular with translational process. The scope of sociability covers all our activities (Davis,1994); and translation is of course such an activity taking place in the sociocultural environment. If norms act as constraints on behaviour, foreclosing certain options while suggesting others (Hermans, 1991), then they can, to a certain extent, also supply rules and models for correct and adequate behaviour just as Chesterman has put that norms consist of the selective products, translation process and behaviors and the reception of translation (Chesterman, 1993).Specifically, translation is norm-governed and it is never immune from personal or social values, nor it is transparent. On the contrary, it recreates and transforms everything within its grasp, embodying the values shared by a community (Robinson, 1999). Accordingly, all translation strategies adopted in the translation process are thus primarily governed by such norms, and not (dominantly or exclusively) by the two language systems involved.

Based on the research by Toury and Hermans, Chesterman (1993, 1997) differentiates between expectancy norms and professional norms. Expectancy norms can be illustrated as what the target readers expect the translated version to be "with regard to grammaticality, acceptability, appropriateness, style, textuality, preferred conventions of form or discourse and the like" (Chesterman, 1993: 17). Expectancy norms have become based on professional norms rather than the other way around. Professional norms, more often than not, govern the accessible strategies and methods during the translation process, and thus exert huge influences on concrete translation process. Professional norms involve such three major types as accountability norms, communication norms, relation norms. Accountability norms, also called ethical norms, refers to the fact that the translator should always bear the original writer, translator himself, potential readers and relevant aspects while translating, neither rewriting the text without any relevance nor creating the new text. Communication norms require that the translator should exert every effort to render the realization of every communicative action to the fullest and thus ensure the smooth communication between both the source party and target party. Relation norms, namely language norms, show that translators, under the constraint of expectancy norms, adopt concrete strategies during the translation process adhering to accountability norms. Relation norms are concerned with the relation between the source text and target text which can't be described in terms of the traditional concept of equivalence, but the proper relations between the source text and translated text governed by the text type, the agency's request, original writer's goal and the potential readers' expectancy.

Chesterman' translation norms theory put the translation activity under the influence of such factors as language, culture and society and so on, pointing out that the translator is affected both by the constrict of source language and target language, readers' expectancy, target culture's tradition, ideology, and social economy so as to reach the felicity relation rather than the simple equivalent relation, which embodies great implications for the analysis of translator's translation strategies and translation features thus configured. As the participant of social activity, the translator is more often than not influenced by expectancy norms during the translation process, and adopts certain translation strategies to foster the realization of translation objectives promoted by the professional norms and thus presents unique translation features.

The Application of Translation Norms in the English Version of *The Great Ming Code*

As a matter of fact, it is always the translator herself or himself who decides which text to choose and how to translate, be that decision fully conscious or not. Every act of translation involves a unique encounter of the translator with a text within a specific communication situation carrying norms and values. As such, it goes without saying that the translation of *The Great Ming Code* inevitably is concerned with certain norms governing the translation strategies and further influencing reception of the translation version.

The Translation Strategies in the English Version of *The Great Ming Code*

Translation may be defined as follows: the replacement of textual material in one language (SL) by equivalent material in another language (TL) (Catford, 1965), or more specifically,translation is a linguistic phenomenon, served as an operation performed on languages. As a result, translators must cope with linguistic problems caused by the distance between English and Chinese. Generally speaking, it can be said that the difficulty of a legal translation depends primarily on the affinity of the legal systems and only subsidiarily on the affinity of the source and target languages (cf. De Groot 1991; also de Groot 1987).

Example 1:

Chinese version:

應議者之父祖有犯

其餘親屬奴僕管莊佃甲倚勢虐害良民凌犯官府者加常人罪一等止坐犯人不在上請之律其餘親屬謂皇親國戚及功臣之房族兄弟伯叔母舅母姨夫始妻兄弟兩姨夫外甥妻姪之類及家人伴當管莊佃甲倚仗威勢虐害良民凌犯官府者事發不須奏聞比常人加罪一等科斷止坐犯人本身

English version:

Committing Crimes by the Parents or Paternal Grandparents of Those Entitled to the Eight Deliberations [Yingyizhe zhi fuzu youfan]

If other relatives, bond servants [nupu], bailiffs [guanzhuang] or chief tenant farmers [dianjia] presume upon their powerful connections to bully respectable people or offend government offices, the penalties for them shall be increased one degree over those for ordinary persons. Only punish the criminals. This is not governed by the provision of petitioning the throne. ("Other relatives" refers to relatives such as paternal male third cousins [fangzu xiongdi], father's male second cousins [fangzu boshu], maternal uncles [mujiu], maternal aunts' husbands [muyifu], paternal aunts' husbands [gufu], wife's brothers, wife's sisters' husbands, sisters' sons, and wife's nephews. If these persons or domestic bond servants, bailiffs, or chief tenant farmers use their power and influence to bully respectable people or offend government offices, when the affairs come to light, they may not be memorialized. The penalties shall be increased one degree over those for ordinary persons. Only punish the criminals themselves.)

As is evidenced by the above example, such conceptions embodying Chinese culture as *奴僕管莊佃甲* and *房族兄弟伯叔母舅母姨夫* are translated into *bond servants [nupu], bailiffs [guanzhuang] or chief tenant farmers [dianjia], paternal male third cousins [fangzu xiongdi], father's male second cousins [fangzu boshu], maternal uncles [mujiu], maternal aunts' husbands [muyifu]*, the combination of literal translation and a set of Roman pinyin system. It is without doubt that such method is a wise choice that the ambiguity caused by cultural differences can be to a large extent avoided, after all, it is indeed a complex system of family relationship in Chinese culture which will definitely frustrate the target readers. Needless to say, the more the translators take into consideration the source text, the more elements they are able to translate. Translators, when searching for equivalents, often tend to generalize when they can't find the specific term, drawing from options available in the target culture. Though far from acceptable, exceptions certainly exist. On the other hand, *The Great Ming Code* has a pivotal role to play in Chinese ancient legal system and the pinyin system can enable those who would like to get a deeper knowledge of Chinese society to peek at the distinguished legal and social features.

Example 2

Chinese version:

收留迷失子女

凡留人家迷失子女不送官司而賣為奴婢者杖一百徒三年為妻妾子孫者杖九十徒二年半若得迷失奴婢而賣者各減良人罪一等被賣之人不坐給親完聚

English version:

Taking Stray Children [Shouliu mishi zinu]

In all cases where [persons] take stray children of other families and do not send them to the authorities but send them as slaves, they shall be punished by 100 strokes of beating with the heavy stick and penal servitude for three years. If [they sell them] as wives, concubines, sons, or sons' sons, they shall be punished by 90 strokes of beating with the heavy stick and penal servitude for two and one-half years. If they get stray slaves and sell them, the penalty shall be reduced one degree from that for [selling] honorable people. Those who are sold shall not be punished and shall be returned to their relatives for reunion.

Once carefully observed, it will be noticed that addition is common throughout the English version. The the above example of supplying supplemental information like "persons", "they sell them", "selling" in the form of brackets "[]" is rather popular with different translation in order to make it more fluent and easy to understand for target readers, otherwise it will more or less discourage those getting in touch in with Chinese legal classics for the first time from

going on with their study, and thus it can be drawn that Jiang Yonglin is very attentive to the the translation and thus domestication is adopted to foster the accessibility of the English version.

Example 3

Chinese version:

同僚犯公罪

若申上司不覺失錯准行者各遞減下司官吏罪二等謂如縣申州州申府府申布政司之類若上司行下所屬依錯施行者各遞減上司官吏罪三等謂如布政司行下府府行下州州行下縣之類亦各以吏典為首

English versions:

Committing Public Crimes by Those in the Same Office [Tongliao fan gongzui]

If lower officers send up reports to higher officers, and the higher officers do not discover the mistakes or errors in them and allow them to be carried out, then the officials and functionaries in the higher offices shall have their punishment successively reduced two degrees from that for the officials and functionaries in the lower offices. (This refers to cases such as those where districts send up reports to subprefectures, subprefectures send up reports to prefectures, or prefectures send up reports to Provincial Administration Commissions.) If higher officers send down documents to lower officers, the lower officers carry them out even though there are errors in them, them in each case the officials and functionaries shall have their punishment reduced three degrees from that for officials and functionaries in the higher offices. (This refers to cases such as those where Provincial Administration Commissions send down documents to subprefectures, or subrefectures send down documents to districts.) In each case the functionaries shall also be principals.

Such sentences beginning with "謂如…" are originally the essential and indispensable parts of the The Great Ming Code, nonetheless, they are rendered into English in the form of brackets "( )", for example "謂如縣申州州申府府申布政司之類" are translated into "(This refers to cases such as those where districts send up reports to subprefectures, subprefectures send up reports to prefectures, or prefectures send up reports to Provincial Administration Commissions.)" and "謂如布政司行下府府行下州州行下縣之類" is rendered into "(This refers to cases such as those where Provincial Administration Commissions send down documents to subprefectures, or subrefectures send down documents to districts.)". By adding the brackets "( )", Jiang Yonglin, as an interlingual intercultural mediator, is intended to convey the implication that readers can selectively read and then research the regulations, that is, if there are some explantary regulations like "謂如…", readers can skip this part so as to reduce the potential burdensome reading task without changing substantially the original text.

Example 4

Chinese version:

凡各衙門及倉庫但有附餘錢糧須要盡實報官明白正收作數若監臨主守將增出錢糧私下銷補別項事故虧折之數瞞官作弊者並計贓以監守自盜論

English version:

In all cases where any *yamen*, granary, or treasury has excess money or grains, it must be reported completely and accurately to the government and be clearly recorded in account books in the correct amount. If the supervisors or custodians secretly use the surplus money or grain to make up the deficits in other accounts, and thus cheat the government and practice fraud, then calculate the amount as illicit goods; they shall be punished on the basis of supervisors or custodians themselves stealing.

As Rosenne warned, terminological incongruence presents the greatest threat to the uniform interpretation an application of a parallel legal text (1987). Translators do not necessarily ignore aspects of the source text, but sometimes particular terms are simply unavailable, so they make do the best they can. Accordingly, translators must take care to use terms aptly express the intended meaning of the source text at the time it was produced. As illustrated by the above example, yamen, as the system-bound term, is the justice department and the highest institution in charge of the local affairs in ancient China. It is peculiar to Chinese culture and there isn't correspondent word or concept that can accurately convey the connotation of yamen. Nor the term xiucai, signifying cultural-specific realia which is the title given to those outstanding elites passing the specific exam in ancient China, has equivalent in other countries. As for such terms with no comparable counterparts in other legal and cultural systems, Roman pinyin is adopted by Jiang Yonglin to restrain the Chinese culture and peculiarity. Normally this doesn't create a serious problem for readers, rather, it has not significantly changed the terms and the triadic notion of reference and is indeed easier to discern Chinese legal and social culture. After all, as far as terminological studies are concerned, equivalence has always remained a relevant not absolute factor (Snell-Hornby 1988; Felber 1993; Arntz 1993).

Example 5

Chinese version:

別籍異財

凡祖父每父每在而子孫別立戶籍分異財產者杖一百須祖父每父每親告乃坐若居父每喪而兄弟別立戶籍分異財產者杖八十須親以上尊長親告乃坐

English version:

Establishing Separate Household Registers of Dividing the Family Property [Bieji yicai]

In all cases where paternal grandparents or parents are living, and sons or sons' sons establish separate household registers or divide the family property, they shall be punished by 100 strokes of beating with the heavy stick. (They shall be punished only if the paternal grandparents or parents accuse them to the court in person.) If, during the mourning period for their parents, brothers establish separate household registers or divide the family property, they shall be punished by 80 strokes of beating with the heavy stick. (They shall be punished only if their superior or older relatives of the mourning degree of one year or closer accuse them to the court in person.)

As evidenced by such example as "If, during the mourning period for their parents, brothers establish separate household registers or divide the family property, ..." instead of "If brothers establish separate household registers or divide the family property during the mourning period for their parents,...", it is obvious that the latter sentence is more likely to be accepted by the target readers and meet and readings of English readers. Nonetheless, strict observance of the syntax and grammar of the source language is adopted by Jiang Yonglin and it is fidelity to the original which accounts, not the beauty or elegance of the target language. On the other hand, the language features of legal English are preserved like long sentences, passive voice and sentences beginning with "in all cases where" and "if", that is, target-language formulae are used in the translation of *The Great Ming Code* to cater for the needs of English readers, which reflects the fact that it is only natural that legal rules are most frequently formulated in conditional sentences. Legal translation is the technical translation and meanwhile it embodies the characteristics of general translation (Cao, 2008). It should be noted that the statement of law remains unchanged in the above example.

Example 6
Chinese version:
賦役不均

　　凡有司科徵稅糧及雜泛差役各驗籍內戶口田糧定立等第科差若放富差貧那移作弊者許被貧民赴拘該上司......受財者計贓以枉法從重論

　　條例

　　一布按二分巡分守官直隸巡按御史嚴督府州縣掌印正官審編均從公查照歲額差使於該年均徭人戶丁糧有力之家止編本等差役不許分外增餘銀兩貧難下戶并逃亡之數聽其空閑不許徵銀及額外濫設聽差等項差科違者聽撫按等官糾察問罪奏請改調若各官容情不舉反治以罪

　　一各布政司并值隸府州縣掌印官如遇各部派到物從公斟酌所屬大小豐歉坐派豪猾規利之徒買囑吏書安稟編派下屬承攬害良民者俱問發附近衛所充軍各該掌印官聽從者參究治罪

English version:
Unequally Levying Taxes and Corvee Services [Fuyi bujun]

In all cases where authorities levy grain taxes shuiliang and miscellaneous corvee services zafan chaiyi, they shall investigate the number of households and individuals and field products within the registers and establish the upper, middle, and lower degrees and levy the taxes and corvee services. If they release the rich and poor people or shift the degrees and practice fraud, the aggrieved poor people may accuse them to, from bottom to top from lower to higher authorities, their superior offices....If illicit goods are accepted, calculate the amount of the goods, and they shall be punished by the heavier penalties on the basis of subverting the law.

According to Rossel, upholding the principle of fidelity to the source text does not entail reproducing the source text word for word but rather producing a text that leads to the same results in practice (Rossel, 1991). The more the translators take into consideration the source text, the more elements they are able to transfer. As is shown from the above example, the source text places precise rules on the "賦役不均" by providing such regulations as "一布按二分巡分守官直隸巡按御史嚴督府州縣掌印正官審編均從公查照歲額差使......;一各布政司并值隸府州縣掌印官如遇各部派到物從公斟酌所屬大小豐歉坐派豪猾規利之徒......發附近衛所充軍各該掌印官聽從者參究治罪", which can be said to be rather detail and rich. Nonetheless, the English version of The Great Ming Code is intended for legal scholars, historians, and socialist and so on, and it will more ore less be difficult to understand all of the regulations to a certain degree. Faced with such difficulty, Jiang Yonglin compromises and chooses omission skill, leaving the burdensome 382 regulations in the source text out for the sake of brevity and acceptability.

Translation Norms and the English Version of *The Great Ming Code*

Every original work can be viewed as a re-creation of a re-recreation or by extension, a translation of a translation (Gentzler, 1993). Since norms and translation are interwoven with each other, are there any certain translation norms in that society that exert substantial influences on Jiang Yonglin's behaviour? is Jiang Yonglin powerful and competent to change norms while translating The Great Ming Code? And above all it is to what extent and in what circumstances that Jiang Yonglin based on the personal knowledge and values available about source and target rules objectively, makes choices without overstepping the boundaries of loyalty.

(1) Expectancy Norms in the Translation of *The Great Ming Code*

Expectancy norms allow evaluate judgments about translations since readers have a notion of what is an "appropriate" or "acceptable" translation of the specific text variety and will approve of a translated conforms to these expectations (Chesterman, 2012). Legal translation is receiver-oriented (Sarcevic, S 1997). This is all the more surprising because legal communication can be effective only if interaction is achieved between text producers and receivers, that is, the the translated version should be completed in the spirit of the target language. Because of different

institutions, histories, cultures and sometimes socio-economic principles, each legal system has its own characteristic which makes it hard for receivers or addresses of legal texts to reach consensus. In attempt to present a receiver-oriented approach to legal translation, Jiang Yonglin , in order to be an effective text producer, must be thoroughly familiar with readers' expectations, in particular with popular and accepted translation strategies at that time. Before Jiang Yonglin translates The Great Ming Code, such legal codes as The Qing Code and Tang Code have been rendered into English and their English are well received by target readers. From the English version of The Qing Code and Tang Code, it can be discerned that explanatory information about specific information and addition of missing information or elements are employed by translators most to enrich target readers' knowledge about Chinese laws. In an attempt to follow the trends and cater for the expectations of target readers, Jiang Yonglin provides as much as background information as possible, such as the Ming Units of Measure and Money, introduction and sound and comprehensive glossary, making it easier for those who know little about Chinese legal code to get more about Chinese legal culture and then has the inspiration to go on with the English version. From the perspective of the language of legal English, the English version of The Great Ming Code shows the features of long and complex sentences and conditional sentences, and use of terms of art, etc. It is just through such skills that the acceptability of the translation can be ensured and guaranteed.

(2) Professional Norms in the Translation of *The Great Ming Code*

Jiang Yong, as the former president of Ming Association, has the high sense of responsibility from the perspective of accountability norms. He is so prudent and meticulous about the words and expression that the final translation has been finalized after deep discretion even though he is competent and proficient in the usage of both English and Chinese. It is this kind of accountability that motivated Jiang Yonglin to take his initiative to make selective choices when translating *The Great Ming Code*. Jiang Yonglin once lived in China and therefore he has a better understanding of basic feature of Chinese language and legal system. Meanwhile, he is the professor of Bryn Mawr College, lecturing Eastern Asia culture.The complex and rich life experience and extent knowledge enable him to realize the huge difference between English and Chinese, especially when translating the seemingly competed but burdensome 382 regulations (li) that were attached to the Code during the Wanli reign, such translating skill as omitting is adopted, based on Jiang Yonglin's ethical norm and his awareness of accountability to adopt proper language expression accessible to English readers, to maintain the brevity and readability of the English version after taking the features of English and Chinese language into consideration.

The English version of The Great Ming Code came to its final form in 2005, during which time the diplomatic relation between China and America is normalized, fostering the communication between culture, law and society and so on. Nevertheless, The Tang Code and The Qing Code have been rendered into English at early time, leaving the gap for getting a full and comprehensive understanding of Chinese legal system in ancient time. Thus Jiang Yonglin takes the initiative to translate The Great Ming Code to get more people have a good knowledge of Chinese legal system in that time and promote the cultural communication among countries. In order to realize this objective, the first and foremost task that the translator has to undertake is to promote the communicative function of the The Great Ming Code and enable the target readers to understand the English version as much as possible from the perspective of the communication norms. It is commonly recognized that not all of the target readers are able to fully have a deeper understanding of the English version of The Great Ming Code due to the fact that the legal language its is more often than not obscure and hard to understand. According to Jackson, it is true that legal language needs to draw upon the whole resources of the natural language for its intelligibility, but legal language may only, to the extent that it resembles ordinary language, appear to be intelligible to the layperson (Jackson 1985). Therefore, such two elements have to be taken into account while translating *The Great Ming Code*, that is, brevity and readability. The main function of The Great Ming Code is to get the target readers have a comprehensive and sound look at the ancient legal system from Tang to Qing dynasty, and then brevity is a prerequisite during the transmitting process so as to impress the readers deeply. Influenced by communicative norms, Jiang Yonglin will, to a certain degree, consciously adopt domestication strategies, such as providing missing information in the source text, omitting the redundant 382 regulations and using correspondent concepts in place of the source terms, meanwhile trying to preserve the English language style and norm. It has to be admitted that the communicative norms have been embodied from the rich supplemental information and left-out redundant regulations.

Directed by the communication norms and drawing on the relation norms, domestication and foreignization are combined together by Jiang Yonglin in the translation of The Great Ming Code according to his own understanding of the translation of Chinese legal classics. On the one hand, Jiang Yonglin searches for adequate equivalents in the target language so as to convert a non-equivalent functional equivalent into a near equivalent one. On the other hand, the pinyin system of romanization of Chinese terms is used throughout the Code. As a reflection of social reality, the lexicon of a language is in constant flux. New words are created to express new objects and relations. As Hardy commented: "Words have no intrinsic significance; their meaning is that which is given to them in a given milieu at a given time"(1962: 82). As illustrated by the following example, "應議者之父祖有犯" is rendered into "Committing Crimes by the Parents or Paternal Grandparents of Those Entitled to the Eight Deliberations [Yingyizhe zhi fuzu youfan]". Jiang Yonglin exerts every possible way to make the target readers better understand the meaning and implications of "應議者之父祖有犯" by rendering into "Committing Crimes by the Parents or Paternal Grandparents of Those Entitled to the Eight Deliberations and preserve the nature and exotic feature of Chinese language by using the

pinyin system "Yingyizhe zhi fuzu youfan".

As is evidenced from the above analysis, domestication and foreignization are employed all through the translated version by Jiang Yonglin due to the constraint of accountability norms, communication norms and relation norms after taking the translation objectives and language differences between English and Chinese into consideration and following the translation ethics. Meanwhile, translation norms have the function of restriction and guidelines, and translation strategies under such norms will surely be popular in the target language. Obviously, the English version of *The Great Ming Code* is proved to be the well acceptable one and highly praised by target readers.

IV. DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

As is seen from the above analysis, Jiang Yonglin, governed by various norms, intervenes actively in the following ways:

1) fitting target readers' expectations. Addition of missing sentence elements is common in the English translation of *The Great Ming Code* in order to make the translation more accessible and comprehensible and such skill is indeed appropriate and proper, where domestication is adopted to foster the realization of translation objectives.

2) promoting cultural communication and building harmonious relations. Jiang Yonglin takes advantage of his own knowledge to adopt accessible strategies of domestication and foreignization when translating so as to maximize the relevance of communication for the intended readers/receptors (Gutt, 1991). Directed by relation norms, omission is employed to reduce the ambiguity and trouble caused by the cultural difference, which is proved to be effective for the translated version's popularity among receptors.

This paper offers new reflections on the role of norms and research on norms in the field of translation of Chinese legal classics and briefly refers to the case study of *The Great Ming Code* to broaden the research scope in such field.

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A Study on the Effectiveness of English Grammar Teaching and Learning in Chinese Junior Middle Schools

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Abstract—**The article conducts a questionnaire survey and interview on the students and teachers in three different junior middle schools in Zhejiang Province of China. The results indicate that the effectiveness in English grammar teaching and learning is not satisfactory. And the grammatical competence is not correlated with the goals and objectives of the National English Curriculum. There is significant demand for teachers to encourage students to improve the efficiency and accuracy of English grammar. The outcome is useful for foreign language researchers to know better about current situation of grammar teaching and learning in Chinese junior middle schools. Some suggestions are presented to enhance the effectiveness of English grammar teaching and learning.**

Index Terms—**grammatical competence, effectiveness, teaching and learning**

I. INTRODUCTION

For decades, the value of grammar in foreign language teaching and learning has been a focus of debate. Perhaps there will never be a solution to the debate whether grammar should be taught or not and to what extent grammar is supposed to be taught. It is believed that teaching grammar is less significant for children than adults and it plays a less important part in listening and reading than writing (Celce-Murcia, 1991). Despite many various views about the role of grammar in language teaching and learning, it is incontestable that the importance of grammar can't be ignored, especially in formal classroom language teaching. However, for a long time, English grammar has been a headache for many teachers and students. Although it takes teachers and students a great amount of time to get access to English grammar teaching, the effect is not that obvious. Analyzing different approaches and problems related to each approach, Ellis (2006) states that teaching grammar is undoubtedly necessary for mastering the language, for achieving accuracy and fluency. Nowadays, most junior middle school students in China are willing and encouraged to speak English. Some of them are able to speak English fluently, but they fail to meet the demand of grammatical accuracy.

In China, as great importance is attached to applied linguistics from "teaching" to "learning", language learning strategies have aroused widespread concern among linguistic experts (Huang, 2017). Language learning strategies refer to a series of methods or behaviors used by learners to understand, learn, and memorize language information (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). It is widely recognized that learning strategies are of vital importance in teaching and learning of English grammar. But what kind of learning strategy is the most effective for junior middle school students in China? How can learning strategy be effectively conducted in a language classroom? In order to address the above questions, a survey is conducted to analyze current learning problems of English grammar that students in junior middle schools have. Some suggestions are put forward to improve students' grammatical competence and it is expected that they will be useful for teachers of English when they present grammar knowledge.

II. RESEARCH METHOD

A. Research Aims

This study intends to figure out the current situation of grammar learning and teaching in Chinese middle school students. In this way, problems in grammar learning and teaching can be pointed out. Meanwhile, the research focuses on investigating the effectiveness of English grammar teaching and learning. In order to collect comprehensive information about it, a questionnaire is designed in different perspectives. Students' preview before class, learning conditions in class, and consolidation after class, etc. are included in the questionnaire. It also aims to put forward feasible suggestions and learning strategies on these issues and explore a reliable path to improve the effectiveness of grammar teaching and learning in junior middle schools.

B. Subjects

At any stage and in any circumstance, English grammar teaching should not be diluted, especially in the period of junior middle schools because of its detectable significance. Since Grade Seven is the first year of junior middle schooling in China, students in Grade Seven are new to English grammar learning, thus having no idea about grammar. Grade Eight and Grade Nine students have learned model verbs, present progressive tense, simple past tense, prepositions, sentence types, etc. Therefore, Grade Eight and Grade Nine students have a more comprehensive view on grammar learning than Grade Seven students, and the subjects of this study are chosen from Grade Eight and Grade Nine students and their English teachers in three different middle schools in Zhejiang province of China. A total of 148 students, including 71 male students and 77 female students, are from different classes of discriminating English levels. There are altogether 30 teachers taking part in this research.

C. Instrument

In the study, questionnaires and interviews are used to collect data. Through questionnaires, students and teachers are asked to answer 15 relative questions, intending to learn about the students' learning effectiveness of English grammar and current methodology of English grammar teaching and learning. The questionnaires are administered at the beginning of a new semester with the help of the teachers. In order to make every student understand each statement clearly, Chinese version of the questionnaire is used. During the whole process, the students and teachers were informed of the purpose of the study and told that there was no right or wrong answer. Therefore, they just answered each question honestly and frankly according to their own opinion and behavior. Ultimately 178 questionnaires were received and the data was analyzed manually. In addition, a total of 9 students (three from each school) and 3 teachers (one from each grade) who were randomly chosen from the three different middle schools, were interviewed exclusively.

III. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

The following tabulations present the results of the research. It is found that the following main factors are related to students' learning effectiveness of English grammar by respectively analyzing the 15 questions in the questionnaires.

A. English Grammar Learning in Chinese Junior Middle Schools

In the research, 148 students were involved in the investigation about English grammar learning. English grammar learning is an objective requirement for cultivating their communicative competence and it plays an important role in English learning. A survey was carried out accordingly. It proves that effectiveness of grammar learning in Chinese junior middle schools is not satisfactory.

TABLE 1:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF GRAMMAR LEARNING CONDITION

ITEM	OPTIONS	PROPORTION
1. Interest in English grammar learning	Very strong	14%
	Strong	41%
	Not bad	36%
	Low	7%
	Very low	2%
2. Position of English grammar in English Learning	Very important	48%
	important	39%
	Not bad	11%
	Useless	1%
	Very useless	1%
3. English grammar practice in classroom	Having a complete understanding of learned grammar knowledge	6%
	Understanding the vast majority of learned grammar knowledge	36%
	Feeling unclear about grammar knowledge	47%
	Feeling completely confused about grammar knowledge	5%
	Not knowing what is grammar at all	6%

According to the descriptive statistics of students' grammar learning condition, Table 1 shows that most Chinese junior middle school students have realized the importance of grammar learning in English study and over half of them also have willingness to learn grammar well. However, most students cannot effectively master the grammar knowledge system, so their learning efficiency is quite low. Nearly half students feel unclear about grammar knowledge after a year of learning, at the same time, 5% of them feel completely confused about grammar knowledge and 6% of them even don't know what grammar is at all. The results of the interview show that many students do not know how to effectively consolidate grammar knowledge that they have learned. What's more, in the interview, the majority of students involved admitted that the accuracy of grammar knowledge was low when they spoke or wrote in English, and they often made grammatical errors unconsciously. They want to improve their grammatical competence, but just don't know what to learn and how to learn it.

B. English Grammar Teaching in Chinese Junior Middle Schools

Altogether 30 teachers were involved in the investigation about English grammar teaching in the research.

For a language learning, the mastery and usage of necessary grammar is a prerequisite for language acquisition. For junior middle school students in China, it is unrealistic for students alone to have the natural acquisition of English grammar. Therefore, it is very necessary for English teachers to use scientific strategies to present, explain and train students' grammar knowledge through curriculum teaching. It is widely acknowledged that, for a long time, teachers of English in China have been adopting mechanical and deductive teaching methods, which provide students with a clear description and explanation of complex grammatical rules. However, these two approaches often result in an inability on the part of the students to use the target language for communication. This kind of monotonous teaching style is likely to make students lose interest in English grammar learning. In order to examine the teaching of English grammar at this stage, a corresponding investigation is made.

TABLE 2:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF GRAMMAR TEACHING CONDITION

ITEM	OPTIONS	PROPORTION
1. Classroom coordination	Very high	6%
	High	47%
	Not bad	47%
	Low	0%
	Very low	0%
2.Main grammar teaching method	Grammar-translation teaching method	40%
	Task-based language teaching method	18%
	Communicative teaching method	18%
	Situation teaching method	22%
	Others	2%
3. Ideal grammar teaching method	Presenting in a more inductive way than a deductive way	44%
	Practising more flexibly than mechanically	56%

The descriptive statistics of grammar teaching condition has revealed the problem that students' learning efficiency is relatively low although they make great effort in learning English grammar. The analysis of Table 2 is consistent with that of Table 1: most students study hard and nearly all of them actively cooperate with teachers in class. Table 2 also show that the main grammar teaching method is still traditional teaching method (Grammar-translation teaching method), task-based language teaching method and communicative teaching method account for the same proportion in classroom teaching, and situation teaching method account for 22%. As for the ideal grammar teaching method, it seems that teachers are actually well aware of the disadvantages of exam-oriented education and want to make a difference. 44 percent of the teachers think that presenting in a more inductive way than a deductive way is anticipated in English grammar class, and the rest of them hold that it is reasonable to make the classroom practice more flexibly instead of doing mechanical drills. Chastain (1988) states that all students have their own learning strategies. Among them, some are successful while others are not. Therefore, the approaches of consolidation have to correspond to students' learning strategies.

The interviews also confirm the above results of questionnaires to some extent. Even though grammar learning is boring and sometimes difficult, many students still have a very positive attitude towards it. Both teachers and students are struggling to find appropriate ways to improve learning efficiency and grammatical competence.

As a result of the problems reflected in students' learning and teachers' teaching, it is found that sharp contradictions are apparent in the relationships between students' learning effectiveness and teachers' teaching strategies. Students lack the ability to master English grammar effectively and teachers lack the consciousness of integrated teaching method. Therefore, how to effectively solve the problem of low efficiency of English grammar learning and teaching in junior middle schools is particularly important.

C. Difficulties Encountered During Students' Grammar Learning

Table 2 indicates that grammar-translation teaching method is employed most frequently in class. Therefor, in China, most teachers of English in junior middle schools tend to use traditional teaching methods in their teaching. There are many mechanical drills and practice in class, which causes various difficulties during students' grammar learning.

TABLE 3:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF DIFFICULTIES ENCOUNTERED DURING STUDENTS' GRAMMAR LEARNING

DIFFICULTIES	PROPORTION
Not understanding the grammar knowledge taught by the teacher in class	55%
Having many written errors	11%
Having many oral grammatical errors	25%
Having no time to memorize grammar knowledge	5%
Having no interest in English grammar	4%

According to the descriptive statistics of difficulties that are often encountered during students' grammar learning (Table 3), more than half students think that they all ever have difficulties in understanding teachers' explanation of new grammar knowledge in class. Nearly one tenth of them hold that there are many written errors in their grammar learning. One fourth of them think the grammatical errors in their spoken English is another matter that makes them helpless. And 5% of them complain they are too busy to memorize grammatical knowledge. 4% of them have no interest in English grammar learning at all.

The analysis of Table 1 shows that different students perform differently in school. Table 2 reveals that different teachers use different grammar teaching methods in class, and Table 3 indicates that different students are faced with different learning difficulties in class or after class. Therefore, according to the questionnaires and the interviews, students behave differently when they consolidate grammar knowledge which has been learned. 61 percent of students internalize the learned grammar knowledge by doing exercise in class or after class, which is regarded as the most common way to achieve consolidation in China. 9 percent of the students apply and reinforce the learned grammar knowledge in actual language communication. 19 percent of them internalize the learned knowledge by autonomously reading related materials in English. In the interview, some of the interviewees said reading English materials help them gain bigger vocabulary and get familiar with more sentence patterns and the usage of tense and voice. They could not only easily improve their strategies in grammar learning, but also improve their apprehensive learning abilities. To some degree, reading related materials can help them to consolidate grammar knowledge, broaden their horizons and increase their interest in learning English. It can be assumed that reading is an emerging way to help students learn grammar better and more effectively.

No matter whether they are in class or after class, teachers need to respect the students' dominant position in English learning. In the process of teaching, they need to fully integrate their own characteristics and improve students' self-efficiency in their teaching process. Teacher's language input in class is not enough. It means that students should do a lot of self-learning outside class. Due to the importance of grammar learning, how much they master grammar knowledge has a direct impact on their interest in learning and their learning efficiency. According to the study of neuroscience, it can be known that the brains of junior middle school students are abundant and they have good plasticity. Active environment and flexible teaching strategies can promote students' cognitive development and learning effects. Teachers should have perseverance, patience, and enthusiasm, and try different kinds of teaching methods to gain integrated teaching methods. It is a good choice to use induction and mind mapping in the teaching process.

IV. SUGGESTIONS

A. Encouraging Students to Read Classics

The results of the research show that junior middle school students have awareness and willingness of using English, but the efficiency and accuracy is comparatively low. Students have many common misconceptions and misuses about grammar. Since grammar knowledge covered by classroom teaching is extremely limited, the learners must consolidate the existing grammar knowledge and supplement new grammar knowledge through a large number of communication activities. Among them, reading a large number of English classics is undoubtedly a good way to promote students' grammatical competence. A classic is a kind of reading materials which is regarded as a high literary standard and always well-known to almost people due to its popularity. Studies have shown that a large amount of guided reading can benefit foreign language learners significantly in the organization of sentence structures (Chomsky, 1980). This indicates that the acquisition of grammatical knowledge cannot rely entirely on classroom teaching. Hence, as another important means to gain grammatical knowledge, extracurricular guided reading by teachers is quite necessary and helpful. More specifically, encouraging students to read more classics is a measurable way to make students get improvement of grammar learning. Therefore, teachers must learn to instruct students to read more and improve their reading accumulation continuously, finally guide them to use a variety of sentence structures accurately in their communication.

B. Using Integrated Teaching Methods Rationally

Although English grammar teaching is not only an in-class task, there is no denying that effectiveness in the classroom is the more important than compensatory learning after class. In order to improve effectiveness in the classroom, teachers should actively explore effective and appropriate methods of grammar teaching, such as communicative teaching method, task-based language teaching method, guiding exploration teaching method, cooperative teaching method and etc. Teachers should rationally use integrated teaching methods according to the specific situations and demands. That is to say, when dealing with different levels of grammar knowledge, teachers should skillfully change the one-centered teaching method and combine it with other corresponding teaching methods. For example, when explaining the usage of present progressive tense, teachers are advised to use communicative teaching method as the one-centered method because communication can easily acquaint students with the correct usage of present progressive tense. Teaching method should be adjusted with students' grammar learning situations. At the same time, students are supposed to cooperate with teachers to change their own learning strategies into better ones. Besides, it is widely recognized that free, positive and pleasant communicating environment in class contributes to

higher learning efficiency. Teachers should not only teach the rules of grammar, but also pay attention to the practical application of grammar, and guide the students to cooperate with others to enhance their own learning strategy and learn grammar more efficiently. Furthermore, grammar teaching should expand in-class work. For instance, teachers should give students more opportunities to engage in oral communication to improve their grammatical competence as well.

C. Guiding Explicit and Implicit Teaching Respectively

To improve students' grammar learning efficiency, teachers should pay attention to the role of explicit knowledge in language learning and the value of discovery as a general method of learning (Ellis, 2002). In language learning, implicit knowledge refers to knowledge that unconsciously exists in the mind, which we can make use of automatically without making any effort. Explicit knowledge refers to conscious knowledge about the language. Students can talk about it, analyze it and apply it in conscious ways. Teachers should respectively choose these two theoretical issues according to students' age, interest, learning ability, motivation, and foreign language proficiency. Since junior middle school students are of weak learning ability and unclear learning motivation, teachers need more implicit teaching when explaining difficult grammar knowledge. In addition, teachers should also recognize that the use of explicit and implicit teaching in grammar teaching is not absolute, and they are affected by other factors. It is necessary to reasonably combine explicit teaching with implicit teaching to improve students' grammar learning efficiency.

D. Pointing out Students' Errors Skillfully

The results of the research indicate that most students could not realize their grammatical errors in their conversations. Errors which are not correctly will eventually evolve into customary errors in the future learning. Therefore, foreign language classes must include error correction (Hedge, 2002). Thus, during grammar teaching, teachers should pay attention to correct students' errors reasonably. There are generally two ways to correct students' errors: "explicit method" and "implicit method". The "explicit method" means that teachers explicitly pointed out what kind of grammatical mistakes students have made and pointed out the correct grammatical knowledge by means of analysis. The "implicit method" means that teachers should use various means to provide students with hints about the errors, helping students find out errors themselves. Some grammatical errors, such as lexical errors, are difficult for learners to perceive. Therefore, teachers should explicitly explain to them or implicitly guide students frequently to strengthen their awareness and concept of error correction in communications. In this way, the accuracy of students' grammar learning will be greatly improved. In addition, as for the time to point out students' errors, teachers should attach great importance to the suitable time. Some serious and common grammar errors should be pointed out immediately in classroom, while some minor errors can be pointed after class. As teachers are not the only group to do the correction, peer correction and classmate correction are also advisable according to different situations. Teachers should learn how to effectively help students correct errors, taking their personality and the specific grammatical errors they make into account, so that students can realize the errors consciously, without hurting their self-esteem.

V. CONCLUSION

Through the study, it is apparent that the effectiveness that junior middle school students show in English grammar learning is very low, and teachers' current teaching strategies cannot meet the standard of students' communicative competence. Besides, the results of the survey demonstrate that there is a significant demand for teachers to encourage students to improve the efficiency and accuracy of English grammar from reading. The results are useful for foreign language researchers to know better about Chinese junior middle school students' situation of grammar learning, and offer some valuable reference for enhancing English grammar teaching efficiency. In order to improve learners' proficiency and accuracy and facilitate the internalization of its syntactic system in grammar teaching, teachers of English are supposed to encourage students to read classics, try to use integrated teaching methods rationally, guide explicit and implicit teaching respectively, and point out students' errors skillfully. As long as students get access to the effective English grammar learning strategies, both teachers and students are bound to find gratification in English grammar teaching and learning. Students who hold positive and effective learning strategies are more likely to possess appropriate comprehensive ability and communicative competence.

All in all, English grammar teaching is an important part of English teaching. How to use effective teaching methods to organize grammar teaching is a big problem that all teachers of English in junior middle schools should think about. Teachers should not only have a clear understanding of the importance of grammar teaching, but also have a new consciousness of the purpose of grammar teaching in junior middle schools. What's more, teachers need constantly adjust and improve their teaching methods to enhance their integrated teaching methods. Therefore, students can effectively absorb grammatical knowledge through listening, speaking, reading, writing and other skills. Since grammar is naturally infiltrated throughout daily basic English learning, only if grammar teaching is authentic, interesting, effective and practical, can grammar teaching truly become an effective means to promote the improvement of the comprehensive language ability of junior middle school students.

In this research, the subjects investigated are not universal enough, so the results of the study may have some limitations. Therefore, the follow-up research could be carried out on the basis of this research and the subjects can be

students of different grades in different junior middle schools in different provinces. It can focus on analyzing the main factors that influence students' learning effectiveness, which will function as a dynamic and referential choice and application of English grammar teaching and learning.

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A Meso-levels Critical Discourse Analysis of the Movie *Rudy Habibie*

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Abstract—Movie and discourse have been an academic concern. Based on the theoretical framework of Fairclough concept (1995), this study attempts to make a meso-level critical discourse analysis of a local movie, Rudy Habibie (2016). It explores how the discursive is formed and legitimized in the process of production, distribution, and consumption by the representation of the movie Rudy Habibie. It validates the effectiveness of CDA as a tool to reveal the relationship between language and ideology. It proves that Fairclough's framework can be applied in the movie discursive study. Pratically it draws the attention to the ideologies embedded in movie discourse and encourages to improve the critical thinking. The findings described the various behaviors taken from the movie Rudy Habibie which are aimed to reveal stereotypes, presuppositions, hegemony, power and ideological stances. As the consequences, this movie became the best selling movie in 2016. The presented ideology delivered the audience through the story of the movie as the result of the text production, distribution, and consumption. The representation contributes to the construction of social power. Furthermore, the research believed having implications for language teaching, especially in CDA subject. Toward the applying of the CDA approach in the course, the student will be able to achieve the understanding of the writer's style, finding meaning and reasons for particular stylistic choices.

Index Terms—critical discourse analysis, discursive practice, meso-level framework, text production, text distribution, text consumption

I. INTRODUCTION

Discourse can be seen as a set of meanings, metaphors, representations, images, stories, reports and so on which in some way produce certain versions of events together (Baker & Ellece, 2011). Chen (2016) argues that discourse is socially shaped and socially constitutive. Any discursive event is seen as being simultaneously a piece of text, an instance of discursive practice, and an instance of social practice (Fairclough, 1992). There may be various different discourses with a different story about the world and in different ways in representing the world. As the qualitative analytical approach, critical discourse analysis (CDA) critically describes, interprets, and explains the ways in which discourses construct, maintain, and legitimize social imbalance. CDA studies the social power in a social context, including political by talking not only about semantic meanings of the discourse. The CDA highlights the substantively linguistic and discursive nature of social relations of power in contemporary societies. In defining CDA, Fairclough (1995) mentioned three central constructs, (1) Text and the study of 'texture'. It is related to linguistics, for example by looking at the vocabulary, semantics, and sentence, as well as coherence and cohesiveness, and how these units form a metaphor; (2) Discoursal practices and the concept 'orders of discourse'. It is a dimension related to the process of production and consumption of text, like work patterns, work charts, and routines when generating news.; and (3) sociocultural practices and the concept of 'culture'. It related to context outside the text; such as the context of the situation or the context of the media in relation to a particular society or political culture. CDA provides theories and methods that can be used to conduct empirical studies of the relationships between discourse and social, including cultural development in different social domains. The purpose of CDA is to explain the linguistic dimensions of the social and cultural phenomenon and the process of change in modernity (Jogensen& Phillips, 2007, p. 15).

Discursive practice requires the interpretation of discursive process which includes the aspects of production, distribution, and consumption of the text. In the production stage, the in-depth analysis was done for the whole involved parties in order to know the ways in producing the text. In the text distribution stage, the used media were analyzed in order to describe how media distribute the text, whether through the printed or electronic media. It should be examined to know the impact on the discourse effect because every media has different advantages and disadvantages. In the text

consumption stage, the targeted text receivers were analyzed to know who consumes the media because each media has a different market share.
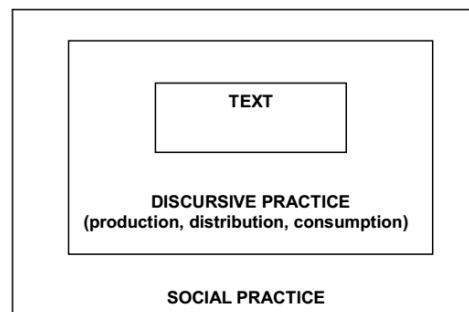

Figure 1. Fairclough's Framework of discursive practice interpretation

In CDA, the language context can be seen as a tool used for certain purposes and practices including ideological practice and power. It can be seen as a central concept of the CDA. Raymond William in Fiske (1990) described ideology in 3 domains; 1) a belief system by a particular group or class. This definition is used in the realm of psychology that views psychology as an attitude that is formed and coherently organized; 2) a created belief system that can be countered with knowledge. In this sense, ideology is a created category and a false consciousness when the dominant group uses it to dominate other non-dominant groups; 3) the general process of meanings and ideas production. The text reflects the ideology through the language and it can influence the way people thinking. Discourse can be seen as a medium to persuade people. In his research findings, Chen (2016) argues that the linguistic differences involving such areas as lexical classification, process types, and discourse representation can be traced back to the personal ideological orientations. It can't be explained without taking the different ideological orientations and power relations into consideration. Basically, language is shaped by power and ideology. Ideologies reside in discourse. Ideology and power are primarily discursive in nature. Ideology is primarily established, sustained and challenged.

Discourse covers not only written and spoken languages but includes visual images (Jorgensen& Phillips, 2002). It is possible to be applied through considering the special characteristics of visual semiotics and the relationship between language and image. As one of the visual images, the movie can be seen as a product of the human culture that represents the values of the views of certain groups of people, including their spirit and ideologies. As a cultural artwork and cinematography that can be demonstrated with or without sound, Trianton (2013) argues that movie is a mass communication media that carries messages containing important ideas submitted to the public in the form of spectacle. The movie can be described as life images that contain stories. Furthermore, Mcluhan (1997) argues that a movie is an experience in non-verbal form like photography including a form of statement without syntax. As a media, the movie certainly represents the views held by a particular group, including the ideology and ideas brought by the group. This becomes very essential because the movie conveys the ideology subtly and has the element of coercion.

Rudy Habibie is 2016 Indonesian drama movie about a visionary youth story: *Rudy Habibie* before he was known as a technocrat and the 3rd Republic of Indonesia president, *B.J. Habibie*. This movie received a positive response from the public and shown by its' position on the three best-selling 2016 Indonesian movie list with two million viewers. In 2016, *Rudy Habibibie* the movie got some awards in Bandung film festival for, (1) praised film category award; (2) the praised actress award by *Chelsea Islan*; and (3) the supported actress award by *Indah Permatasari*. As a media, this movie was intended to convey an ideology that can affect the viewers through written and spoken languages including the visual images. Media can be seen a tool to deliver the ideology (Zhang, 2014; Mayasari, et. all., 2013; Vahid & Esmae'li, 2012; Kaur, et.al., 2013; Iqbal, et. all., 2014a, 2014b). By the end, the finding of this research can be used as the alternative of attractive teaching media in critical discourse analysis course.

II. METHODOLOGY

The research was begun with preliminary study through the observation and literature study about CDA, discursive practice, the movie *Rudy Habibie*, movie media, including ideology. Based on the preliminary research, topics and research problems were formulated. The developed theory is the CDA framing theory by Fairclough (1997). The research data are taken from text production, text distribution and text consumption of the movie *Rudy Habibie* (2016). The collected data was described, analyzed, interpreted and explained as a part of the qualitative method (Mulyana, 2001; Muhadjir, 2000). Fraenkel and Wallen (1993) strengthened by describing that qualitative research is considered to describe the research object completely and comprehensively. Qualitative research methods are interpreted as research that produces qualitative data in the form of written or spoken words of the people or observed behaviors (Moleong, 2002).

TABLE 1.
THE PROCEDURE OF DATA ANALYSIS
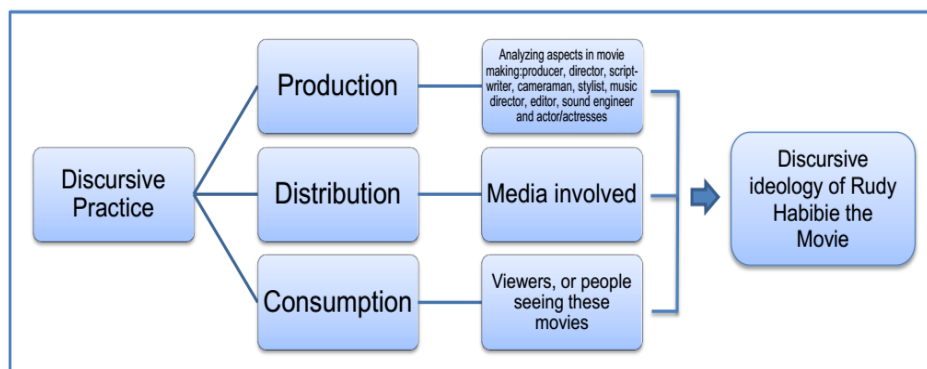
III. RESULT AND ANALYSIS

Based on data analysis taken from the movie *Rudy Habibie* (2016) through meso-levels analysis, the findings and discussion described in the below divided in the text of production, distribution, and consumption.

Text Production

In this part, to show the elements related to production process analyzed and interpreted. The below table presents the person in charge involved in the production process of the movie *Rudy Habibie*.

TABLE 2.
TEXT PRODUCTION

No	Position	Person in Charge	Analysis Results
1	Production house	MD Entertainment	Multi Dimensia Entertainment (or MD Entertainment) is a production house in Indonesia. It was founded by *Dhamoo Punjabi* and *Manoj Punjabi*, after leaving Multivision Plus on December 7, 2002. During the year of 2005 up to 2016, 22 awards had been obtained, including many prestigious awards such as Panasonic Awards, SCTV Awards, Indonesian Movie Awards and Yahoo OMG Awards.
2	Producer	Manoj Punjabi	He is a film and television producer and the owner of the biggest Indonesia production house. In 2007, He produced 11 movie title with a large audience. One of his movie, *Danur: I can see ghost*, got an award from the Indonesian World Records Museum as a horror movie with the highest number of viewers in just six days, which is 1,196,583 viewers.
3	Director	Hanung Bramantyo	He is an Indonesian director. In 2005 Indonesia film festival, he won the best director award through his directed movie, *Brownies*. He was also nominated as best director in the independent movie, *Sayekti and Hanafi*. In 2007 Indonesian film festival, he won the best director through *Get Married Movie*. He did not finish his study at the faculty of economics in Indonesia Islamic University and in Yogyakarta Educational and Teaching Institute. He continued his study in film faculty department of Jakarta Art Institute. Several of his movies became controversial for how they deal with religion.
4	Script writer	Gina S. Noer	She is an Indonesia creativepreneur; co-founder and chief editor at PlotPoint Publishing & Workshop; and also known as screen writer for film and television.In 2008, she wrote the screenplay of *Ayat-Ayat Cinta* the movie which was a successful record-breaking audience of 3.5 million viewers. At the 2009 Indonesian Film Festival she was nominated as the Best Adaptation Scenario through *Perempuan Berkalung Sorban* the movie. In addition to its commercial success, the film also attracted controversy. At the 2010 Indonesian Film Festival, she was nominated for the Best Screenplay for *Hari untuk Amanda* the movie. In 2012, she was co-writer for screenplay *Habibie&Ainun* the movie based on the life and love story of former third Indonesian president Bacharuddin Jusuf Habibie and Hasri Ainun Besari. The film managed to break the record number of 2,000,000 viewers within two weeks of airing. The film reached 4,488,999 viewers. On December 7, 2013, together with Ifan Adriansyah Ismail won the Best Screenplay Writer trophy at the 2013 Indonesian Film Festival for *Habibie&Ainun* the movie. She graduated from *Universitas Indonesia*, majoring in broadcasting and mass-communication.
		Hanung Bramantyo	Same as the above information
5	Cameraman	Ipung Rachmat Syaiful	In 2015 Bandung Film Festival, he was selected as the commendable camera artist in *Guru Bangsa: Tjokroaminoto* the movie.
6	Art director	Allan Sebastian	At the 2015 Indonesian Film Festival, he won the Best Art Director category through *Guru Bangsa: Tjokroaminoto* the movie.

7	Editor	Wawan I. Wibowo	He won the Best Editor Award in 2009 Indonesian Film Festival for *Pintu Terlarang* the movie. In 2016, he won The Best Editor in Maya Award for *Aisyah: Biarkan Kami Bersaudara* the movie. For Citra Award, in 2016, he won it for *My Stupid Bos* the movie, in 2014 for *Soekarno* the movie and in 2009 for *Pintu Terlarang* the movie.
8	Music editor	Tya Subiakto	She is a composer, conductor, music director and film director. She won the praised music director in 2008 Bandung Film Festival for *Ayat-Ayat Cinta* the movie and in 2011 Bandung Film Festival for *Sang Pencerah* the movie.
9	Sound editor	KhikmawanSantosa	In 2004, he began his first career as a voice recorder and sound editor in *Virgin* and *Brownies* the movie. In 2009, he won the Best Sound Editor award in Indonesia Film Festival *Ruma Maida* the movie. In 2013, he won Citra award as the Best Sound Editor for *Sang Kyai* the movie. In 2017 Indonesia Film Festival, he won four nominations in the Best Sound Editor category through *Kartini* the movie, *Pengabdi Setan* the movie, *Cek Toko Sebelah* the movie and *Critical Eleven* the movie.
10	Sound designer	Chris David	Christopher Sinclair David is a sound designer who became the mainstay of Hollywood movies (*Face Off, Alien 3, American Pie, The Expendables* and *Olympus Has Fallen)*. He received an Oscar nomination for the film *Legend of The Fall* in 1994.
11	Actors and actresses	Reza Rahardian as Rudy Habibie	In 2009, *Reza* won Citra award for the best supporting actor in *Perempuan Berkalung Sorban* the movie. In the following year, he won the *Citra* award for the best actor in *3 Hati, Dua Dunia* the movie. In 2013, Reza won IMA Gold Screen Cup for the top favorite actor in *Habibie&Ainun* the movie.
		Chelsea Islan as Illona Ianovska	Chelsea has had a basis in acting through the best theater stage. She has been awarded for the best actress nominations for *Di Balik 98* the movie in 2015 and the movie *Rudy Habibie* in 2016.
		Ernest Prakarsa as Liem Keng Kie	He is an Indonesian comedian, writer, and actor. He became popular after receiving the 3rd place in Stand Up Comedy Indonesia in 2011. In 2016, He won an award of the best scenario writer in Indonesia Box Office Movie Awards for *Ngenest* the movie.
		Boris Bokir as Poltak Hasibuan	He is a comedian and known since becoming one of the participants at Stand Up Comedy Indonesia in Kompas TV in 2012.
		Verdy Solaiman as Romo Mangun	In 2004 he studied acting in *Sakti Aktor Studio* School of Acting. He engaged in theatrical performances of off-broadway works and staging *Mass Appeal* from *Bill C. Davis*. He is an actor and creative director of promoting some movies. He was nominated as the best supporting actor in 2009 Indonesia Film Festival, 2010 Indonesia Movie Award and 2013 Indonesia Movie Award.
		Millane Fernandez as Sofia	She is an actress and a singer. She has experiences in MTV VJ Hunt. The movie *Rudy Habibie* is her 2nd experience in movie acting.
		Pandji Pragiwaksono as Peter Manumasa	He is an actor, radio broadcaster, television presenter, book author, rap singer, and stand up comedian.
		Indah Permatasari as Ayu (Solo sultan's daughter)	She is an actress and model. She won the praised supporting actress in 2016 Bandung Film Festival in *Rudy Habibie* the movie.
		Bagas Luhur Pribadi as Sugeng (Ayu's assistant)	He is an actor with the first debut in *Rudy Habibie* the movie.
		Dian Nitami as Mother of Rudy Habibie	She is an actress with many experiences in acting from 1986. She was nominated as the best actress in 1991 Indonesia Film Festival.
		Donny Damara as Father of Rudy Habibie	He is an actor with many experiences in acting from 1988. He won: 1) the best actor in 2012 Asian Film Award for *Lovely Man* the movie; 2) the best actor in 2012 Indonesia Movie Award for *Lovely Man* the movie; 3) the best actor in 2012 Indonesia Film Festival for *Lovely Man* the movie; 4) the best actor in 2012 Maya Award for *Lovely Man* the movie; 5) Chosen Actor Award in 2012 Balinale International Film Festival for *Lovely Man* the movie; and 6) Supported Actor in 2015 Maya Award for 2014, *Siapa di Atas Presiden* the movie.
12	Setting	Indonesia	Taken in Yogyakarta and Cisarua, Bogor
		German	80% was located in German

Source: https://id.wikipedia.org/

The table informed that Rudy Habibie the movie, a prequel of Habibie & Ainun the movie, was produced by *Manoj Punjabi* from MD Entertainment. MD Entertainment is known as one of the biggest production house in Indonesia that has a good image in making many successful and qualified movie. It can be seen from the various awards achieved. Not only about the quality, they know how to make the best selling movie.

As a producer, *Manoj* having self-confidence that *Rudy Habibie* the movie will be a success as the previous one, *Habibie & Ainun.* He realized and believed that *Habibie* is an inspiring figure that can attract many viewers. It strengthened with the date of the movie premiere that coinciding with BJ. Habibie 80th birthday on June 25th, 2016. Not only about *Habibie* figure, as a producer and a key person, Manoj totally understood what he should do to create his desire. He chose great people in the field of film to engage in producing this movie. *Hanung Bramantyo* was elected to

direct this movie. People know and believe his quality in directing a movie. He is one of the best Indonesian movie directors who achieved many rewards for his movie creation. *Hanung* is known for having idealism in doing his job. Hanung argued that *Rudy Habibie* the movie is a business-oriented product. They produced the movie by considering the things that can attract people to watch, like the romance story between Rudy and a Polish woman, Ilona, in German. Hanung realized that the lack of this movie is not shown the Ainun figure, in fact, this movie is a prequel of the previous movie, Habibie & Ainun.

Not only being a movie director, together with Gina S. Noer, Hanung prepared the script of Rudy Habibie the movie. The script adapted from a novel written by Gina, *Rudy: Kisah Masa Muda Sang Visioner*, and Hanung developed the story by considering market demand. This movie is fictional but with historical background. It created only "based on inspiring true story" and not "the true story". Some scenes seem excessive and too dramatized. In addition, the original soundtrack, *Mencari Cinta Sejati* by Cakra Khan, strengthen the romantic sense of the story. Pradeep (2016) stated that the songs are the other domain of doing CDA, it carries the many aspects of everyday life which are highly complex in the concern of the meaning-making process. Melly Goeslaw and Anto Hoed as the songwriter stated that it was not easy to create the song because they tried to compose the song to be felt as young Habibie in finding his true love. The song was more special because of the process of mastering performed by Marks Sherry at Outburst Studio, Scotland.

In the process of movie making, Manoj tried to maximize the whole thing. In order to get the quality of the movie sound, the sound mixing was done in Hollywood with Christopher Sinclair David, sound designer of *The Expendables*, *Olympus Has Fallen*, *Face Off*, *Alien 3*, *American Pie* who has received an Oscar nomination for the film *Legend of The Fall* (1994). Every scene in this movie has a deep soul and thrilling.

The actors and the actresses who involved in *Rudy Habibie* the movie are chosen by not only considering the quality but also by considering the audience's attraction. Reza Rahadian was believed to be the right figure as the main character of this movie. He was considered successful to portray *Habibie* figure. The involvement of Chelsea Islan strengthens the movie attraction. As a young actress, she has a very good star quality that comes not only from her performance and behavior but also from her experience of playing theater. Another interesting thing in this movie is the involvement of three famous Indonesian comics, Ernest Prakarsa, Boris Bokir, and Pandji Pragiwaksono. Hanung tried to feature the comedy side of the movie, but in this movie, he challenged them to act in the biopic or biographical motion picture movie. Other casts strengthen this movie through each character, including Dian Nitami and Dony Damara who have many experiences and achievements in the movie business.

The movie maker gave the attractive visual images by the setting composition, choreography as well as the European fashion used by the cast, especially Ilona. In addition to setting the location, composition, and angle of shooting, the property was able to bring the atmosphere into the past with a setting in Germany. Eighty percent of movie setting taken in Germany directly with local movie crews and the rest taken in Indonesia. The setting of every scene in this movie was complete. The cameramen and the art director having success in describing the nature of the village, the war, the family values, the social atmosphere, including the landscape of Germany complete with different geography, social life, work professionalism, struggle against challenge, educational life, romance, students' movement in Europe and diversity in frame of nationalism to mutual tolerance in respecting the worship.

Text Distribution

In the text distribution stage, the data showed that MD Pictures having good strategy and commitment by allocating the promotion budget around four to fifteen billion rupiahs. Manoj declared that sixty percent of the budget allocated in digital promotion and forty percent in the conventional. He believed that the promotion should be done in smart ways through various media (television, newspaper, magazine, radio, twitter, Instagram, youtube channel, facebook, and posters). One of Germany's national newspapers, *Sachsische Zeitung*, carried the news concerning with *Rudy Habibie* the movie.

To support the distribution, many programs had been designed attractively like a talk show, trailer including meet and greet. When the movie premiere, the producers invited many state officials to watch together and asked them to give testimonials related to *Rudy Habibie* the movie. Indonesian President, *Jokowi*, together with the vice president, *Jusuf Kalla*, and the ministers attended the premiere, including the 6th Indonesia President, *Susilo Bambang Yudhoyono*.

Text Consumption

As a media in discursive practice, a movie has the target audience as a product consumer. The data showed us that two million people have watched *Rudy Habibie* the movie, although Manoj, as the producer, has ambitions for *Rudy Habibie* the movie to be watched by 10 million people. In fact, *Rudy Habibie* the movie was in the third position of a best-selling movie in 2016. Besides in Indonesia, the movie had been shown in Malaysia.

IV. DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSION

The above findings describe the discursive practice taken from *Rudy Habibie* the movie as a media. Media is an explicit domain and public is exposed to various ideologies which influence and blindfold their mind as a certain ideology is enforced on them in their daily life (Ramanathan & Hoon, 2015). A movie can be seen as a text. Fairclough (1992) strengthen by describing that any discursive event is seen as being simultaneously a piece of text, an instance of discursive practice, and an instance of social practice. Three dimensions of discursive practice cover production, distribution, and consumption that taken from *Rudy Habibie* the movie produced the ideology.

The data showed that the movie maker proposed the ideology through Rudy Habibie the movie, not only about the story but also through the production process, the way they distribute the text and the consumption of the viewers. The moviemaker can be seen as the dominant group that try to influence the nondominant one. Mahboob and Paltridge (2013) proclaimed that it is crucial to examine the enactment of power and comprehend the means by which power is exercised by the domination group upon the oppressed. Rudy Habibie movie maker attempted to make the people believe that they must watch the movie because of the quality that produced by the qualified team. To achieve the goal, any propaganda as a part of the distribution stage had been done through various media. The used media reflected the targeted the audience. Manoj is really an expert in optimizing the media use.

The involvement of many good actors, a good team and many state officials as the important people in this country became a strength in distributing this movie as a product, and Manoj truly understands that. The figure of Reza Rahadian and Chelsea Islan is the attraction of the movie. In addition, the testimony from many important people like Jokowi, Jusuf Kalla, Susilo Bambang Yudhoyono, strengthen the movie distribution. The influence of those people made the audience believe in the quality of the movie. The figure of Habibie became the brand image of the movie. The story describing the figure of Rudy as a person who is genius, persistent, passionate, and optimistic.

In making this movie, the producer considered of being a success, to be watched by all ages, and to become the inspired movie. As the consequences, this movie became the best selling movie in 2016 as the prediction of the producer. The presented ideology delivered the audience through the story of the movie as the result of the text production, distribution, and consumption.

The research believed having implications for language teaching, especially in CDA subject. Toward the applying of the CDA approach in the course, the student should be able to achieve the understanding of the writer's style, finding meaning and reasons for particular stylistic choices (Lawson, 2008). Clark and Ivanic (1999) strengthen by stating that the introduction of CDA into the classroom would boost the development of language consciousness, giving students more control over their own use of language, as well as a greater understanding of how they are reflected in the language use of others. Lawson (2008) added by stating that CDA also has a value in encouraging students to challenge texts in their native language. In line with those statements, the researcher suggests to the teacher for being able to find any discourse material or media that suit with the learning goal and students' characteristics.

This study has shown that movie plays a significant role in the ideology production over the social context. It was found that this study has applied CDA to investigate the discursivity of text including the interaction and social context in order to explore the relationship between language and ideology and to examine how dominating ideologies oppress the less powerful through Rudy Habibie the movie. The findings described the various behaviors taken from Rudy Habibie the movie which is aimed to reveal stereotypes, presuppositions, hegemony, power and ideological stances. In conclusion, the representation of social context determines the production of discourse while discourse contributes to the construction of social power. These findings expected to contribute to the existing knowledge of CDA research to increase awareness among movie discourse researchers who aspire to carry out CDA studies. In addition, the research finding can be considered by the teacher to be used as a teaching source in the CDA course.

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He has a strategic position in University of Education, Bandung, Indonesia, that are academic field and non-academic field. He started career as Chair of Departent of Foreign Language Education at Faculty of Education Language and Literature, on 2003-2005, then became Chair of Master Program of French Language Education in Postgraduate Program University of Education, Bandung, Indonesia, on 2005-2008. At the end of 2015, he was appointed as Head of the Development and Coaching Agency by the Minister of Education and Culture of Republic of Indonesia

He has written several scientific works, thats are Etat du francais en Indonesie: une langue a cote a'une ambiance Anglophone. International Journal of Societe Japonaise de Didactique, Japan. Position and Role of Jeanne D'arc in history: Relation to the reflection of the Issues of French Contemporary Women. Historia Accredited National Journal, Department of History of FPIPS UPI Education.

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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.
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